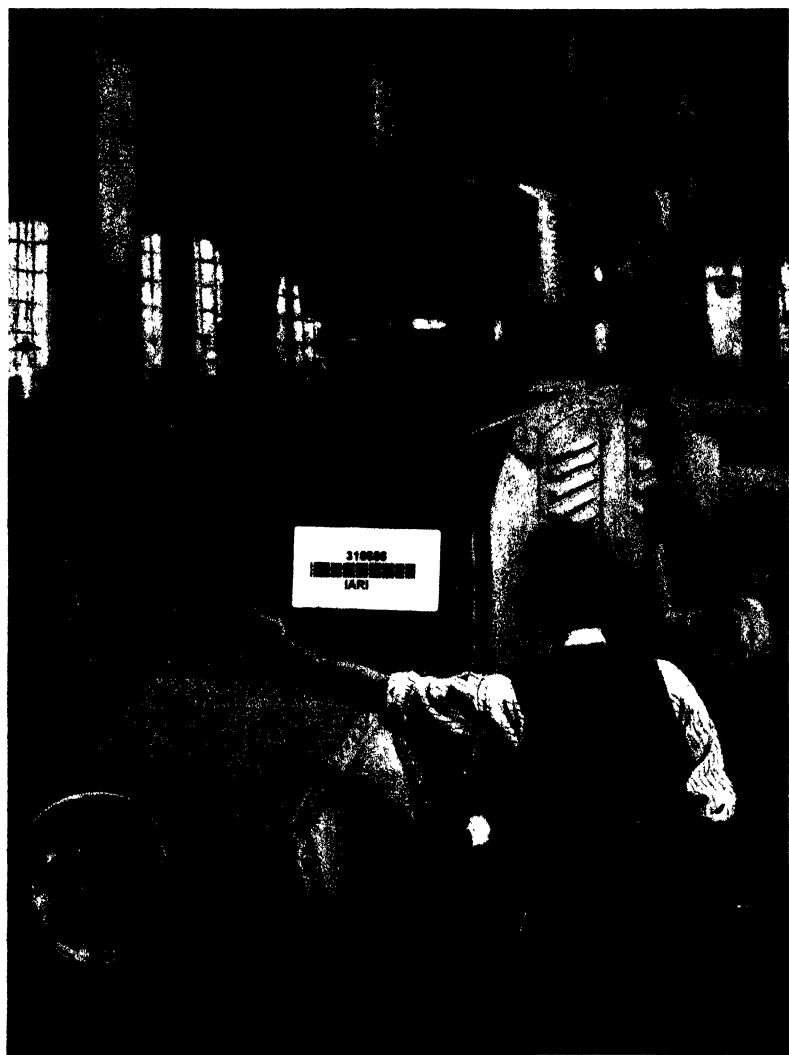




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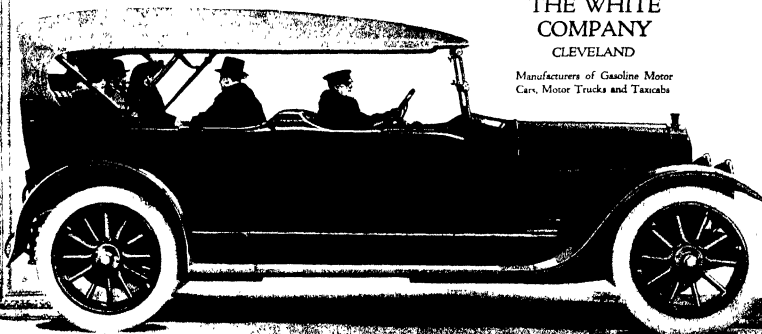
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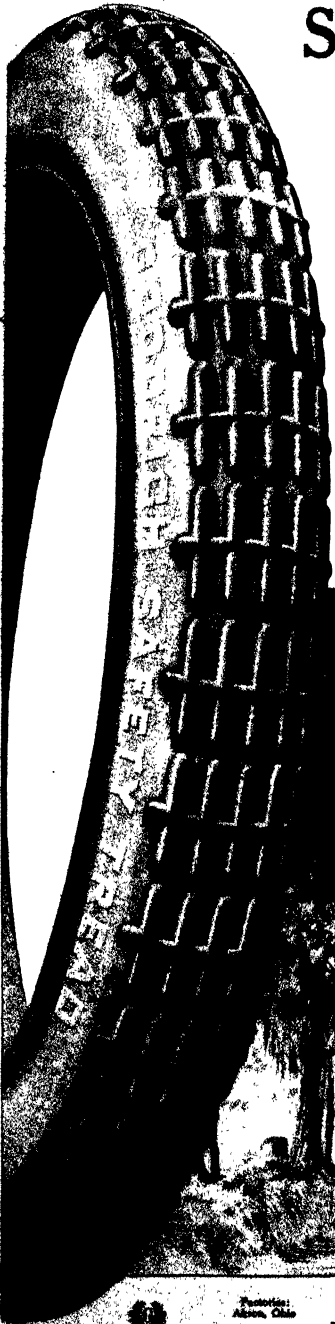
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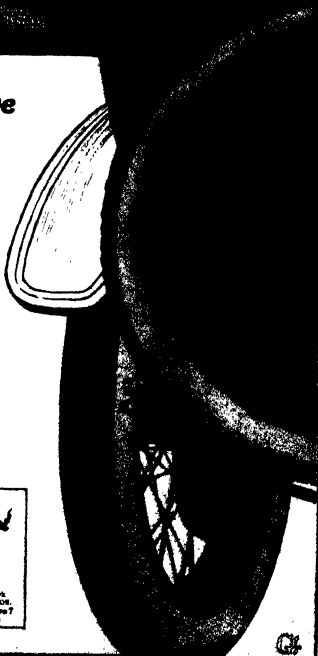
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with your first ride in**

The Eight-Cylinder Cadillac

The new Cadillac with its V-type Eight-Cylinder Engine is proving an absorbing topic for engineers and experts as well as for the layman.

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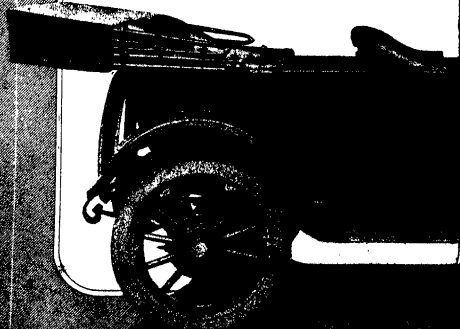
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it is possible to incor-
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so moderate a price

The equipment of the car speaks for itself. Timken bearings throughout; the D & O ball bearings in clutch and transmission; the full-floating rear axle; the 30.5 horsepower four-cylinder motor; the real leather upholstery and natural curled hair filling; the chrome Vanadium steel springs; the Vanadium steel gears; the single-unit, chain-driven starter generator; the Elsmann water-proof magneto; the fact that it direct drive no transmission gears are engaged or in motion; the almost exclusive use of drop forgings and drawn work; the perfect streamline body; the specially designed oval fenders; the one-man type top—all these are recognizable as features beyond betterment.

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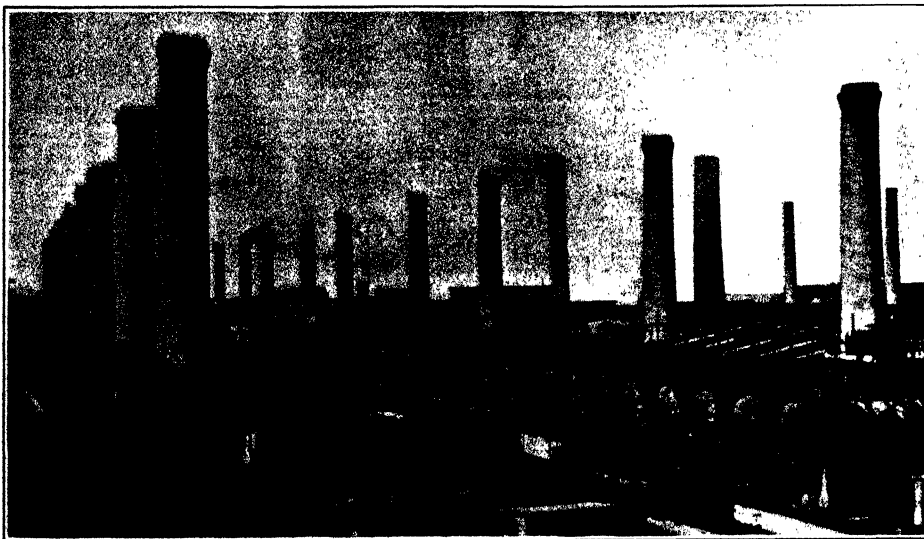
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Plant for producing gasoline by the Burton process of distillation under pressure.

The Burton Process of "Cracking" to Make Gasoline

By C. H. Claudy

GASOLINE, not long ago a by-product of petroleum refining, has come to be one of the most important results of crude oil distillation. The rise of the internal combustion engine, and its rapid perfecting, due to the enormous increase in the manufacture of the automobile, has not only created a tremendous demand for gasoline for the motorcar, but has spread the doctrine of cheap and easily secured power throughout the world, so that motorboats, aeroplanes, farm engines, and other light motor apparatus use probably in the aggregate as much, if not more, gasoline than do the automobiles.

In this country there are at least 1,000,000 automobiles in use. Production of automobiles is an unknown quantity, since the manufacturing census, taken every five years, is not yet available for 1914, and the 1906 census throws no light on present-day conditions. But with one single factory announcing its hope of completing 300,000 machines in one year, and several others stating that they will produce from 25,000 to 50,000 machines in a year, it would surprise no one that in 1915 half a million machines were added to those already rolling on our 1,200,000 miles of roads.

The demand for gasoline has thus surpassed that for kerosene, once the main product of crude oil refining, to such an extent that were it not for the education of many foreign peoples to the advantages of the use of kerosene its production would have to be curtailed, which in itself would curtail the production of gasoline and thus raise its price.

In the early days of crude oil refining the various hydrocarbons were separated from crude petroleum and from each other entirely by the process of fractional distillation, the lower heats driving off the gases and then the liquids of lowest specific gravities and boiling points, the first rise in temperature separating the heaviest of most important specific gravity and boiling point, and last of all the gasoline kerosene and hydrocarbons of low boiling points, leaving a residue which represented loss.

The process can be expressed in a homely manner by comparing crude petroleum to a pile of stones of all sizes—immense boulders representing the heaviest oils, smaller ones the lighter oils, cobblestones the liquids which we know as the naphthas, benzines and gasolines, and pebbles the gases. The process of fractional distillation is a mere sorting of these various stones into different piles, each pile of which contains substantially only stones of the same size, weight, and composition.

Such a process, however, does not yield enough cobblestones for the present-day market. The yield of gasoline through simple distillation of crude petroleum will vary, of course, with the character and composition of crude petroleum used. An analysis of crude shale oil, which may be considered a fair average, shows gasoline and naphtha to be not quite 7 per cent of the total, the burning oils not quite 32 per cent, heavy oils and paraffine scale about 39 per cent, and the rest loss.

It is obvious that if every barrel of forty-two gallons crude oil yielded less than four gallons of gasoline the United States could hardly export 183,000,000 gallons of "motor spirit" in 1913. In addition to her own enormous consumption, even with a crude oil production of 9,326,755,156 gallons of petroleum for the year.

So recourse is had to a process known as "cracking," a highly illustrative name for destructive distillation. Reverting for a moment to the several piles of stones, it will be readily understood that the man who wanted a lot of cobblestones and did not find enough in his miscellaneous pile would probably invest in a few hammers and proceed to crack some of his larger boulders into appropriate sizes.

It has been known for a long time that when petroleum is subjected to high temperatures, but without pressure, the hydrocarbons contained in it can be broken up or "cracked." Most of the hydrocarbons contained in petroleum belong to the so-called paraffine group, of which the general formula is C_nH_{2n+2} . When these paraffine hydrocarbons are decomposed it is the general rule that the resulting hydrocarbons consist in part of members of the ethylene or other unsaturated series. Just what does take place in this connection is not known, but we do know that the specific gravities

and boiling points of the resulting hydrocarbons after such "cracking" has taken place are, in the main, lower than existed in the original material.

In the Burton process of "cracking" to produce gasoline, now in use by the Standard Oil Company, and for which a \$100,000 plant has been erected at Whiting, Ind., this difficulty is overcome. Strangely enough, the inventor of the process can offer no satisfactory explanation of why it is successful where other and not greatly dissimilar processes fail. In dealing with chemical operations in manufacturing industries, it is often possible to get a result, and to know the exact means by which the result is attained, without knowing the reason underlying the process. Exactly the same thing occurs when we turn an electric current into a motor and produce power. We know how to do it and the means we must employ, but *why* an electric current produces magnetism and *why* magnetism acts as it does we know no more than the most ignorant savage.

The Burton process employs a container or still, provided with a proper fire box, a safety valve, a pressure gauge, a temperature gauge, etc., from which a pipe rises on an upward slant which pipe is later curled into a coil contained in a tank where it is cooled with water. This pipe further leads to a reservoir where the products of distillation collect. Beyond the condensing coil and just previous to its entry into the collecting tank is a valve. At the lower end of the coil in the condenser is a vent pipe, also provided with a valve.

The reader unfamiliar with this apparatus will see at first glance little to differentiate it from any apparatus for destructive distillation under pressure. The great difference comes in the point at which the valve is placed. In previous apparatus the valve was placed between the still and the condenser. By having such a valve closed while heat was applied, pressure could be put upon the liquids in the still, this raising their boiling points and accomplishing a form of "cracking." For no reason which can be understood such methods, however, when applied to fuel oil of the paraffine group formula, resulted *usually* in gasolines of the objectionable ethylene group, with the general formula C_nH_{2n} .

(Continued on page 11)

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Munn & Co., Inc., 361 Broadway, New York

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The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

Review of the Year 1914

Army and Navy.

ANY review of naval and military affairs must necessarily take account of the lessons which have been taught by the great World War. Limitations of space prevent any review here of the events of the war, that must be left to be dealt with in detail in a later issue. It is sufficient in the present review to draw attention to the fact that from the opening days of the conflict to the present hour the theories on which modern armies and navies, with their elaborate and complicated material, have been built up have been vindicated to a degree and with an exactness which is really wonderful. As regards war on the sea, it has been demonstrated that battleships are the backbone of any navy, that upon them all the other mites depend, and to the battleship's efficiency they all minister. Proof of this is seen in the fact that it is the preponderance of the British battleship line which for nearly half a year has been holding the main German fleet inactive within the shelter of its own harbors. In all the engagements which have taken place between the minor units—cruisers, destroyers, etc.—victory has always lain with the fleet which possessed the heavier artillery and the speed to enable that artillery to be used at most advantageous range. That much-debated type, the battle-cruiser, so far as it has had opportunity, has abundantly vindicated itself, a notable case in point being the destruction of Admiral von Spleen's squadron in the South Atlantic. The superiority of high speed has proved its value on all the seven seas, as witness the wonderfully successful commerce-destroying work of the German scout-cruisers "Emden," "Karlsruhe" and their sisters, and the exploits of the British "Undaunted" and "Arcturion," designed as destroyers of destroyers, which, in the case of the "Undaunted," sank in one morning four German destroyers in a running fight. No less effective, as a type, has been the large, well-armed and swift destroyer. To these vessels has fallen, very largely, the difficult and dangerous work of maintaining a close blockade of the German ports. On only two occasions have the Germans broken through for a raid along the coast of England. The destroyer flotillas have been the object of conscious attack by submarines, several of which they have sunk by ramming. It is noteworthy that in keeping a sharp lookout and by dexterous use of high speed and the helm the destroyers have usually been able to detect and avoid the torpedoes of the enemy. The early losses of the British by submarine attack proved that it was impossible for the larger cruises to maintain a close patrol of the enemy's shores. It is probable that ships of the size of the "Cressy" have been withdrawn farther off shore, and that to the swift destroyers has been allotted the work of forming the inner lines of blockade. The submarine has done exactly what the naval experts believed it would do, by forcing the larger and more valuable ships of the enemy to remain far from the home coast line. Nowhere has the German officer proved his efficiency so thoroughly as in the submarine service. Such good work has been done with the coast-defense submarines of moderate size that the advent, at an early date, of the sea-going submarine of large size and battleship speed is a certainty.

As regards the war on land, unquestionably the most impressive fact is the controlling influence which has

been exerted upon the strategy and tactics of war by the aeroplane. Aerial scouting has robbed military strategy of that element of secrecy upon which it was so largely based. Particularly has this been evident in the operations in France and Belgium, where, owing to the foreknowledge by each Commander-in-Chief of the projected attacks of the enemy, it has been possible to maintain a balance of forces on all parts of the battle line, which has brought about conditions approaching those of a stalemate. The wide turning movement, the surprise attack in overwhelming force, splitting the enemy in two and defeating him in detail, and many of the other decisive maneuvers which carried Napoleon like a thunderbolt through Europe, are gone never to return. Field artillery has added to its reputation as the controlling element, other things being equal, in modern battle; and the stream of machine-gun bullets has established itself as a means of attack and defense, second only in deadly efficiency to shrapnel fire. In fact, it is shrapnel and the machine gun which have been doing the wholesale slaughter of the present war.

One of the great surprises of the war was the size and deadly efficiency of the German siege artillery, against whose fire the Belgian and French forts proved to be utterly helpless. The most efficient weapon is the 11-inch howitzer, which, it now appears, has done most of the work of fort reduction. The gun has attained the same mastery of the fort as the naval gun has of armor-plate on the battleship. More than ever it has been proved that the mobile field army, thoroughly equipped with field artillery, howitzers, aeroplanes and transport, is the main reliance of the land forces of a nation, either for attack or defense.

Civil Engineering.

So surprising has been the public interest in the war that great events in the broad field of science and the arts have transpired with but a passing notice. Confusion among those who have been the object of the Panama Canal has been the subject of the Panama Canal, the new and powerful dredging plant has opened and maintained a channel sufficient for the passage of ocean ships of large size. The growth of traffic has been steady and very encouraging, particularly in the trade between Atlantic and Pacific ports of the United States. Except for the shallders of Colón, which were expected and can be controlled, the great work has functioned admirably; and it stands to-day as a noble tribute to American engineering and executive ability. The formal opening will take place early in the spring of this year.

Rivalling the Panama Canal opening in importance was the completion of the enlargement of the Kiel Canal, which took place last summer. The normal width of the canal is now 335 feet on the surface and its depth is 30 feet. The twin locks at each end are 1,002.6 feet in usable length and 147.0 feet in width as against a length of 1,000 feet and a width of 110 feet of the locks at Panama. The work of reconstructing the canal cost \$55,000,000. Its strategic value in the present war is simply incalculable. Another canal of great importance to maritime commerce is that at Cape Cod, which shortens the distance between Vineyard Sound and Boston by about seventy miles, and enables vessels to avoid the exposed and stormy waters of Nantucket Sound and Cape Cod. Work has progressed steadily on the enlargement of the New York State Barge Canal, extending from the Great Lakes to the Hudson River, whose total cost, with the fifty terminals to be constructed along its course, will be about \$128,000,000. Including its branches, the canal system totals about 750 miles of navigable waterways; 440 miles of this has been constructed and the remaining 300 miles flow through canals. Work has progressed satisfactorily on the great Catskill water supply which will bring 200,000,000 gallons of mountain water into New York per day through an aqueduct ninety miles in length, and distribute it through a 12-foot tunnel built several hundred feet below the surface of Manhattan.

The great Ashtabula dam in the Catskills and the aqueduct leading into the city are practically completed and water may now be brought from the Catskills to augment the supply in the Croton Reservoir. An important work nearing completion is the great lock of the Government canal at Salmon Bay, by which shipping will pass from Puget Sound at Seattle to Lakes Washington and Franklin. The lock is 325 feet long, 80 feet wide and 56 feet high. A vast national scheme of reclamation which has been the object of much favorable attention by the people of the Netherlands is that for filling in the greater portion of the Zuider Zee. The scheme contemplates building an embankment about 31,000 yards in length across the mouth of the Zuider Zee and retaining 625,000,000 cu. yd. of water from this land are estimated at \$4,000,000,000. The value of the probable crops \$28,000,000,000. An important development in New York is the construction of a series of 1,000-foot docks to accommodate the large ships of the present day. The much-talked-of bridge (highway and railroad) across the North River has yet to be built; but during the year there was presented a

most reasonable proposition and one that will probably be followed, namely, to have the bridge built by private capital and leased to the railroad and the States of New York and New Jersey, one half the rental to be assumed by the railroads and one half by the two States. The proposed bridge is to have two decks, one for highway traffic, the other for eight railroad tracks. The North River Bridge would have a central span of 3,000 feet, with anti-towers each about 400 feet in height. The Quebec Bridge, with a central span of 1,800 feet, the largest cantilever structure in the world, is making good progress. The piers are completed and the erection of the superstructure is under way. Another monumental bridge which has been greatly advanced during the year is the great 1,000-foot span, arch bridge, connecting the New Haven and Pennsylvania railroads, which is being built across the East River at Hell Gate. A vast engineering problem, work upon which has been pushed steadily through the year, is the control of the Mississippi River. There is a growing conviction that the method of embankment and revetment adopted by the army engineers is the only possible way to solve the problem, and earnest efforts are being made to secure appropriation of the necessary sum of money to enable this work to be pushed to completion with all the men and mechanical appliances that can be crowded upon the work.

Merchant Marine.

The most important event of the year in connection with the merchant marine was the signing of the seventy-four articles of the Convention of the Safety of Life at Sea, which met at the close of last year in London. The most important findings are those affecting construction of ships; and on this point the Convention provided that the degree of safety shall increase in a regular and continuous manner with the length of vessels, and that vessels shall be as completely solid as possible, and that the safety of the services for which they are intended. Although the work of the Conference did not go as far as we could have wished, the ratification of the Convention by the various maritime nations will mark a great step in the direction of providing safer travel on the high seas. Unfortunately, Congress is still debating the question of ratification, and it seems likely that the safety of the general public is to be sacrificed to the convenience of the seamen. The importance of this matter was emphasized during the year by the sinking of the "Empress of Ireland," which went down in twenty minutes after collision, with the loss of about 1,000 souls. Further emphasis was laid upon the question by the burning of the "Volturno," in which it was proved that the ordinary type of lifeboat is practically useless when the disabled ship is rolling heavily in a seaway. Two more of the vast 900-foot passenger steamers have gone into commission during the year, the "Vaterland" and the "Agulha". The former, built by Blohm & Voess for the Hamburg American Line, is 950 feet in length, 100 feet in beam, and displaces 24,000 tons. The latter, built on the Clyde for the Cunard Line, is 901 feet long, 97 feet broad, 92 feet deep to the main deck, and has a displacement of 23,000 tons on a draft of 36 feet. There was launched during the year by Blohm & Voess a sister ship to the "Vaterland," the "Bismarck"; and at Belfast there is nearing completion for the White Star Line the "Britannic," a somewhat larger "Olympic," which embodies in her hull construction all the recommendations of the London Convention as regards safety substructure. The steam turbine continues to demonstrate its superiority as a drive for large, fast ships, and the success of the various types of transformers indicates that ultimately a combination of turbine and transformer will be a vast extent of all engines and transformers, will become a reality. The mechanical drive of Westinghouse, the hydraulic reduction gear of Voith-Sieling, and the electric reduction gear as used on our collier "Jupiter" have all shown excellent results. Certainly the most remarkable development in this direction has been the decision of our navy to install electric propulsion on our latest battleships, the 32,000-ton "California". This decision was taken as the result of the excellent results obtained on the collier "Jupiter". The merchant marine of the world continues to show marvelous growth. Great Britain leading with a tonnage nearly one third greater than that of all the other maritime powers combined. The totals are: Great Britain, 20,275,791 tons; Germany, 4,904,743 tons; United States, 3,489,796 tons; chiefly domestic shipping; Norway, 2,475,323 tons; France, 2,246,504 tons; Japan, 1,700,002 tons, and Italy, 1,671,761 tons.

The Steam Railroads.

The most interesting development among the steam railroads is that occurring in the motive power. Although the electrification of the railroads in the United States has been completed as far as New Haven and the electric service is in successful operation, and although, particularly in the mountain districts, some important changes from steam to electric power are taking place, there is as yet no indication of this country

substitution which used to be predicted a few years ago. Undoubtedly electrification has been postponed for many years at least, by the recent remarkable developments in shipbuilding. It has been found that the use of light engines, turbine generators, and superheat produces an improvement in the efficiency of the simple locomotive which is truly remarkable, amounting to 25 and in cases even 50 per cent. The promises held out when compounding was introduced, and never fully realized, have been more than realized in the introduction of superheat. This has led to the belief that the size, as witness the appearance of the large pusher freight locomotive built by the Baldwin Works for service over the heavy grades of the Erie Railway. The engine is a Mallet compound; but its weight and power have been increased by adding a third pair of cylinders and a set of six-coupled driving wheels carried by the frame of the tender. The boiler has 6,986 square feet of heating surface, and the steam is utilized in six pairs of high pressure and two pairs of low pressure cylinders. The diameter of all cylinders is 36 inches and the stroke 32. The working pressure is 210 pounds and the drawbar pull 80 tons. The total weight of this huge engine is 477½ tons, of which 370½ tons are upon the drivers. The general tendency is now in the direction of still further increased impulse this year through the introduction of the new Westinghouse brake with electric control. A twelve-car steel train, 1,000 tons in weight, running 60 miles an hour, was stopped within its own length of 1,000 feet. The maximum brake capacity was obtained in 3¼ seconds as against 8 seconds. A twelve-car train running 90 miles an hour can be stopped within 1,000 feet. That railway travel may be made perfectly safe, even where it is heavily congested, is shown by the experience of the New York Subway, which during the year pointed with great pride to the fact that its lines have carried 2,199,000,000 persons in the last nine years without a single passenger fatality, and this in spite of the fact that the speed and frequency of this train service are unsurpassed anywhere.

Electricity.

Undoubtedly the most important scientific event of the year was the discovery by Prof. Kammerringh Onnes that when certain metals are cooled to a temperature near absolute zero they cease to have any measurable electrical resistance and a current started in a coil then continues indefinitely, without any appreciable diminution. Whether this discovery will ever have any commercial application in the field of electrical engineering it is impossible to say. At present it seems unlikely, and yet all our electrical machinery of the present time had its beginning in experiments that seemed just as impracticable, from a commercial point of view, as this one. Thanks to the practical side of electricity, the present war shows how indispensable this form of energy has become. We find it used in the telephone and telegraph, both by wire and through the ether; it is used at night to throw powerful beams of light; in the hospitals to locate bullets; in camp for sterilizing water. In this connection we might refer to the new wireless Army communication wireless station, consisting of a motor vehicle equipped with a powerful apparatus that has transmitted messages a distance of 800 miles under favorable conditions. Wireless telegraphy has been successfully used to send messages from aircraft. With a small apparatus weighing altogether 15 pounds, the British government has been able to transmit communication from an aeroplane over a distance of twenty miles. Turning to more powerful pursuits, wireless telegraphy has been used by the Pine Department of New York to keep fireboats in touch with headquarters and also with floating boats that are afloat. The success of this system points to the possibility of providing a deep-sea fireboat service. Before the war wireless weather service was established in the North and South Seas, Germany established a rigidness of the intense interest in wireless telegraphy displayed by amateurs in the league, recently formed, establishing relay stations all over the country, so that messages may be relayed from Maine to California. Wireless telegraphy has shown progress this year. Messages were exchanged between Berlin and Vienna, a distance of three hundred miles. A portable wireless receiving unit mounted on an electric motor, and spoken messages from the *Missi Dwyer* at a distance of sixty miles. There has been marked electrical development in the field of street vehicles, particularly in the introduction of electric service on gasoline motor vehicles. To encourage tourism, road vehicles have been distributed among electric vehicles powered in certain parts of the country, with the view of electric power which service may be rendered. In the United States, a fifteen-month test, forty-five electric cars have been purchased, each of two and one-half tons capacity, and with a range of twenty-two miles. An electric motor used by the Pennsylvania Railroad in moving freight cars through streets and in other service, a saving of nearly 50 per cent of cost has been realized and has been used. There

has been some progress in the electrification of railroads during the year. The New York, New Haven & Hartford system has extended its electrified zone from Stamford to New Haven. In Norway the government is converting its steam railroads into electric lines. Work has already begun on the Christiansia-Drummen Rail Road, and the government is buying up as many falls as possible to provide sufficient current for the entire railroad system of the country. Of local interest is the hydro-electric plant at Washington, D. C., authorized by Congress, the damming of the Potomac River here-power will be available. There have been many novel and curious uses for electricity during the year. In Argentina a method has been devised of electrocuting grasshoppers and their eggs. A portable plant capable of developing a tension of 6,000 volts energizes a wire screen which is placed over the ground to be treated, and by this means the insects are destroyed. Trees are similarly treated with metallic brooms having insulated handles. Some advance has been made in electroculture. One experimenter has shown that repeated applications of Roentgen rays for periods of one hundred and fifty seconds have a marked stimulating effect upon the growth of the plant. In one of our western towns a high school has been equipped completely with electrical apparatus and even with electrostatic apparatus. No furnace man is required. We might continue *ad infinitum* to list the various novel uses of electricity that the year has brought forth, but the few instances cited will suffice to impress one with the continued growth and endless development of this branch of practical science.

Aeronautics.

Although no striking innovations in aeroplane construction have been brought forward during the past year, nevertheless that important advances have been made in the science of aviation is evidenced by the more perfect control that is apparent, and the increased reliability and endurance of the later models. Even a high school has been equipped completely with electrical apparatus and even with electrostatic apparatus. No furnace man is required. We might continue *ad infinitum* to list the various novel uses of electricity that the year has brought forth, but the few instances cited will suffice to impress one with the continued growth and endless development of this branch of practical science.

In the way of records there is little to report, the war intervening about the time the important competitions were due, but mention may be made of two flights from Paris to Cairo, one by way of Constantinople in eight stages. The altitude record appears to have gone to Linné, who attained 21,654 feet, as against 19,685 for last year.

A feature to which increasing attention has been given is automatic stabilizing, and many devices for the purpose have been invented, some of which have given really wonderful demonstrations of their powers, notably the gyroscopic controlled device shown by Sperry.

The efforts for the improvement of aviation have been directed almost exclusively to purposes of warfare, but anything that tends to perfect aeroplanes in this direction will also be largely applicable to machines used for commercial purposes. As a fighting machine the aeroplane surpassed expectation, and for the work of scouting and observation it has proved invaluable in the present war.

More powerful motors have made possible machines of greater speed and also greater carrying capacity, as was evidenced last year by the appearance of the great Sikorsky plane; but development in this direction has apparently been slow.

What promised to be the sensation of the year was the flight across the ocean, in which but one candidate for the prize developed; but unfortunately, or possibly fortunately, the outbreak of hostilities necessitated a postponement of the plans.

It is interesting to note the experiments made by Curtiss with the flying machine built by Prof. Langley, which demonstrated that if a proper method of launching or setting the flight had been employed the flying machine would have arrived years ago.

Automobiles.

The only really marked novelty in the automobile field is the very recent introduction of the eight-cylinder motor, which will undoubtedly give the even, continuous torque that means so much for smooth running and increased fuel economy of power and speed that is expected. Outside of this matter of cylinders, the story of the past year has been one of refinement in various details and perfected standardization and processes of manufacture. Bodies have come in for a large share of attention and more careful study has been given to the artistic harmony of lines and proportions. Special efforts have been put on electric starting and lighting, and in these directions considerable improvement is noted both

in durability and reliability. Efforts are also being made to produce a satisfactory and reliable device to automatically changing gears and several on different principles have been introduced that indicate much promise.

Although motor trucks and commercial vehicles generally have arrived at a very practical stage, it is to be regretted that they have not been more generally adopted. The trouble appears to be mostly with the users, who overlook, abuse, and neglect their machines and then condemn them. The demonstrations of the value of motor trucks in the operations in the European war where they are absolutely indispensable will undoubtedly tend to awaken the commercial use to their advantages.

The year opened with considerable interest in cycle cars, just about the time they were meeting the fate abroad that is sure to overtake an immature idea everywhere. While an interesting novelty, the cycle car has been little more than a toy, essentially of French origin and later taken up in England. It did not take long for the more practical men of that country to recognize the shortcomings and limitations of the design and to jump to a logical conclusion by bringing out the light automobile. In this country a swarm of promoters started the cycle car movement, while following the history of the English movement, has failed to show signs of vitality, but a few far-sighted men with better practical knowledge of the requirements of the road vehicle have introduced really good automobiles of light power and low price which will undoubtedly take a permanent position in the market. Whatever else the cycle car may accomplish, it has at least served a good purpose in hastening the development of a type of car that will meet the requirements of a numerous class of people.

Astronomy.

On July 21st Mr. Nicholson of the Lick Observatory photographed a faint object in the vicinity of Jupiter near the eighth satellite, but still fainter. The new body proved to be a satellite of the great planet, the ninth to be discovered. This discovery is by far the most important of the year.

One of the principal events of the year was the total solar eclipse which occurred on August 21st. The most favorable stations for scientific observation were located in Russia. A number of expeditions established themselves at various points along the Russian part of the track. The intervention of the war unfortunately interfered with their work, but enough of them performed their tasks sufficiently well to complete the long record of eclipse observations.

On the 7th of November there was a transit of Mercury across the sun's disk. The scientific interest of a transit of Mercury is not very great, being confined to the exact observation of the times of the apparent contacts of Mercury with the sun's limb, which gives valuable data for determining the exact position in the orbit.

The first comet to be discovered in 1914 was detected by Dr. Kitzinger of Borthkum, Germany, on March 20th. The second comet to be discovered in 1914 was found by Zlatinský at Melnik, Russia, on May 15th. On September 18th Mr. Leon Campbell of the Harvard Station at Arequipa, Peru, discovered a comet which was then independently discovered at the Cape of Good Hope. Although Delavan's comet was discovered in 1913, it was a very conspicuous object in the October sky of 1914. Indeed, it appeared to the naked eye fully as bright as a third magnitude star and had a tail several degrees in length.

It has long been a question of much interest whether we receive heat from the stars, and if so, how much. Until recent years all attempts to detect and measure the almost infinitesimal amounts of energy which are radiated from the stars met with little success. No very great advance was made in this very difficult field until the present year, when Dr. Couderc of the Bureau of Standards repeated his work at the Lick Observatory. His observations will give direct indication of the heat received from stars so faint as to be invisible to the naked eye. It was invariably found that for the same visual brightness a yellow star sends us more heat than a white one and a red star more than a yellow. Speaking roughly, Dr. Couderc declares a yellow star of spectrum like the sun gives us twice as much energy for "heat" in proportion to its light as does a white star like Vega or Spica, while a red star like Antares radiates three times as much heat as a white one of the same apparent brightness.

The distinguished Dutch astronomer, Prof. Kapteyn, published an admirable investigation on the motions of stars which show in their spectra the dark lines of helium. As he has shown, the kinematic studies of the motion of helium stars, Prof. Kapteyn has obtained conclusive evidence that almost the whole of the stars of this type in a huge region of the sky, 60 degrees wide and 140 degrees long, extending for 30 degrees on each side of the Milky Way from Arcturus past the Southern Cross and Centaurus to Scordio and Ophiuchus are moving together relatively to the sun at least.

Military Tactics and the Motor

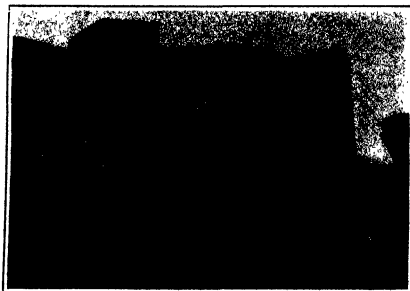
How the Power Vehicle Has Created a New System of Attack and Defense and Has Lessened the Chances of Cutting Off an Army from Its Base of Supplies

Loading a Paris stage with meat.

Chauffeur's port in Belgian armored car.

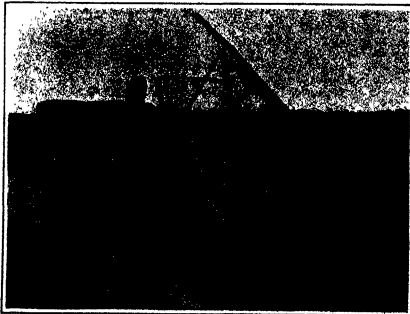
OUT of the chaos of conflicting and vague reports from the European battlefields there arises clear and pre-eminent the enigma of the automobile and motor truck. Put to the test of war conditions for the first time since its invention, with the exception of its very limited use during the last Balkan war, the gasoline-driven motorcar has more than fulfilled the expectations of its advocates. It has almost become a treasure "bromidiom" to say that the modern motorcar has been an important factor in the rapid concentration and transportation of armies, and that but for the motor the German army could not have succeeded in advancing to within twenty miles of Paris in the short space of four weeks. Even the most cursory reader of the daily press has been given to understand that the German attack in August was an attack by automobile. The attack failed, the armies have been locked in Flanders and along the eastern frontier of France for months. But the automobile has lost nothing of its importance. It has simply taken up other duties.

To give in detail all the work performed within and behind the battle lines in France and in Poland and Gallia would require a full issue of the *Scientific American*. So complete and important is the work of the motorcar that there is not a single military operation without its help or without feeling the effect of gasoline in some of its phases. From hurling heavy guns, machine guns, quick-firing cannon and armored cars at the enemy, to observing his operations behind the lines, carrying fodder and provisions for men and beasts, bringing aid to wounded ammunition for the artillery and infantry, carrying high officers at express train speed between the various headquarters and capable engineers from point to point along the battle line where their presence is most necessary, and a host of other incalculable performances—all are "in the day's work" for the modern military auto-



Photograph by Maxime

How motor cars serve as ambulances.



Photograph by Paul Thibault

Wire cutting guard used on German cars.

mobile, and will continue until the end. Motorcar Resources.

In speaking of the "resources" in motorcars in a country it is of course necessary to take into consideration that in Great Britain the government has not quite the same power to commandeer touring cars for the army as the Continental governments have. The Royal Automobile Club and its affiliated organizations have placed at the disposal of the British government about 15,000 touring cars, with drivers or owner-drivers, and the government itself has "impressed" somewhere near 6,000 motor trucks and has converted about 800 touring cars into armored cars by means of enclosing the car in thin steel shields. These converted touring cars, built to carry on an average not more than 3,000 pounds on the chassis, now are compelled to carry between 7,000 and 8,000 pounds, with the result that crystallization and breakage of chassis side frames is of rather frequent occurrence. In addition to strictly military vehicles, the government has received from private sources more than five hundred well-equipped ambulances, a great number of these being mounted on American chassis (Overland, Buick, and Ford).

In the case of France and Germany, the motorbuses and interurban motor passenger coaches have proved of tremendous value. Germany has an extensive system of passenger coach transportation run under the jurisdiction of the post office "mail coaches." More than 3,000 of these sturdy and capacious vehicles have been transformed into military vehicles, especially for meat transport to the front. The same must be said of the French buses, long lines of which may be seen at all times several miles behind the battle front.

The military authorities foresaw the great service that power wagons in general were called upon to perform in the event of war, and as in all the leading countries, they endeavored to have all the



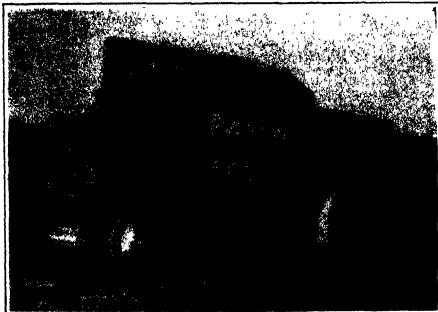
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The Canadian contingent on review at Salisbury Plain, England. The cars were built in the United States.



Photograph by Mervin

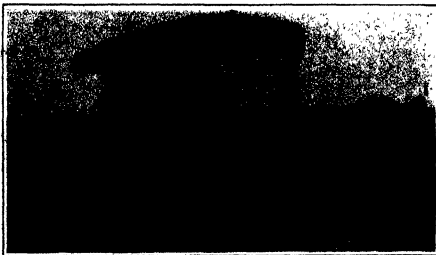
Belgian armored car, showing the revolving turret.



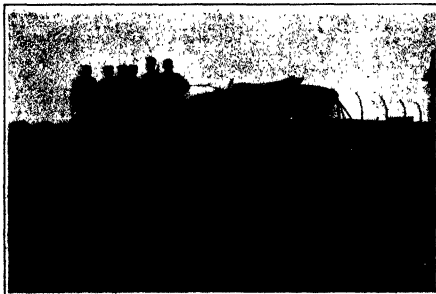
Heavy English armored car, a fort on wheels.

power wagon trucks including the ones used with autobus body, built according to the general standard regulations laid out by the War Department. In this way the trucks of the autobuses are in reality a type of power wagon chassis which conforms to the same standard rules as apply to the larger power cars. The Paris bus employs two different types of motor and truck combination, one being designed by the Schneider works, the great artillery and machine works, and the second by the De Dion automobile builders.

Since the war broke out the autobuses have entirely disappeared from the circulation in the city and the whole number of these cars has been enrolled from the very onset of operations in the carefully planned service for supplying provisions to the army on the field. No less than 1,100 buses were thus available, and they are now engaged in following the troops in the course of the battle. About 900 of them were taken for the transportation of fresh meat in quarters, and the inside of the vehicle was quite transformed by taking out all the seats and partitions so as to leave a roomy space for holding the quarters of beef, those being, as a rule, hung upon hooks from the roof. A single autobus can hold a very large number of pieces, so that the whole fleet is able to handle enormous quantities of meat, such as are needed for the immense number of troops engaged in the war. The remainder of the vehicles, or about 200, are designed for the transport of troops, and this can be done in a very rapid manner on occasion, either to help out the railroad or in other cases where railroad facilities cannot be had. Again, for emergency cases or rapid maneuvers, a considerable number of troops can be instantly sent to a certain point of the battle either in autobus or on other kinds of power wagon, and this might often change the issue of events. It is also probable that a few of the buses are fitted out for ambulance work, and one of our photographs shows



Motor truck fitted with an electric generator for field use.



Photograph by Mervin

German prisoners conveyed by motor truck to Châlons sur Marne.

a bus transporting some of the Algerian troops.

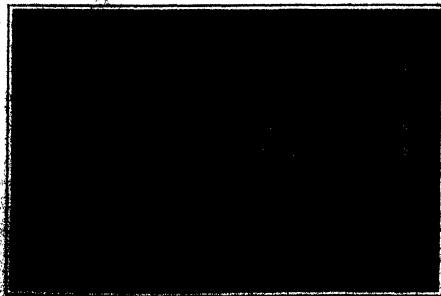
Owing to the careful construction of the automobile chassis and motor, the cars go through their daily work on the battlefield with their heavy loads, and the military authorities are more than satisfied with their performance. It was considered fortunate that just within a few years Paris had adopted the present extensive autobus system, which led to building over a thousand cars a short time before the war broke out. As to the way the cars stand the wear of this hard service, they say it is very good, and with the exception of three or four cars held up and four or five in repairs all of the great fleet of buses continue to circulate over the roads.

Turning to the question of transporting the food supplies for the troops, and especially the handling of quarters of beef, the present organization is excellent. Large troops of cattle follow the armies over the roads and are conveyed by soldiers. At the headquarters where the troops are stationed a suitable place is selected in a town or village or at any chosen spot along the route and improvised abattoirs are installed, usually in buildings and grounds, where the mobilized butchers are at work slaughtering cattle and cutting up the beef in quarters. From the abattoirs the autobuses receive the meat, which the soldiers load upon the vehicles in rapid order, then the fleet of cars start off upon the road to a point lying nearest the battlefield. Here the meat is changed over to the covered army horse wagons of light build, and these are able to travel over fields or other ground so as to reach the rear of the fighting line; then the army cooks receive it and proceed to prepare the rations for the men.

Watching the Motor at Work.

The popular conception of lines of infantry in trenches, interspersed with motor convoys loaded with ammunition, etc., is pure folly. Motor convoys are miles

(Continued on page 22)



Person sitting in the woods from a hostile airplane.



Carrying supplies to the British troops.

The Car of 1915

Some of the More Important Changes Ushered in With the New Year

By S. P. McMinn, M.E.

DURING the past twelve months there have been a number of developments in the motorcar world, which, perhaps, are not as plainly apparent to the layman as they are to the student of matters gasoline. Also, there are a number of trends of the times which must be plainly apparent to all who have eyes to see. Not the least important of the developments of the past year has been the commercializing of the eight-cylinder motor. Or should we say popularizing, for the motor of this type long has been successfully used by our brothers across the seas. But it is characteristic of American progressiveness that those who have been instrumental in bringing the eight-cylinder motor to native hearth have not been content to follow blindly the example set by French pioneers. In constructional features and design they might have looked far and perhaps in vain for better engineering in so far as the mere drawing of the plans is concerned. But engineering extends further than the draughting table. It extends out on the roads, and comes close to the pocket-book of the ultimate consumer. So American engineers have been free and frank in their adoption of practice long acceptable abroad, but they have applied to it American engineering principles, which means, briefly, quantity production and a popular price. As a result, we now have two American eight-cylinder motors, one selling for just under \$2,000 and the other selling for less than \$1,500. Shall we have more? It seems more than likely.

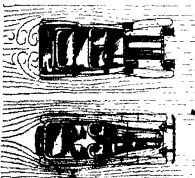


An eight-cylinder motor.

From the eight-cylinder motor it is but a step to the motor with twelve cylinders. So far only one foreign maker has attained success with this type of motor, and here again it is characteristic of American progressiveness that already several well-known American makers are known to be experimenting with motors of the kind. Whether the experiments will bear fruit, whether we shall see twelve-cylinder motors competing with eight-cylinder ones, remains for the future to bring forth. And in this connection it must be remembered that there were those who were outspoken enough to predict that the eight-cylinder motor never would become popular under the American flag.

The light-by-comparison six-cylinder car which was such a feature of last year's crop of machines continues to hold its own, though it might require a stretch of the imagination to see it making the strides that were freely predicted for it. As a matter of cold fact, the still-lighter-by-comparison, small, high-speed, four-cylinder motor appears to have made greater strides in the year, and by comparison, than has the six. Another significant feature is the increase in the number of cars which sell at or near to the \$1,000 mark.

At the same time it is interesting to note that the well-defined division which existed between the mid-range car and the larger one fast is disappearing. It has come to be regarded as distinctly unhappy and undesirable that there should be any division as between classes of cars. Instead there is a marked tendency to place all four-wheeled vehicles in the same class. The well-evident, for instance, has been practically pushed over the horizon, and it is now a motorcar pure and simple. This may also be taken to mean that the narrow tread appears to be passing. Already a number of makers of narrow tread cars have widened them to track 56 inches and others give evidence of



"Streamlines."

appreciating the falling popularity of the narrow tread car by offering the option of either narrow or standard width. The outward appearance of the car of 1915 has not changed very much. Yet

there is a subtle something which almost involuntarily brings to mind and expression the saying: "Clean as a hound's tooth." The blending of lines, which first gave promise about four years ago, when more doors on touring cars were one of the dominating notes, has become an established fact, and practically every car, regardless of class distinction, now has the streamline which last year was a feature of a comparatively few.

This term "streamline," by the way, has become a common one, yet there are not many among the ranks of motorists who know its significance. It means, briefly, that the designer has taken advantage of the entering wedge principle, and has at least in part converted wind resistance to his own use. In other words, he has conserved some of the wasted energy represented by displaced atmosphere by training the eddy currents to help push the car along.

He has done this by tapering the engine hood and in some cases by fitting a polished radiator; by gently flaring the body sides and carefully eliminating all external protuberances; by clearing everything off the running boards; by

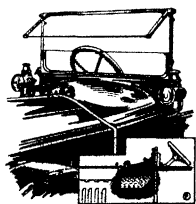


The painted radiator.

rounding the fenders, by giving thought to body lines at the rear, where once no thought was bestowed. The result, of course, is a much more efficient car and one which is driven on less gasoline and lubricating oil.

Here are two notable examples of how far the smoothing process has been carried by two makers in the popular price class. One of them has even eliminated the time-honored and not always slightly radiator filler. He has placed it beneath the engine head, and in this way obtained smoothness where it was not obtainable before. The other has substituted for the usual door latches a magnetic device, which is entirely inclosed both inside and outside. To open the doors you merely press a button.

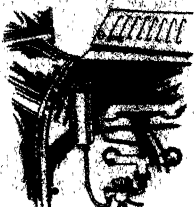
Left side drive is now almost universal, and there is nothing new in that except its widespread adoption. There are not more than three or four makers who still adhere to the right side position for the steering wheel. Quite generally, now, the fuel container is carried either beneath, or rather in, a deep cowl over the driver's feet where before there was waste space, or at the rear of the body. This was one of the noticeable tendencies last year. The cowl-located tank indicates no difficulty in feeding the fuel to the carburetor, for gravity may be relied upon. But the rear tank has been responsible for the development of a new method of getting the gasoline from the tank to the engine. The use of pressure feed is open to many objections, and now the necessity for it has been obviated by the development of what has come to be styled vacuum feed.



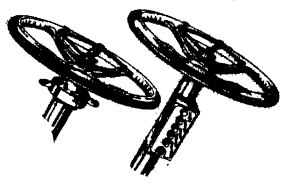
The cowl tank.

This vacuum feeding device, which now is quite common and bids fair to be more common, consists of a small tank placed generally on the forward side of the dashboard. There are two compartments to the tank, the upper compartment being connected to the main fuel tank and the lower to the carburetor. The suction induced in the intake manifold of the motor is

caused, through suitable piping and valves, to draw fuel from the main tank into the upper compartment, whence it drains by gravity into the lower compartment and thence to the carburetor. The device is entirely automatic in action. Along with the convenience that comes with center control of the gear shifting and emergency brake levers, there is a well-defined tendency to place all other control devices within easy reach of the operator. Thus, for instance,



Vacuum feeding device.



Switchboard on the steering column.

switches, carburetor adjustments, etc., now are being placed on what have come to be styled cowl boards, directly in front of the driver. At the same time, there is a noticeable trend toward the adoption of switchboard units mounted directly upon the steering column.

Wire wheels may now be had on the majority of cars at a nominal extra cost, though there are not many makers who supply them as standard equipment. That they have made some advance there is no gainsaying, though it likely will require another year before they are entitled to the descriptive adjective common.

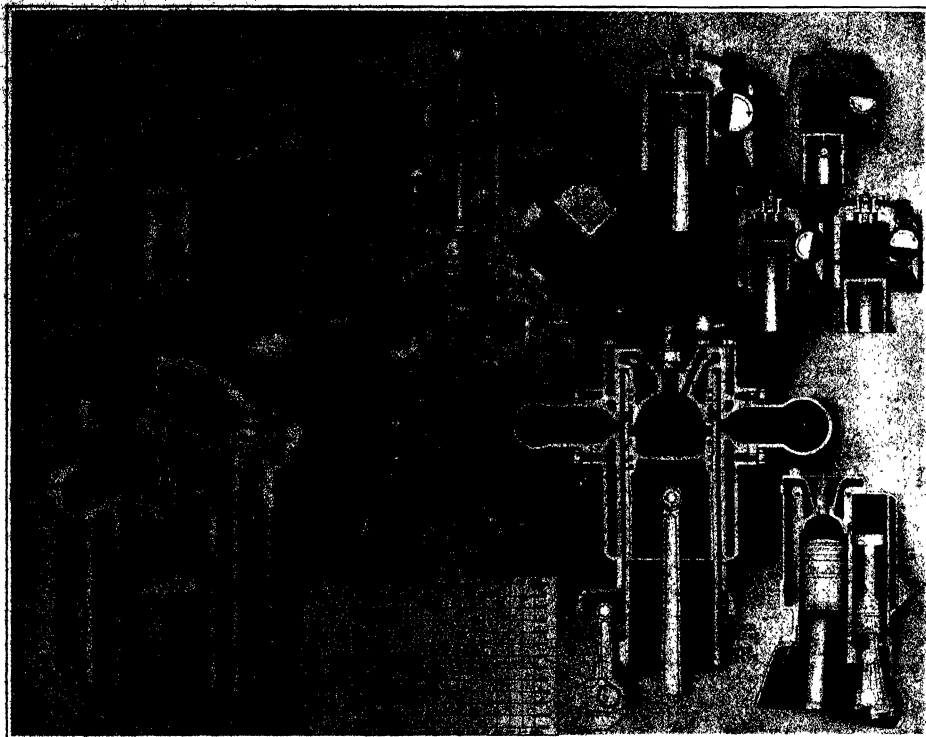
In the vials of the car, one of the most noteworthy features, as already has been chronicled, is the increase in small-bore, high-speed, four-cylinder motors. The increase in the type has served to draw attention to the fact that the method of casting all four cylinders—and in the case of six-cylinder motors all six cylinders—in one block grows apace.

Another of the past year's developments which has lived up to its promise is the steadily increasing use of a detachable cylinder head. This construction simplifies somewhat manufacturing operations and at the same time increases accessibility and facilitates the easy removal of carbon deposit.

The use of cord intake and suitable passage piping shows a slight increase. With the now almost universal adoption of electric lighting and engine starting equipment—there are not more than three or four makers of cars on which this equipment is not listed as standard—has come what may be styled a logical reversion to battery ignition. Given the storage battery as part of the car it is such a comparatively simple matter to arrange to draw current from it for ignition than quite a number of makers have eliminated high tension magnos as a result. Others, however, prefer the proven reliability of the magneto and the complete isolation of ignition and lighting functions. But in the popular priced cars the modern battery ignition system, brought to the plane of perfection where mechanical and electrical lag has been practically eliminated, undoubtedly has won a place for itself and will not be ousted.

The lightning of roadblocking parts and the removal of late still greater attention is being paid to the necessity for more perfect balancing. As a concrete example of this fact we might state the case of one maker of Knight motors who has adopted the practice

(Continued on page 17)



Various types of high-speed motors.

A, odd rotary valve action of the Hella motor; B, the eight-cylinder Cadillac motor; C, action of the Darrach D-form valve; D, the Reynolds rotating valve disk; E, pistons of the Cadillac motor; F, valve stems of the Knight motor; G, the Misse combination sleeve and piston valve. The chart shows a laboratory test on a four cylinder 5 in. 5 1/2 in. show speed motor for power and torque. The strangling effect of the valve is plainly apparent.

The High Speed Automobile Motor

Relief it Promises From the Growing Burden of Weight and Increased Running Expenses

By Charles F. Barrett

IN spite of the large amount of discussion and experiment on the subject of the high speed gasoline motor for automobile use, very little progress has been made so far on this side of the water in the perfection of such units along economical commercial lines. In France and Germany, and particularly in the former country before the war broke out, wonderful results had been attained with this type of motor, although not in any marked degree as regards size of output, when the latter is judged from our American standards.

On close analysis of the problems encountered in the commercializing of this type of motor in this country two or three facts stand out prominently as having a vital bearing on the situation. One of these is largely psychological; one a result of habit, and the third based upon actual structural difficulties.

The first two of these points date back to the very beginning of the industry in this country and relate to the early impressions formed by motorists of the satisfactory speed of the motor as well as its control by the gear change. Most of the pioneer manufacturers were so impressed in this problem, of actually making their motors run that they gave little heed to the important matters of vibration and balance. The result was, naturally, a very undesirable vibration whenever it was necessary to speed up the motor on either low or high gear, and a further feature was thereby created for making the driver's work of necessarily required relatively slow and fast gear changes.

Consequently the large bore, relatively slow speed motor which could be geared fairly high and thus looked down upon to hold the un-

balanced effect within reasonable bounds. The poor balancing evil thus caused an unwarranted prejudice against the high speed motor right at the beginning of the industry, and having once started in this rut manufacturers naturally took the path of least resistance and, instead of attempting to swing the public back in line, encouraged them to keep on believing that the slow speed motor was the correct type with no alternative.

Hand in hand with this development came a strong liking for high gear driving. The infrequent gear changing necessary with the large bore type of American automobile motor has undoubtedly taken firm root upon the majority of motorists in this country and the habit resulting from long use of this form of control has been practically a national characteristic.

It is therefore necessary to realize at the outset these two basic dislikes of the American for the high speed motor; one, an old, moss-grown suspicion that vibration and poor balance go hand in hand with high speed, and second, a genuine hatred for gears and gear changing. The latter feature cannot, of course, be separated thoroughly from high speed design, because the torque falls off so rapidly when the motor speed is pulled down that slow, high gear work under load is not practical, and gear changing must be rather frequently resorted to, with four cylinders or less.

It has taken years to overcome this deep-seated prejudice of the motorist in this country for the so-called high speed type of automobile motor and there is no assurance that it has been overcome even now, but there is at least some marked evidence of widespread liking against the ever-increasing cost of the present type of

motorcar, particularly as regards upkeep. This is beginning to cause a decided reaction in favor of the high speed type on account of the relief which it seems to promise for a very material reduction in the present burdensome total car weight with its chain of expense. In other words, we are fast getting into a mood to accept what appears like a lesser evil in order to overcome a greater.

It should be said for the large, slow speed type of motor, however, that during the early period of the industry it was unquestionably the most practical type from the purely manufacturing standpoint. Just as the introduction of the successful automobile itself was contingent upon the success of the high grade alloy steel, so the high speed type of motor has had to wait for the perfection of valve mechanisms, lubrication and other vital features, before it could be considered a feasible proposition.

On the structural side of the problem there are four principal features which demand careful handling in the design and manufacture of this style of motor, as hinted at above: First, relative proportion of parts, second, valve mechanism, third, lubrication, and fourth, balance. Any one of these is fully as important as the other three, and whereas in the slow speed type if some of these conditions were not perfectly fulfilled it did not necessarily spell failure of the motor, in the case of the high speed type, it would mean utter impracticability.

The high speed automobile motor calls for a most exacting proportion of all component parts, a careful,

(Continued on page 37.)

The Storage and Handling of Gasoline in the Garage

A Discussion of the Various Systems in Use

By Herbert T. Wade

THE chief aim in the construction of a garage should be to provide an absolutely fireproof structure, and this condition is insisted on more or less in municipal and insurance regulations. The modern concrete building has facilitated a fireproof garage in a marked degree, but distinction usually is made in official regulations between public and private garages, with naturally considerable leeway in construction for the latter. Given the garage, the storage of gasoline involves compliance with such requirements as those of the National Board of Fire Underwriters and municipal authorities, for it must be remembered that from the time the drums or barrels of gasoline are delivered at the garage it is a source of increased hazard to the premises and the surroundings.

The safety of property must be considered before any questions of convenience and expense to the garage owners, and while gasoline must be stored where it is subject to a minimum of loss by evaporation, and where it can be supplied readily to the motor vehicle, yet it must be in such a place that the least possible danger will result from leakage or from the escape of vapor that may be reached by a chance flame or spark, not to mention the actual loss in fuel itself by evaporation, especially in summer, or with rapid fluctuations of temperature. There must be some pumping and piping system for its distribution, for insurance and fire regulations generally forbid the handling of gasoline in open containers.

Naturally there is the greatest safety when the gasoline is kept underground, most experience has shown that with a properly sealed and otherwise protected storage tank underground adequate safety can be secured, irrespective of the size of the tank or the quantity of liquid contained. Tanks above ground are permitted by fire and insurance regulations only under special conditions and in rural districts. With the gasoline stored underground there is no danger from evaporation or leakage, and consequently whatever troubles are encountered must be found in its handling, and here likewise it is necessary that suitable precautions be enforced.

To remove the liquid from a buried tank some form of pumping system is required, and this may vary from a simple hand-lift pump to a motor-driven pump or a system employing hydraulic or gas pressure. Naturally the pipe must be made tight by cement, impervious to the action of gasoline, properly protected, and so arranged that the filling hose or other outlet appliance is such as to present a minimum of risk.

The underground tank is made of galvanized sheet steel or wrought iron, riveted, welded or brazed, the material, thickness and other essentials complying with specifications prepared by the Underwriters' Laboratories or equivalent specifications of a local authority. Such a tank is buried below the ground at least three feet and may have separate fill and suction pipes and a vent pipe terminating some distance above the tank in a goose neck. The fill pipe when not in use must be capped properly and protected from access of air, being arranged so that it can be locked to prevent tampering, and it should extend to the bottom of the tank and contain one or more strainers of wire gauze, which also afford protection in case the flame should reach the fill pipe opening. The suction pipe, which must not be any point lower than the top of the tank to avoid explosion or gravity action in case of fire, naturally leads to the pump and may be supplied with various valves and strainers as may be required. The best forms of suction pumps deliver a steady stream of fluid through the hose to the car or to some form of portable receptacle, such as a bucket or can.

Wherever simple pumps are able to furnish adequate supply a hand pump is to be preferred, even for a garage of considerable size, as the supply ceases when the attendant stops pumping. Such pumps are located in proximity to the place where the discharged supply is to be utilized and there may be a considerable length of line communicating with the underground tank. With such a pump and tank system it is found desirable to introduce a number of additional features so important as to be considered almost essential—for example, a device at the pump to drain back into the tank any surplus gasoline, and various straining and measuring appliances, the latter also recording the amount of gasoline actually delivered.

As the size of the installation is increased the pumping and distribution system naturally becomes more complicated, though essentially it is the same as in the simple installation, and if power pumping is introduced automatic devices usually are applied to stop the flow

after a predetermined quantity has been delivered. In a large garage a measuring pump is essential, and these are supplied in various forms, with its cylinder carefully graduated so that each stroke of the piston delivers a fixed quantity of gasoline, the amount of which may be regulated by certain adjustments so that from one pint to five gallons may be delivered at a single stroke of the pump piston. The most complete pumps also have a meter registering the quantity of gasoline delivered, a filter and two-way nozzle, and a hose with portable nozzle for convenience in the operation of filling a car.

While the location and size of the tank may vary with local fire department or other regulations, whatever its size, the systems in general nature are essentially the same, and our illustration shows a gasoline supply station located at the curb with the storage tank buried under the sidewalk, though the general arrangement would apply equally to a large garage with a battery of tanks and a number of pumps. The arrangement shown with its red pedestal is familiar to traveling motorists. Such a tank is filled from drums or barrels or a tank wagon through a fill pipe reaching to the sidewalk, while its vent pipe extends to the roof of the building and rises to a considerable height. These pumps must be constructed tightly fitting and of a design approved by the Underwriters' Laboratories, by whom they are labeled, and their accuracy should be carefully certified by local sealers of weights and measures.

In a large public garage, where the gasoline is stored and handled by pumps, may be operated by a remote control system which can deliver the fluid from a storage tank, sometimes as much as 11,000 gallons capacity. In one such type of installation a centrifugal pump connected to an electric motor is located at some convenient place within the suction distance of the storage tank. On the discharge line from the pump, which may extend up through several stories, one or more remote control, automatic, self-registering pipe line measures, equipped with oil separators, strainers, etc., are placed any distance from the pump convenient for using. The measure or measures are operated from a special electrical control equipment opened or closed either by hand by the attendant, or if automatic appliances are introduced, the supply will be shut off automatically by the measure when the predetermined quantity has been recorded. This system has been elaborated so that several lines of hose may be connected with a single pipe line and by the use of an automatic control valve, so that a discharge end may be located at the rear of the car for the use of motorists.

Although a mixture of gasoline vapor and air is highly explosive, yet so safe are these underground tanks when duly protected that at the time of the San Francisco fire one hundred and eighteen of the outfits of a single manufacturer installed in that city were found intact, and the inflammable fluid contained was pumped out and removed with a surprisingly small shrinkage from leakage and vaporization, not to mention complete protection from the fire. In one case a tank was found to contain over 200 gallons of gasoline after an interval of three years.

The distribution system based on the simple pump has the advantage of being complete in itself without connection with water, sewer system or compressed air, or requiring any outside material. It answers for installations of any size and the only essential is that there must be a supply of gasoline in the tank.

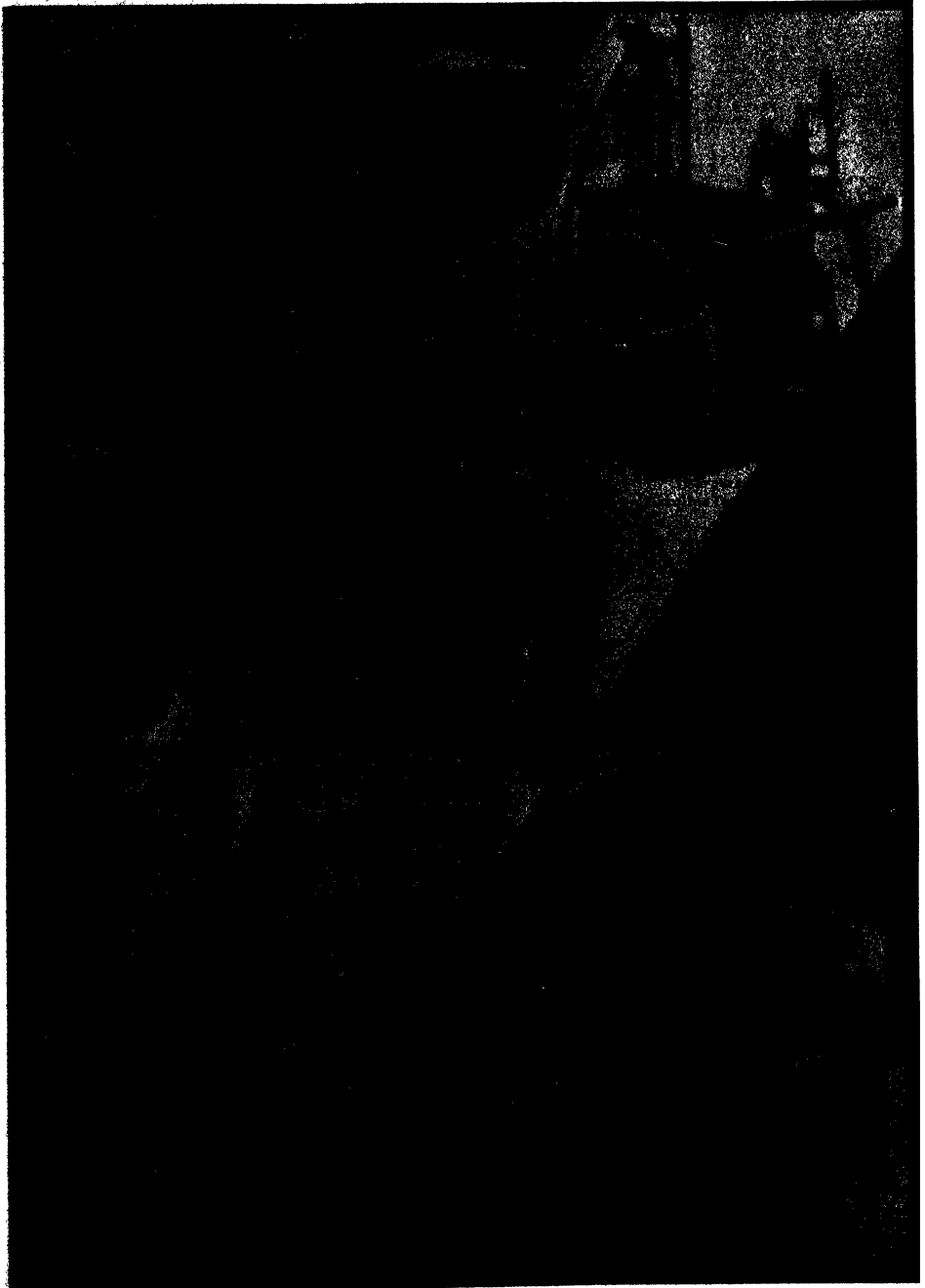
Mention here might be made of the familiar portable tanks where a number of cars, especially in garages or about the roadside, may be supplied with gasoline, and an elaborate system of piping is not desirable or feasible. In such an installation storage tanks are maintained with outlets and valves at convenient points, especially of the various floors of garages with several stories, and from them are filled portable wheeled tanks from which the gasoline is supplied through measuring pumps and hose with strainer nozzles to the individual cars as required, the portable tank being brought up to the car at its place of rest. The design of these tanks as well as the number is usually regulated by local insurance and fire regulations, tightness and stability being, of course, prime essentials, and as they can be moved by one man readily, they are convenient for transferring gasoline, and reaching cars wherever they happen to be placed.

As contrasted with pumping systems where a simple air pump raises the gasoline, there must be considered the hydraulic system, where water pressure is the motive force. In these there is no air at all in contact

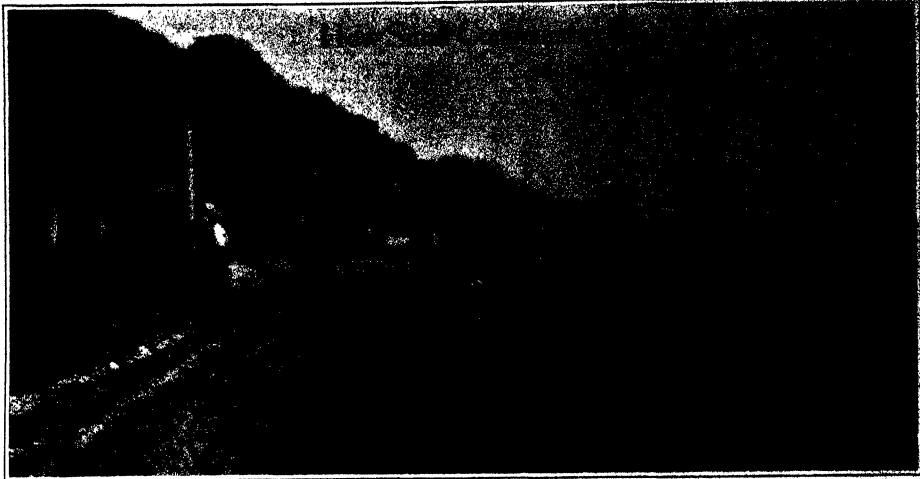
with the surface of the gasoline, with the possible production of an explosive mixture, and the gasoline can be measured accurately both on admission to the tank and on being discharged, since in the latter case the liquid flowing through the meter is pure gasoline and not a mixture of air and gasoline or water and gasoline, which cannot be recorded satisfactorily. The hydraulic system is used in garages of all sizes, from the simple private installation to such a one as that of the American Enures Company in New York with 600-gallon tanks having a capacity of 13,000 gallons. It acts on the following principle. The gasoline is contained in an underground storage tank which connects by a U-tube with a water pressure tank at such height as to furnish a proper pressure based on the difference between the specific gravity of water and gasoline and the distance which the gasoline is to be delivered. This water tank is filled from the city mains and a float-valve maintains a constant level pressure. If water from the tank is admitted to the system by opening the three-way valve it will flow through the U-tube and into the gasoline tank, rising to an equal level in both arms of the U-tube. The gasoline on being discharged from the drum or barrel is acted upon by the water pressure flowing down on top of the water in the supply tank causes the water below to be discharged through the drain at the water controlling valve on the water supply line. The gasoline stays on the surface of the water and the dirt settles to the lower part of the tank. On account of the lesser density of the gasoline a higher column will be induced in the water column in the proportion of 17 to 11, these figures representing the relative density of water and gasoline. When it is desired to draw off the gasoline this valve is opened, so that the pressure of the water in the tank acts on the gasoline in the storage tank, forcing it up through the draw-off pipe into the hose used for filling the tanks of the cars, a check valve preventing its return through the filler pipe. When sufficient gasoline has been passed into the tank of the motor vehicle or other receptacle the valve is closed, cutting off the water pressure from the pressure tank, and the normal condition of the liquid in both arms of the U-tube is restored. The amount of gasoline drawn off can be measured from a meter placed in the line of the draw-off pipe, and since the amount of gasoline supplied to the storage tank obviously must be equal to the amount of water displaced, which flows off through the drain, an accurate water meter can be installed in the pipe line to the drain to measure this quantity. Chief of the advantages is that the clean gasoline can be drawn off from the top of the tank and it is impossible for water or dirt to be drawn with it. There is no vent pipe open to the air or surface of gasoline in contact with gasoline. Furthermore, there is no air space, as the tank is always full of liquid, and hence no evaporation can take place or generation of explosive gases. The dirt and water at the bottom of the tank are forced into the drain when the tank is refilled. Like other systems which fill directly the main tank, no portable tanks are required, so that there is a minimum of fire risk. There is, of course, a waste of water through the drain, but the expense for this under ordinary circumstances is relatively small.

In addition to air lift and hydraulic systems, there have been employed extensively in Europe systems which use as head an inert gas, such as nitrogen or carbon dioxide in contact with the surface of the gasoline and carried in an ambler space or jacket surrounding all pipes through which the inflammable liquid passes; as combustion is impossible in the presence of either of these gases their effect is obvious. The most notable of these systems, whose principle of operation is indicated in the illustration, was patented by the *Noncombustible* American for July 18th, 1914. Its safety has been fully demonstrated not only in garages, but also in other establishments where large quantities of inflammable liquids are stored. It possesses the disadvantage of being dependent upon compressed gas supplied in cylinders to furnish pressure acting within the tanks. It is, however, thoroughly approved, and when well installed, as it has been in Europe, has supplied adequate protection and secured general official approval.

All of these systems have met with the approval of insurance authorities and where they are installed they are meeting the requirements. Care and maintenance are quite as essential as original installation, and the tendency toward uniformity and codification of laws rules is raising about a much more satisfactory and safer condition of affairs.



THE STORAGE AND HANDLING OF GASOLINE IN THE GARAGE



THE public roads in the United States, outside of its incorporated towns and cities, have a total length of 2,228,042 miles, of which only 229,210 miles, or a trifle more than 10 per cent, are improved with any form of surfacing. Any means which promise to increase our small mileage of improved roads should, therefore, be given consideration and utilized to the fullest extent possible, with due regard for true economy and proper efficiency.

Possibilities in Co-operation.

The marked success of certain co-operative undertakings by farmers and rural communities, especially in the marketing and distribution of agricultural products, has given the mere word "co-operation" a certain standing and distinction as indicative of the successful solution of all problems. But co-operation is to be judged from the results obtained. Certain forms of co-operation are efficient and successful, while others, even though seemingly successful, are extremely inefficient and entail a large waste of energy. For example, in certain sections, it has become popular to proclaim "Good Road" days, on which everybody is supposed to don overalls and labor on the roads. This is very commendable as a demonstration of interest and enthusiasm, but so far as securing adequate returns from the energy expended, it is far from ideal. It is, in fact, but a variation of the old system of statute labor, of which we have been trying so hard and so long to rid ourselves. The main distinction is, that in this case the labor is voluntary and made somewhat less onerous because of the hurrah and attendant advertisement. It sounds good to read in the papers of the eminent statesmen, bankers or men of business donning overalls and laboring with pick and shovel to mend our ways. This,

no doubt, furnishes adequate compensation for the sore muscles and the few blisters, but how about the efficiency of this labor? If anything has ever been clearly demonstrated, it is the inefficiency of unskilled labor in road work. The time of the business man who cheerfully gives up his energy in more or less misdirected efforts to improve our roads can, on the average, probably be placed as worth at least the equivalent of five days of a common laborer, trained and efficient in doing this class of work. As unskilled labor is rarely more than 50 per cent efficient, it follows at once that this much advertised bit of altruistic endeavor, however commendable from an idealistic point of view, is from the standpoint of economy only 10 per cent efficient.

Economic Efficiency the Test.

Co-operative as well as other public undertakings must ultimately stand or fall before the searching test of economic efficiency. Any co-operative undertaking, no matter how commendable its object, ought never to be tolerated, unless it is more efficient than the system it displaces. Our endeavor ought constantly be directed toward a system which will ultimately yield us 100 per cent efficiency.

This does not mean that co-operative undertakings have no place in our public road system. From the very beginning of road building in this country the roads were considered a local burden, in the construction and maintenance of which all should co-operate, each according to his ability. Where a road lay on the boundary of two towns, or other administrative subdivisions, legal channels were fixed, whereby both would co-operate in the construction and maintenance. Later, as the more general importance of our public roads began to be understood, legal channels were

formed for such varied co-operation as the abutting property owners, the town, the county and the State. To-day, neither townships, counties, nor even State laws limit the general interest taken in the condition of our roads. The automobile and the motor truck have made the conditions of the roads of the country of direct interest to all. The automobile and the motor truck demand better and more permanent types of construction. Through routes or trunk-line roads have become a necessity in some localities. Certain branch roads and feeders are of only slightly less importance. From 60 to 75 per cent of our roads, however, still carry little or no through traffic, and so remain primarily of local importance.

Trunk Lines and Branch Roads.

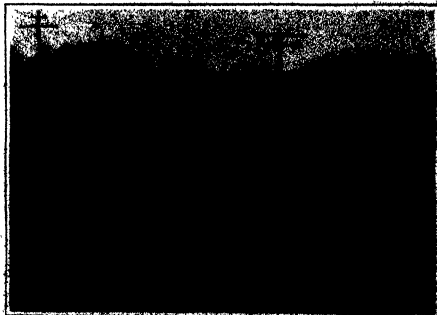
Most of our States have recognized these natural divisions of our public roads. No State has as yet, however, made this division on the purely scientific grounds of amount and kind of traffic carried, but several have made more or less happy attempts to secure the same results by utilizing, in general, our administrative units to make the several classifications. This has given us, in most States, a division into State or State-aid main roads, county roads, and town or township local roads. Massachusetts has only two subdivisions, State and town roads, while New York has four classes, State highways, county highways, county roads, and town roads.

While most of the States co-operate only directly in the construction of State or State-aid roads, a few have already realized the importance of directing local co-operation for the improvement of our minor roads. New York and Pennsylvania have established State bureaus of town highways, while Massachusetts has established



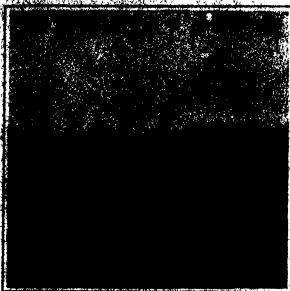
Misdirected efforts.

Had the energy required to fill the mudholes with loads, been expended in providing proper drainage and maintenance with a road drag, this might have been a good road.



Properly directed energy.

A trained and properly organized labor force could efficiently maintain and improve the roads as depicted on its to secure a dollar's worth of service for every dollar expended.



It takes more than enthusiasm and good intentions to make a good road.

a somewhat similar division for aiding and co-operating in the improvement of town roads.

Proper Planning, Management, and Funds Necessary. When our highway system is viewed from the broad standpoint of its efficiency as a public utility, it becomes evident at once that there are three fundamental requirements which must be fulfilled: First, a properly planned, classified, and laid out highway system; second, a proper and effective system of road management; and third, the provision of adequate funds. From a study of these fundamental requirements, it can be seen that unfractured co-operation between local communities is apt to lead to costly mistakes. A small community is not likely to view the improvement from the larger interest of the county or State, and systems of efficient management and skilled labor are generally lacking. Furthermore, the town or township is frequently too small to form an efficient unit for road management and administration. The funds are too small to warrant the employment of a capable highway engineer and the purchase of modern road machinery. Certain forms of co-operation are, therefore, desirable in order to secure a large road fund, skilled supervision, and the use of efficient machinery. Vermont has solved this in part by the appointment of a county road supervisor, who co-operates with the town road officials, and so, in a way, helps to co-ordinate the road work of the entire county properly. New York and Pennsylvania have established bureaus of town highways which direct and guide, to a large extent, the road work of the several towns throughout the State. The work is thus systematized, plans are standardized, and there is co-operation along definite and well directed lines.

Various State Systems.

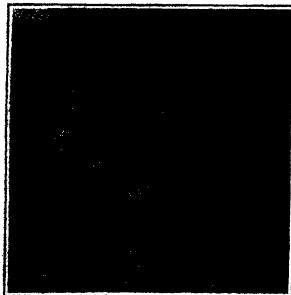
Other States have nearly the same system, but with a county unit instead of a State bureau. But, as the county organization is more or less subordinate and responsible to the State Highway Department, the distinction is one of degree, rather than of kind. Some of the more important examples of this system are Iowa, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. While there are many dissimilarities in the highway organization of these States, there is one fundamental and striking similarity, the effort to secure reasonable co-operation throughout the various units, and, at the same time, provide a fixed, definite responsibility for all actions. Other States, such as California and Montana, do not use the township organization in their road work. The

county is the unit, which may, however, be subdivided into districts according to the will of the Board of County Supervisors. The tendency here, however, is very strong against the old method of subdivision, and in favor of a county unit with a capable engineer in charge of the road work.

This explains why many of our States are formulating means for directing the work of the local communities. The most conspicuous examples of co-operation are to be found in such States as have a State Highway Department or Bureau, especially provided for giving efficient guidance and direction to work of this character. Under these conditions and with the above limitations clearly understood, co-operation between local communities in road building may be carried on with considerable success.

Preparatory Steps.

In making preparations for co-operation of this kind, the first point to be considered is that all our public roads are by law under the jurisdiction of one or more public officials. Before any definite work can be done, it is necessary to secure the consent of the officials having charge of the road to be improved, or what is far better, to secure their co-operation and support. The second step is to secure competent advice in regard to the improvement to be made. It would be extremely unwise, for example, to place a macadam or bituminous surfacing on a road where gravel or sand-clay would answer all the requirements. It would also be a waste of money and labor to reduce a grade to 1 per cent where a 3 per cent grade would answer as well. On the other hand, it would be just as much folly to place a gravel or sand-clay surfacing where traffic requirements demanded bituminous construction, or its equivalent, or to leave a grade 7 per cent where traffic demanded a 3 per cent grade. In other words, over-investment and under-investment are both bad. Both lead



Working out the road tax.

to loss of time and labor and money. The aid of a little really expert advice when the work is being planned will save the community much loss and needless worry. The second point may, therefore, be restated thus: Get competent advice as to what to do, and then follow it!

The third step deals with the actual construction of the road. This usually requires funds, labor, materials and the use of more or less machinery. In securing these there is room for the exercise of any amount of genius and ability. The one essential requirement is



Road near Bowling Green, Kentucky, built by co-operation of the county and local farmers.

to secure the maximum efficiency from the expenditure of the funds and labor.

Example of Methods.

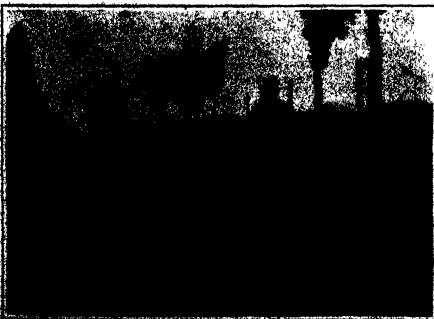
As an example of the great diversity of ways and means that may be employed in getting work done, the following cases may be cited: No. 1. Bowling Green, Kentucky, the main market roads had been macadamized by the county. The local roads, however, were unimproved. A number of farmers decided to improve these branch roads, over which they had to pass in order to reach the main roads. During the plowing season all the rocks encountered in the fields were picked up and thrown in piles. Later, when the crops were in, and time available, these stones were hauled to the county rock crusher. County co-operation had been secured to the extent of furnishing and operating a crushing plant and a road roller. The farmers then hauled the broken stone and placed it on the roads. The actual cash outlay of the county for the crushing and rolling was at the rate of \$500 per mile for roads ordinarily costing \$3,000 per mile. The farmers, moreover, secured good roads and cleared their fields of stone at the same time.

An example of civic pride, rarely equalled, was shown in the little village of Friendship Heights, Maryland. When the Rockville pike, which passes through this place, was being resurfaced, it was proposed to use a somewhat cheaper surfacing through the village, because of lack of funds. The ladies of Friendship Heights, however, would not be satisfied with any surfacing which was not equal to the best to be found on the road. From the engineer in charge of the work on the road they ascertained the amount necessary to supply the deficiency, and at once set about to raise the funds by holding a bazaar. It is needless to say that the money was duly raised, and thanks to the ladies, the village of Friendship Heights has as fine a road as any part of the Rockville pike.

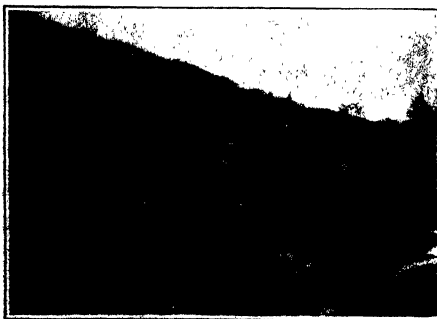
A Commercial Club Assists.

In Hartington, Nebraska, the Commercial Club became convinced that one of the greatest needs of the region was good roads. During a considerable portion of the year some of the roads leading to the town became so bad that farmers were unable to come to town except on foot or horseback. There were thus long periods of dullness and little or no business. An agreement was finally reached by the Board of Supervisors,

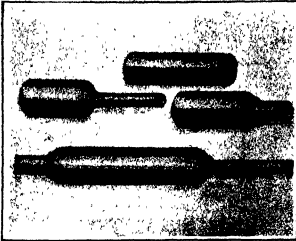
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The enormous amount of labor of which is intended to be a properly planned and constructed road.

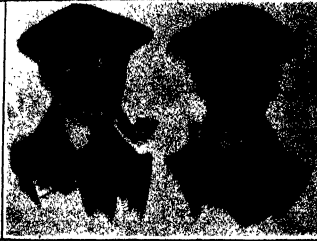


Enthusiasm and misdirected labor a poor substitute for trained labor and skilled supervision.



Sanitary drinking tube.

A compact quill-like device, made of aluminum, and containing a four-stage filter. When the two end parts are withdrawn from the cylinder and placed with the smaller tubes projecting outward, a combination 'drinking straw' and filter is formed, that lessens the danger and adds to the comfort of drinking from wayward streams.



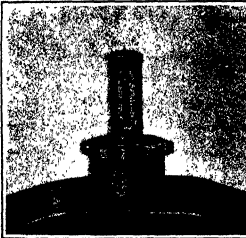
A universal cap.

This has a tilted celluloid window that ordinarily folds out of sight in the crown, but if you run into a cloud of dust, fog, clippers, or driving rain, with one hand the visor and window can be instantly pulled down to protect the face and eyes, while the sight is not interfered with in the least. The cap is made in a great variety of patterns for both men and women.



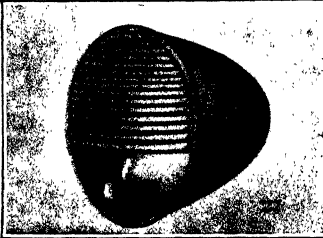
Low-pressure tire alarm.

A cylindrical device intended to be attached to the valve stem and provided with a valve, which is automatically set in action as soon as the air pressure in the tire to which the alarm is attached, falls below a certain predetermined amount. A valve in the alarm transmits the signal to be turned on if it is necessary to drive further with the deflated tire before repairs can be made.



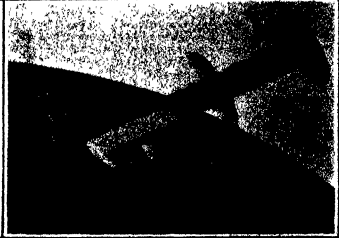
A check on overheating.

A long stemmed thermometer, enclosed in a glass and tilted cylinder to insert in the radiator cap, so that the temperature of the cooling water may be seen by the driver without leaving his seat. The stem is of such length as to remain always in the water.



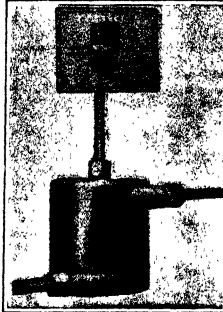
Deflector headlight glasses.

A headlight glass provided with horizontal corrugations in its upper half, constituting prismatic lenses. These prisms collect the greater part of the light, and direct it downward and forward, increasing the illumination of the road, but allow enough diffused light to pass directly, to constitute a warning to those in front, without dazzling their eyes.



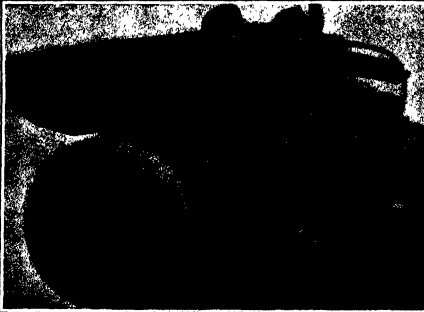
A tire repair tool.

An ingenious tool, consisting of one fixed and one movable jaw, the latter operated by means of two finger triggers acting in sudden cut in the upper edge of the shank. By drawing on one trigger the space between the jaws is widened and a cut in a tire or tube may be spread apart and held in place while the cut is cleaned. A pressure on the other trigger releases the movable jaw.



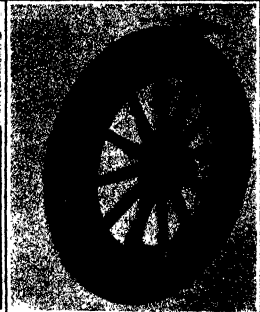
Measuring the fuel.

This is a compact meter to place on the dash that will accurately measure the fuel consumed regardless of speed or flow or pressure. This enables the owner to check expense and waste.



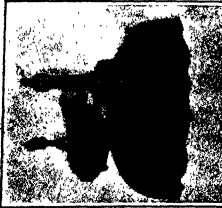
A comfortable auto robe.

This heavy, wooden lap robe is provided with pockets in the bottom for protecting the feet of the occupants of the tuberosity; and by means of properly arranged straps the upper portion of the robe, which is in the form of an apron, can be drawn closely around the throats and shoulders of the occupants. This is made in both single and double widths, the latter having two pairs of foot pockets and two aprons.



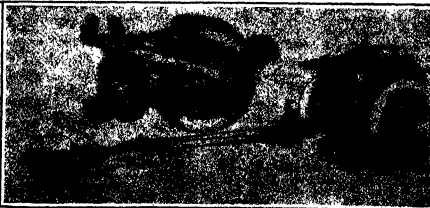
Tire caliper.

This instrument determines the amount of lat-tens of the tire at its point of contact with the road. The scales give the comparative diameter of the tire at point of greatest load, and at the point diametrically opposite.



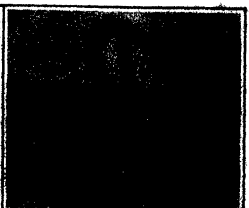
Pressure-reducing valve.

This is attached to an automotive gas tank and furnishes the gas at a constant pressure to the burner, regardless of the tank pressure. The gas valve may be opened wide without the danger of a high flame at the lamp.



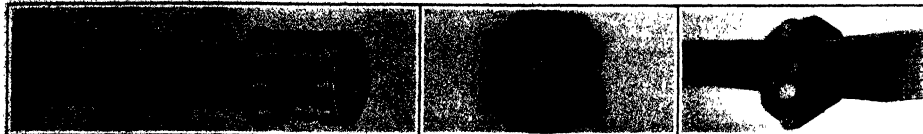
A rescue windlass.

This has an internally geared drum that is operated by a small piston and a crank handle. The single block of a two-block tackle is combined with the wind. The fall of this tackle is wound on the drum, and this wind gear and tackle give a pull powerful enough to extricate an automobile from a mud hole, ditch, or other impracticable position. The windlass is made fast to the axle of the automobile, and the double block of the tackle is anchored with stakes that will hold in almost any ground.



Warm wheel cap.

These are electrically heated by means of wires that are simply laid upon the surface of the rim. They are operated from a battery or lighting system, or, preferably, from a small oil or kerosene lamp. They insure warm wheels, which helps avoid accidents.

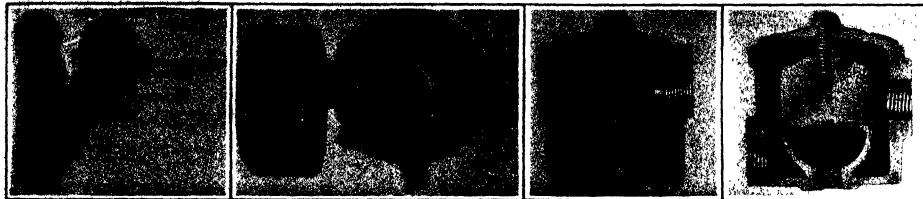


Combination dash and trouble lamp.

A "bayonet" socket in which an easily removed dash lamp may be placed. This furnishes a receptacle for one terminal of a long, flexible cord, into the other end of which the dash lamp may be inserted, thus forming a most convenient portable lamp that will throw its rays to any desired part of the car. The shade on the dash lamp serves as a reflector for the rays of the trouble lamp.

Lubricator for leaf springs.

A box-like device intended to be clamped to the sides of leaf springs to furnish lubrication for the surface. Squares of felt that line the sides of the box and that are pressed against the leaves of the spring serve as oil reservoirs from which the oil oozes by capillary attraction between the constantly moving surfaces of the leaves of the spring. The sectional view shows the construction clearly. The device may be applied with an ordinary screw-driver.



Thermodynamic cooling-water regulator.

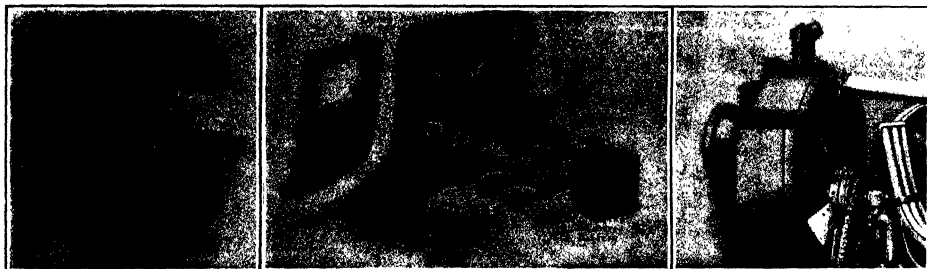
A valve actuating device controlled by the temperature of the jacket water. When the motor is first started the valve is closed; as the water becomes heated the thermostat expands and allows the passage of more water through the jacket.

Log book for the motor vehicle.

An instrument which records time, distance, speed, and stops. It is adapted for motor trucks, to provide an accurate check at all times over the vehicle. The instrument has a star type of transmission, and is secured to the front wheel. Special means of attachment under the apparatus makes it tamper-proof.

Fuel preheater connected with the exhaust.

A device intended to be installed in the fuel pipe near the carburetor for pre-heating the fuel before its entrance to the float chamber. This device consists of an inner chamber, which is jacketed and surrounded by the exhaust gas of an inner chamber, which is jacketed and surrounded by the exhaust gas. Thus the liquid fuel, rather than the atomized mixture, is heated, and the gas-line consequently changes to a gas the instant it is ejected through the needle valve. The two sectional views shown are taken at right angles to each other.



Ingenious foot warmer.

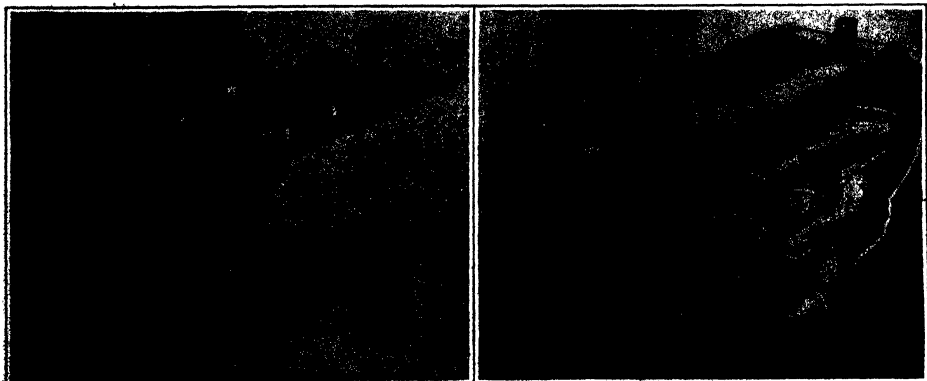
A hollow tube, similar to the foot-rest found in the bottom of heating cars, is connected, by means of flexible piping, with the exhaust pipe of the car. A valve enables the occupants of the transport to admit the hot gases through the footrest, or to deflect them through the muffler.

Electric door latch.

One of the recently designed light cars is provided with electric latches at each door. These are controlled by means of magnets excited by the storage battery used in the starting and lighting system of the car. The latches are held in place by springs and are released by the pressure of a button located in the side of the body, close to each door. A handle in the pocket on the door may be used in case of emergency.

Combined fan and electric generator.

An electric generator combined in the hub of a radiator cooling fan. One portion of the hub serves as a stationary armature, while the revolving coils are carried by the fan. This generates direct current that may be used for charging batteries, for lighting and for ignition.



Motor lunch-cage and table.

A convenient lunch-cage and table larger than a vest-case, which may be attached to the motor car. The cage forms a table on which the lunch may be placed. Inside the cage are a thermos bottle, and two compartments in which food may be stored. The cage is held in place by straps and is secured by a latch set for the driver's use, an emergency table attachment.

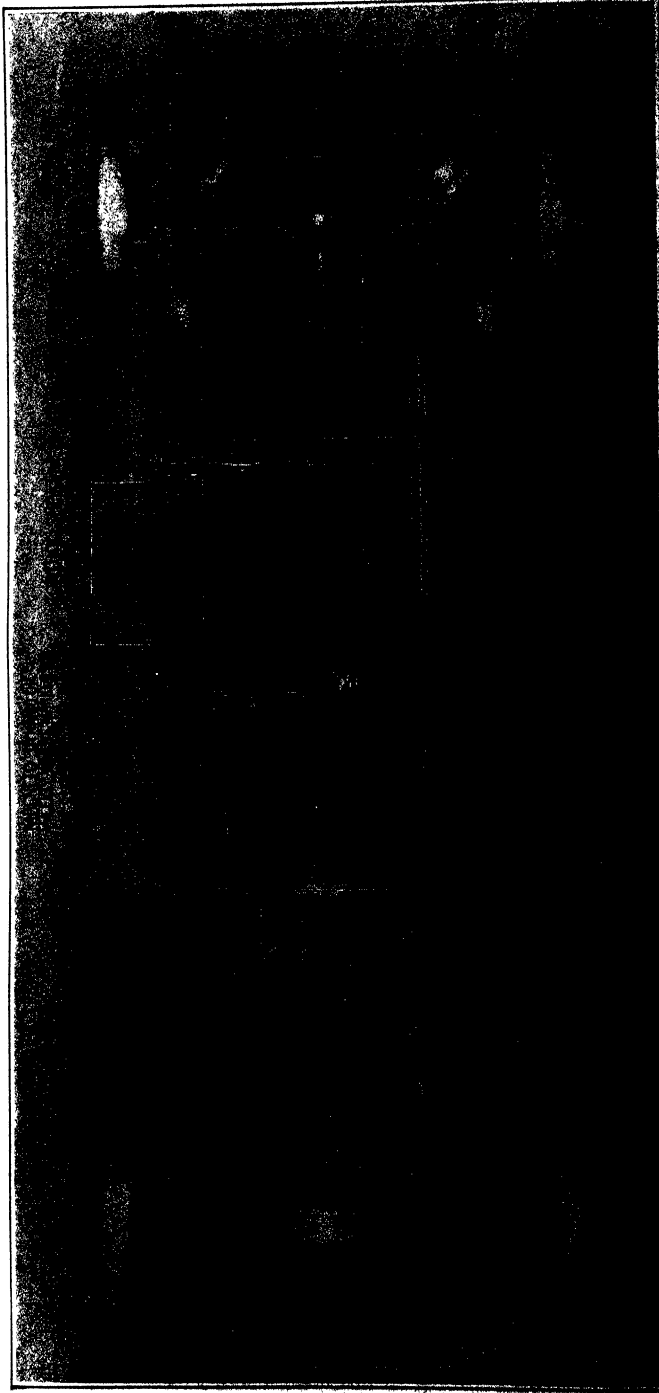
Electric primer and vaporiser.

From the priming cup on the dash-board a copper tube leads to a plug connected to a battery and inserted in the intake manifold of the engine. The gasoline from the priming cup passes through the plug, and it is not only sprayed, but actually boiled and vaporized, so that when the engine is cranked over it starts on the first turn over, just as easily on a cold winter morning as on a summer day.

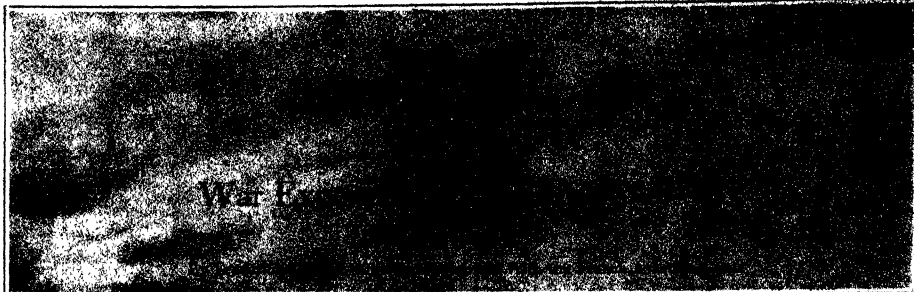
Chart Illustrating the Proper Lubrication of the Standard Motor Car Chassis

Instructions for the Systematic Oiling of All Important Parts of the Automobile Mechanism

Arranged by Victor W. Page, M. E., Author of "The Modern Gasoline Automobile"



The Zodiacal Light.—According to Fesenkoff, it is impossible, in view of the discordance existing between the facts announced by different observers (Baylton, Marchand, Tupmas) to fix in any precise manner the position of the band of zodiacal light. New observations are necessary and Birkeland proposes to pursue them for a period of three years at Natal and elsewhere, including Uganda. His object is to test his hypothesis relative to the emission of radiant matter and electrons by the sun. In his opinion these corpuscles group themselves around the sun's magnetic equator.



THE next morning a bugle aroused us at 6.30, and after a hasty toilet in a cold stream that runs close by I was ready for roll call. This roll call is held at 7 o'clock every morning, and as absence from this means four days in jail I always managed to be present. Saluting superior officers was another hardship, and after several "roll-downs" I was able finally to salute every officer I met as well as the two-year experienced and trained soldier.

After roll call we went to breakfast. This consisted of a cup of black coffee and hard dry bread. How the French government expects us to fly on such fare is beyond me. I went to the home of some peasants in the vicinity, and for a few cents I obtained a large bowl of hot chocolate, with bread and butter. This I did every morning.

I was not given an opportunity to fly for several days. I was informed that I must wait until a new machine was completed. It is a rule that all new arrivals must make their first flight on a machine of only 50 horse-power. I found there was an oversupply of French mechanics, there being about five to each machine. I wondered why there were so many until I saw the way they worked, and then I wondered no more. One good American mechanic can do more work in a day than five of them in a week.

The First Test in the Air.

My friend, Plioux, who was among the pilots, and I passed our first tests successfully, but the man (Corporal Delmas) who was tried out after us, wrecked the machine, which was a 50 horse-power Gnome-motor, Biérolot machine, and caused us further delay.

I was beginning to get disgusted with the slowness of the French military system; therefore, I bought Capt. Duperron, through an interpreter, for some action, and was henceforth transferred to the "Rep" monoplane, a machine that easily makes 90 miles an hour. The Rep monoplane, equipped with an 80 horse-power Gnome motor, is quite a heavy apparatus, constructed mostly of steel, and in workmanship and materials it represents the best French aeronautical construction that I have seen.

A Member of the "Rep" School.

My opportunity to fly came the next day, and for the first time I enjoyed a flight of 30 minutes, which took me 2,000 meters (6,500 feet) high and gave me an opportunity to see the country about me. Tours is indeed a beautiful city. The day being a clear one, I could see the country for miles about. Children showed themselves here and there, and I should have liked to continue my flight, but, being permitted to fly for only a half hour, I was obliged to come down.

My friend, Plioux, seeing my success, also inquired of the captain for permission to be transferred to the Rep monoplane; and said to me his first venture wound up disastrously, owing, perhaps, to his getting excited by the tremendous speed. He pulled back the elevating lever several inches, to rise, when he should have pulled it back about half an inch, and as a result, the machine shot straight up into the air for about thirty feet and then fell upon its side and now like a wounded bird, completely smashing the apparatus, and, poor fellow, he is in the hospital, where he will be laid up for about a month, his right eye being hurt and his knee badly injured.

A Collision Narrowly Averted.

The following day, not having a machine to fly, and seeing a new Biérolot

monoplane flying, I requested the captain to let me fly it. I received permission, but was told by the captain that, as I was now in the Rep school I could fly that machine only, and that, therefore, this would be my last flight on the Biérolot. I flew for 45 minutes and enjoyed it immensely, though I narrowly escaped death by collision in the air with a Nieuport monoplane. My machine was flying horizontally at an altitude of about 1,500 feet, when directly above me a pilot in a Nieuport was spiraling from a height of 5,000 feet, and coming directly toward me. I tried to steer out of its path, but he kept on coming toward me, and for the moment it appeared impossible to avert a collision. I attempted to dive, but had it not been for the fact that he peered out of the machine in my direction, nothing in the world would have saved me, since the speed of his machine doubled that of mine, and it was only by his immediate jerking of the elevating control toward him that he saved the situation. His machine was so close that the tail of his machine seemed to graze that of my machine, and the sudden rush of disturbed air was so violent that I had the greatest difficulty in keeping my apparatus from capsizing.

I remember only one other incident in my four years of flying where I was so close to death, this occurred the day of the baby parade at Ashby Park a year ago, when, with my apparatus directly over the parade, my motor stopped, and I crashed through the branches of a large tree near the baseball park, from which point I had started my flight.

The next morning a new arrival to the Second Aviation Reserve at Tours did the same to the Biérolot monoplane I had flown the day before as my friend Plioux had done. This made the third machine I had flown at Tours that was completely demolished the next day. This poor chap, though unhurt, is now serving

ing a thirty-day term in jail, as it was learned that he had never been in a machine before in his life.

Qualifying for Pilot.

Two days later, Friday, October 9th, proved an eventful day for me. A new 80 horse-power Rep monoplane had arrived, and I was given permission to fly it. I did so for twenty minutes, and then I was given permission to qualify for my military brevet. The recording barometer was secured and fastened to the machine by the mechanics, but after flying for five minutes it worked loose, and I was forced to descend for a fresh start—an example of the work done by the French mechanics. This time it was fastened more securely, I arose to a height of 2,500 meters (8,200 feet) in twenty minutes, and then straightened out my machine to remain there for one hour or more; but alas! after flying for thirty minutes at this altitude, the barometer refused to operate, and I had to descend.

I made a fresh start at three o'clock in the afternoon. This time I fastened the barograph myself, by a cord around my neck, the barograph resting against my chest, to which I had fastened a mirror in order to note its operation while in flight. A small aneroid, a stationary part of the machine, capable of registering 3,000 meters, acted as a guide when once I attained the height of 2,000 meters.

I bundled up good and warm with safety helmet, goggles, sweater, leather coat, and gloves. I flew for one hour and forty-five minutes, one hour and fifteen minutes of this at the height of 2,000 meters (7,200 feet). The barometer worked perfectly, and I had flown all over the neighboring country, which consisted of large dense woods, rivers Sèvre and Loire, large cities and small towns, and I certainly enjoyed my stay in the air at this altitude, although it was terribly cold, and I was really glad to descend once again to

Mother Earth. The recording barometer having worked satisfactorily, I was given my military license by the military officials, who congratulated me upon being the first and only American licensed aviator to fulfill the test. I now await the arrival of the brevet from the Minister of War and the Director of Aeronautics, both of whose approval I must have before it is issued, since upon its receipt I am ready to be sent to the front. I was informed by the captain that he had received instructions from headquarters that four licensed Rep monoplane pilots were wanted in a few days to pilot machines to the front; so I was rather pleased to have obtained my license, as I was tired of wasting valuable time when I could be accomplishing something and be of some use to France.

Machines Discarded by the French Government.

Three days after having qualified for my military brevet, an important order was issued by the Director of Aeronautics, which affected a great many pilots and demonstrated the inefficiency of certain apparatus. The order ran as follows:

In future there shall be no more Biérolot, Rep, Nieuport, or Deperdussin monoplanes used by the French government, and all those pilots possessing one now operating any of these machines must immediately change to either of the following apparatus: Morane-Saulnier monoplane, Henry Farman biplane, Maurice Farman biplane, Caudron biplane, or the Voisin biplane.

I immediately changed to the Morane-Saulnier monoplane, a superior machine in comparison to the Rep monoplane, but later

(Continued on page 84)



How steel darts are dropped from an aeroplane.

Insert on the left shows a dart about half size; on the right, the box from which they are discharged.

American Automobile Coachwork

Criticism of Domestic and Foreign Car Bodies

By John Jay Ide



Fig. 1.—Top snugly housed.

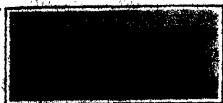


Fig. 2.—Streamline headlights.



Fig. 3.—Note ungraceful lines.

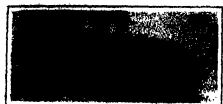


Fig. 4.—A French berline.



Fig. 5.—An English cabriolet.



Fig. 6.—English town car.

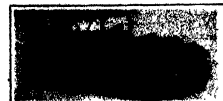


Fig. 7.—American touring body.



Fig. 8.—Rather inelegant design.



Fig. 9.—Very harmonious design.



Fig. 10.—A novel sedan.

THE bodies of American motor cars produced for the season of 1914 exhibited a noteworthy advance over those of the preceding season. A certain number of manufacturers realized that they could learn something from foreign design with the result that not a few cars boasted hoods tapering into the cowl, giving the proud designer the opportunity of calling the child of his brain "a true streamline production." Even where no transition between hood and dash was attempted, that typical American institution—the windshield with massive brass stay rods, which rendered the engine so difficult of access—was in many cases replaced by one fastened securely enough to the cowl to need no external bracing. In a very few cases the one-man top fastening onto the windshield was adopted, thus rendering unnecessary another cowl; the straps connecting the front of the top with the frame or mudguards as the case might be.

For 1915 these tendencies find wider expression, and it is now the exception rather than the rule to see a new model offending in the above respects. A few makers have copied a certain Belgian car in supplying pointed radiators. A greater number have followed the lead of a certain French "marque" of racing fame in rounding off the radiator top, thus eliminating the hard edge.

Most of the cheaper cars sideights have ceased to exist on the claim that they interfere with the streamline effect. A diamond attachment in the headlamps is substituted for them. Most of the higher priced cars, however, retain sideights either in combination with the headlights or in their accustomed place at the dash.

Many makers advertise "crowned" mudguards, a few have gone further and have adopted domed guards. The latter is certainly the final type, but stress should be laid upon the desirability of having the valance and mudguard in one piece. This not only eliminates a possible source of squeaking, but greatly improves the appearance of the car.

Most of our designers have not yet learned to make the rear fenders follow the curve of the wheels. Beginning too near the tire on account of the presence of the door, the mudguard steadily diverges therefrom until at its rear end it is often as much as 9 inches away. It may be urged that this is due to allow for depression caused by weighty passengers in the rear seat. As a matter of fact the depression is barely perceptible in the most heavily laden cars owing to the stiffness of the springs.

Both front and rear fenders would be much more efficient if they were brought closer to their respective wheels. After all, only sufficient space is needed to allow for the spring compression on the wheel's striking an obstacle. There is much to be said in this respect for the mudguards attached to the stub axles and following the vertical movements of the wheels. These have been tried both here and abroad, but difficulty has been experienced in attaching them securely. Surely this can be overcome.

As remarked above, one-man tops have become general, so that entrance to the front seats is no longer blocked by the bows. The obstruction caused by the bows was one of the greatest defects of the old-fashioned top, and it is astonishing that the one-man type was not adopted here before 1914, as it has been used in England a number of years. Another inconvenience has also happily been removed. That was the gap between the top of the windshield and the front of the top, often just large enough to allow the rain to drift in and wet the occupants.

A number of makers now inclose the top completely when down, not even allowing the bows to peep out of their housing. This is one step toward the incorporation of the top in the body, credit for which must be given to a noted Berlin coachmaker who exhibited a remarkable body at the European shows in November, 1912. As shown in Fig. 1 the lines of the top casing are very agreeably led off into the rear panel. When out of use the top is completely boxed in by three detachable sections. The general appearance is very pleasing indeed, but it is difficult to imagine anything not superior to the ordinary top when folded down.

Apart from the top casing the body has many points of originality. The side-lights are placed on the mudguards, where they fulfill their true function of illuminating the real width of the vehicle. The divided rear seats are of the adjustable Pullman type. Behind the front seats is a cowl protecting a cupboard with several drawers. It will be seen that no upholstery protrudes above the body sides. The round hole adjacent to the levers is the gauge covered horn orifice. Except for the external levers and the mudguards this body is still in advance of current touring car design.

Fig. 2 represents the latest model of the same firm. As in the previous body one can hardly detect the rear end of the hood. When it is desired to light the headlamps the front sections are removed and clipped upon the rear portions.

A German sporting model is shown in Fig. 3. Rather than mold the bonnet to suit the body the designer has forced the latter into an ugly form. The windshield is interesting as the glass of the stationary portion is cut to fit the bonnet curve, there being no filler board. The external exhaust trunk, secondary mudguards, disk wheels and pointed radiator are in keeping with the character of the design.

The French berline in Fig. 4 has an overall height of slightly less than six feet. This body might be studied with advantage by the makers of some of our ponderous eight-foot chariots. Although of the single-compartment type it has a separate entrance for the front seats, a solution not without certain advantages. Sufficient headroom is obtained for the rear seats by sinking the floor below the chassis level.

To England must go the credit for developing the cabriolet, an example of which

(Continued on page 46.)



Fig. 11.—Shows broken lines.

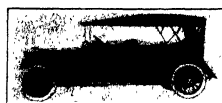


Fig. 12.—Symmetrical touring body.



Fig. 13.—Boat type body.

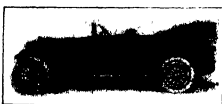


Fig. 14.—Too many moldings.



Fig. 15.—An unsuccessful design.

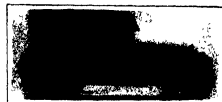


Fig. 16.—A fine sedan.

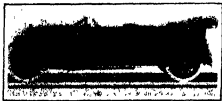


Fig. 17.—Handsome American tourist.



Fig. 18.—Has too low a side.



Fig. 19.—Rather low-sided.

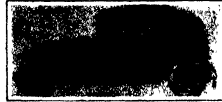


Fig. 20.—A sedan design of 1912.

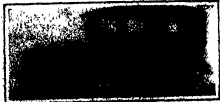


Fig. 21.—A novel sedan.



Fig. 22.—A pleasing limousine.

Over 3,000 Dealers anxious to shift to—

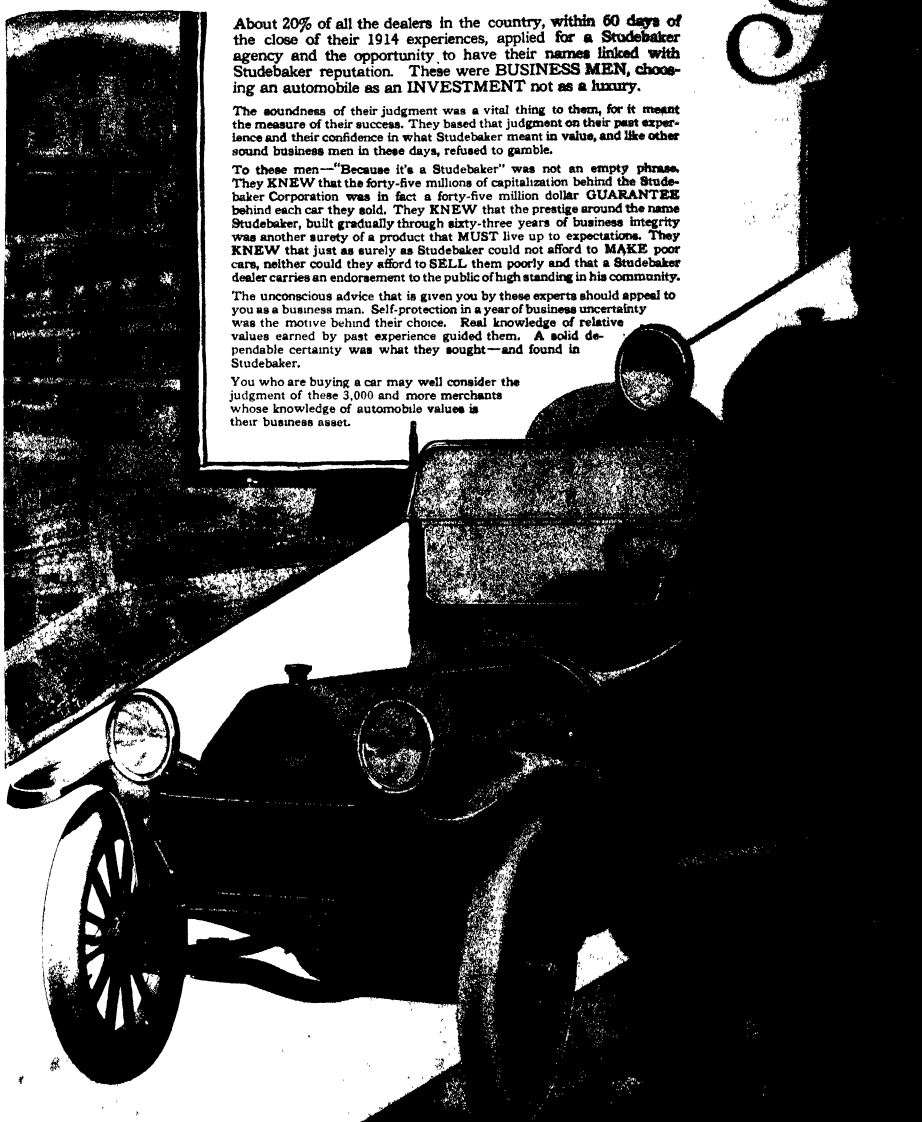
About 20% of all the dealers in the country, within 60 days of the close of their 1914 experiences, applied for a Studebaker agency and the opportunity to have their names linked with Studebaker reputation. These were BUSINESS MEN, choosing an automobile as an INVESTMENT not as a luxury.

The soundness of their judgment was a vital thing to them, for it meant the measure of their success. They based that judgment on their past experience and their confidence in what Studebaker meant in value, and like other sound business men in these days, refused to gamble.

To these men—"Because it's a Studebaker" was not an empty phrase. They KNEW that the forty-five millions of capitalization behind the Studebaker Corporation was in fact a forty-five million dollar GUARANTEE behind each car they sold. They KNEW that the prestige around the name Studebaker, built gradually through sixty-three years of business integrity was another surety of a product that MUST live up to expectations. They KNEW that just as surely as Studebaker could not afford to MAKE poor cars, neither could they afford to SELL them poorly and that a Studebaker dealer carries an endorsement to the public of high standing in his community.

The unconscious advice that is given you by these experts should appeal to you as a business man. Self-protection in a year of business uncertainty was the motive behind their choice. Real knowledge of relative values earned by past experience guided them. A solid dependable certainty was what they sought—and found in Studebaker.

You who are buying a car may well consider the judgment of these 3,000 and more merchants whose knowledge of automobile values is their business asset.



Specifications

Studebaker SIX

Electric starter, electric lights.
Tires, safety tread on the rear wheels, 32 x 4-Goodyear.
One-man type top, good quality silk mohair. Top boot.
High grade, large size Stewart-Warner magnetic speedometer.
New design locking ignition and lighting switches.
Full floating rear axle.
Complete equipment of Timken bearings.
Windshield made expressly for Studebaker bodies, rain and storm proof—adjustable to rain and clear vision and ventilation.
Extra deep upholstery.
Complete set of high grade tools, pump and jack.
Electric horn, with button set in center of steering wheel.
Magnetic gasoline tank gauge.
Studebaker Buick carburetor with dash adjustment.
Quick detachable demountable rim, with extra rim carried on locking tire carrier at rear of body.
Studebaker slowway side curtains.

Studebaker FOUR

Electric starter, electric lights.
Extra size tires, safety tread on the rear wheels, 32 x 4-Goodyear.
One-man type top, good quality silk mohair. Top boot.
High grade, large size Stewart-Warner magnetic speedometer.
New design locking ignition and lighting switches.
Full floating rear axle.
Complete equipment of Timken bearings.
Windshield made expressly for Studebaker bodies, rain and storm proof—adjustable to rain and clear vision and ventilation.
Extra deep upholstery.
Complete set of high grade tools, pump and jack.
Electric horn, with button set in center of steering wheel.
Magnetic gasoline tank gauge.
Studebaker Buick carburetor with dash adjustment.
Quick detachable demountable rim, with extra rim carried on locking tire carrier at rear of body.
Studebaker slowway side curtains.

Studebaker Roadster

Electric starter, electric lights.
Extra size tires, safety tread on the rear wheels, 32 x 4-Goodyear.
One-man type top, good quality silk mohair. Top boot.
High grade, large size Stewart-Warner magnetic speedometer.
New design locking ignition and lighting switches.
Full floating rear axle.
Complete equipment of Timken bearings.
Windshield made expressly for Studebaker bodies, rain and storm proof—adjustable to rain and clear vision and ventilation.
Extra deep upholstery.
Complete set of high grade tools, pump and jack.
Electric horn, with button set in center of steering wheel.
Magnetic gasoline tank gauge.
Studebaker Buick carburetor with dash adjustment.
Quick detachable demountable rim, with extra rim carried on locking tire carrier at rear of body.
Studebaker slowway side curtains.
Adjustable pedals.

STUDEBAKER — DETROIT
Canadian Plant—Walkerville, Ont.

The Heavens in January

Weighing and Measuring a Star 200 Light Years Distant from the Earth

By Henry Norris Russell, Ph.D.

THE distances of many of the stars are now fairly well known, their real brightness compared with that of the Sun may frequently be calculated; we know the densities of about ninety stars and the masses of a rather smaller number. But there are very few cases in which the actual size of a star—its diameter in miles—can be determined, and, therefore, a new instance of the sort well deserves discussion here.

The star in question, known as RX Heruils, is of the seventh magnitude and quite invisible to the unaided eye. As its designation indicates to the initiated, it is variable in brightness, and the fact that we can determine its actual size adds to the discerning mind the information that the variability must be due to eclipse and that it must have been observed with the spectroscopic.

Attention was first called to this star when it was found that it lost about 40 per cent of its light at intervals of 21 hours 30 minutes and 34 seconds, remaining constant in brightness for all but about 5 hours of this interval. This behavior showed at once that the loss of light must be due to an eclipse by some attendant body, as in so many other cases.

Spectroscopic observations by Prof. Frost at the Yerkes observatory showed that the lines in the spectrum became double in the interval between eclipses, and thus proved that the companion as well as the principal star was bright, so that their spectra appeared simultaneously when one was passing toward us after it had been eclipsed, and the other receding. Long series of accurate measures of the brightness of this star have been made at Harvard by the late Prof. Wendell, and at Princeton by Dr. Shapley (now of the Mount Wilson staff), by whom the calculations here described have been carried out.

These two sets of measures agree perfectly, and show that, outside the eclipses, there is not the least variation in light. Successive eclipses, however, are slightly unequal in magnitude, the maximum observation being alternately 40.8 and 35.7 per cent of the light at maximum. This small difference is demonstrated beyond question by the observations. Its explanation is fairly obvious. The two stars, which revolve around one another, are slightly unequal in brightness. One gives off a little more light per square inch than the other, and so when the former is eclipsed a little more light is lost than in the opposite case. As the stars circle about their common center of gravity, each in turn partially eclipses the other, and the observed situation follows.

The actual period of revolution must then be double that between eclipses, or 1 day 18 hours 41 minutes 8.79 seconds, according to Dr. Shapley. As the time of the middle of eclipse can be determined within a very few minutes, and it has been under observation for fourteen years, or nearly 3,000 revolutions of the system, it is clear that this value can be at most a couple of hundredths of a second out of the way. The orbits in which these two stars move about their center of gravity must be practically circular, for the shallower eclipses come just half way between the deeper ones and last equally long, and if the orbit was eccentric this could not be the case.

So much has now been found out about this system by very simple reasoning that it is not surprising that a great deal more can be discovered by calculation based on the photometric observations (which give the relative sizes and brightness of the stars) and the spectroscopic data (which give the actual size of the orbit, and hence of the stars, in miles). We may, therefore, pass to Dr. Shapley's summary of his conclusions, which is substantially as follows:

The system of RX Heruils consists of two stars of equal mass and nearly equal brightness, which revolve about their common center of gravity in circular orbits of equal size at distances of 1,820,000 miles on opposite sides of the center, or 3,640,000 miles from one another, completing a revolution in 1 day 18 hours 41 minutes, as aforesaid.

The plane of this orbit makes an angle of only 4 degrees with the line of sight from us to the star, so that each star eclipses the other once in every revolution.

The larger star, 1,800,000 miles in diameter, does not shine quite so brightly per square mile as the smaller, so that the latter, though but 1,170,000 miles in diameter, gives out eleven twelfths as much light as the other. When the smaller star goes behind the larger only a thin crescent of about one seventh the width of the whole disk remains in sight. This gives the principal (deeper) eclipse. When the small star comes in front of the larger, we get the secondary and shallower eclipse.

The mass of each star is 80 per cent of that of the Sun (unusually small for a white star like this), and the density of the larger one is one quarter, and that of the smaller one third of the Sun's density.

If the stars give off as much light per square mile as does the Sun their distance from us must be such that light would take 250 years to travel it. But the spectrum of the stars closely resembles that of Sirius or Vega, and it is very probable that stars of this sort are much hotter (at least on the surface) than the Sun, and shine far more brightly—giving out from

north one may, on the brilliant nights of winter, see at their best the nebula of Andromeda and the great star cluster in Perseus (between this constellation and Cassiopeia) and then facing about, compare these with Praesepe in Cancer—a cluster which, unlike that in Perseus, is resolvable into its component stars in a field-glass.

From the very appearance of this cluster one would judge that it was nearer than the other, and this is probably true—though if Schwabach's estimate of 300 light years for its distance be correct, as seems very likely, it is hardly what even an astronomer would ordinarily call a neighboring object. Kapteyn, in the case of the Perseus cluster, concludes that it is probably 1,000 light years off at the least, and perhaps very much farther.

As for the Andromeda nebula, hardly anyone would dare even to guess at its distance, but as its spectrum resembles that of a star cluster, and no separate stars can be seen, even with the greatest telescope, it may be vastly more distant still. Turning back to the east, we find Leo well above the horizon, and Ursa Major coming up on the northeast; and the familiar constellations about the pole complete our survey.

The Planets.

Mercury is practically invisible at the beginning of the year, but comes out into the evening sky, and by the end of January is well visible, setting at 6:30 P. M. By the end of the month he is close to Jupiter, and the two planets are visible to the eye and Jupiter appearing about twice as bright as Mercury.

Venus is morning star, and at her greatest brilliancy as the year opens—twelve times brighter than Jupiter. She rises at 4 A. M. or a little after all through the month, and is the glory of the morning sky.

Mars, having just passed conjunction with the Sun, is theoretically a morning star and practically invisible.

Jupiter is evening star in Capricornus and visible now only in the early evening. Saturn is in Aquarius, just past opposition and a splendid object both to the eye and telescope. He is so bright that he quite changes the appearance of even the brilliant region of the heavens through which he is passing.

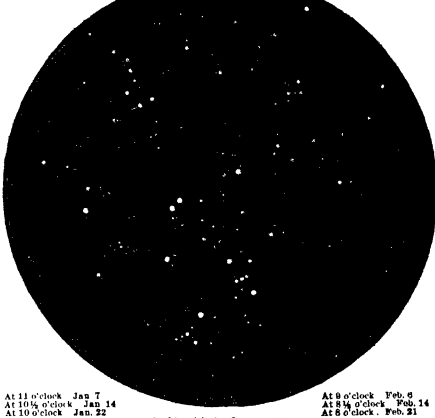
Uranus is so low in the west at sundown as to be unobservable. Neptune, on the other hand, is in opposition on the 19th, and favorably placed. On November 31st his right ascension is 8 hours 6 minutes 40 seconds and his declination 19 degrees 52 minutes north. On February

1st these co-ordinates have become 8 hours 5 minutes 5 seconds, 20 degrees 4 minutes north. This puts him about 8 degrees west of Praesepe and 2 degrees north of the fine triple star (Cancer)—where the observer who has a three-inch telescope and a star-chart, or the patience to make one for himself, may find him.

The Moon is full at 7 A. M. on the 1st, in her last quarter at 4 P. M. on the 8th, new at 10 A. M. on the 15th, in her first quarter at 1 P. M. on the 22nd, full again at 11 P. M. on the 30th. She is nearest the Earth on the 12th, and farthest away on the 24th. She passes near Venus on the 12th, Mars on the 14th, Mercury on the 15th, Uranus on the 16th, Jupiter on the 17th, Saturn on the 27th, and Neptune on the 30th. Princeton University Observatory.

Shipping Eggs by Parcel Post

THIS is a subject in which both the Post Office Department and the Department of Agriculture have, of late, been greatly interested. During the period October, 1913-February, 1914, the Office of Markets carried out a thorough test, consisting of no less than 496 shipments, aggregating 761 dozen eggs, sent over various distances, under various conditions, and in various types of containers. Some of the longest shipments were between Washington and Minneapolis and between Washington and the Rocky Mountains. The total breakage was 327 eggs, of which only 300 were broken before use, and of these 91 were broken because the parcels containing them were not handled in accordance with postal regulations. Subtracting these, the loss was less than 2.5 per cent.



At 11 o'clock Jan 7
At 10 1/2 o'clock Jan 14
At 10 o'clock Jan 22

At 9 1/2 o'clock January 29

At 8 o'clock Feb 6
At 7 1/2 o'clock Feb 14
At 7 o'clock Feb 21

NIGHT SKY: JANUARY AND FEBRUARY

six to ten times as much light per square mile. On this basis, therefore, the distance of the system may be estimated as 500 light years (or thirty million times the distance of the Sun), and the light emission of the pair as fully thirty times that of the center of our system. If this be true the eclipses recently observed actually took place long before Columbus discovered the New World, and more than ten thousand other eclipses of each star by the other have happened since, and are, so to speak, on their way to us—the light which will announce them being still far in the depths of interstellar space.

It is really amazing that, by means of observations which, if a full account was kept of the time taken, would aggregate less than a month's work by one observer, so much information about the nature of a star as to immense a distance can be obtained.

The Heavens.

The southern sky now displays its full splendor. Orion marches proudly across the meridian, confronting the Bull with upraised arms, while the Great and Little Dogs follow their master, and we may, if we will, imagine that the Little Horse and the Dove are seeking for dear life. But we cannot carry our mythological picture much farther without getting into a helpless jumble of ships and sea serpents and crabs and twin babies, so it may be well to return from the constellation to the stars.

In the dull southwestern sky we may note our near neighbors— α and β Eridani and γ Ceti, and the famous variable Omicron Ceti (Mira) now rapidly rising toward maximum. Farther to the right and west of



The "Scharnhorst" going down at the close of the engagement, off the Falkland Islands, with Admiral von Spee's flag at the main yard.

The Sinking of the German Pacific Squadron

Superior Speed and the Long-Range Guns Win a Running Fight

BY piecing together the many cabled accounts of the late British-German cruiser action off the Falkland Islands in the South Atlantic, we are able to gather a fairly accurate impression of that highly dramatic sea fight. The encounter marked the successful end of a search for the German ships undertaken by Vice-Admiral Sturdee with the battle-cruisers "Invincible" and "Inflexible" and a group of five smaller vessels.

As will be seen from the enumeration given below, the British fleet possessed a superiority in armor-plating guns and armor as overwhelming as that which enabled Von Spee to crush the British squadron under Cradock a few weeks before.

The British fleet consisted of the battle-cruisers "Invincible" and "Inflexible," the armored cruisers "Carnarvon," "Cornwall" and "Kent," and the scout-cruisers "Bristol" and "Glasgow." In the German fleet were the armored cruisers "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau," the protected cruiser "Leipzig," and the two fast scout-cruisers "Nürnberg" and "Dresden."

When last heard from, Von Spee's squadron, after coaling at Valparaiso, had steamed south. Apparently his objective was the British coaling station at Port Stanley in the Falkland Islands; and a rumor (to which too much credence should not be given) has it that the converted cruiser "Prinz Eitel Friedrich," with troops on board for the occupation of the station, accompanied the squadron.

Be that as it may, on the morning of December 8th the "Canopus," an old battleship with 8-inch armor and 35-caliber guns, and the British armored cruisers and scouts, which were cruising outside the

land-locked bay on which Port Stanley is located, saw the German squadron lifting above the horizon. The two British battle-cruisers were inside, coaling, and according to dispatches were not visible to Von Spee. To the German admiral it looked like an even fight, for, although it was six ships to five, there was no vessel in the British force that could match the "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau." So down he drove, with ships cleared for action. Von Spee's flagship, the "Scharnhorst," was the gold medal ship for gunnery in the German navy, and it was her 8.2-inch salvoes that had contributed mainly to the sinking of the "Good Hope" and "Monmouth."

The fight was no sooner well under way, we are told, than out of Port Stanley steamed the two battle-cruisers. They took on the "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" and left the smaller ships to fight it out among themselves. Von Spee signalled his fleet to scatter, and himself ranged up for the last, bravely fought battle of his life.

It would be very interesting to know at what range the fight between these four ships was fought. They reticently, Admiral Sturdee, having the more powerful gun and the higher speed, should have fought just outside the range at which the 8.2-inch shells of the Germans could land with serious effect. Judging from the fact that the action lasted from 1 P. M. to 5 P. M. and that the total casualties in the whole British fleet were only nine killed and a few wounded, it is probable that Sturdee, having the speed gain, fought at an extreme range, probably 12,000 to 14,000 yards, being content to sink the German ships gradually with a minimum loss of his own personnel.

The Germans fought it out with characteristic courage to the very end, the "Scharnhorst" going down by the stern, with the admiral's flag flying from the main yard. The "Gneisenau" went under a little later, and after a spirited action the "Leipzig," which was in the Chilean fleet, sank the "Leipzig." Subsequently the "Nürnberg" was overtaken and sent to the bottom. The "Dresden" escaped and is still at large.

A New Cement Product

IT is likely that South Germany will furnish a supply of trass for cement making that promises to be of value. It has recently been found that the volcanic tufa which makes up the subsoil between Biehlungen and Tappheim is quite superior to the trass of the Rhine region. The new trass of the Danube, however, presents, in the usual method of cement mixing (1 part each of trass, lime and sand with water), an excellent resistance to strains, and the qualities of the trass mortar will allow it to replace cement mortar, the cost of which is 50 per cent higher. Such mortar is slower in hardening than cement mortar, but on the other hand is said to be more elastic, stronger, and less porous. Besides, it is rare that such mortar, when well prepared, will show cracks as in the usual cases. It can be worked as well in very cold weather as at other temperatures, so that it can be used throughout the winter. When in the powdered state, trass does not suffer from dampness, and is not deteriorated by lying in storehouses for long periods. Another point is that 100 parts of it give as much mortar as 150 parts of cement. The operating of the trass quarries in south Germany promises to be a good venture, for there is no doubt among competent authorities that ordinary events can be replaced by this material.

Federal Aid for Good Roads.—The American Road Congress, recently held at Atlanta, endorsed the principle of Federal co-operation toward the construction of main highways in the several States, and the Government was urged to construct roads across all Indian reservations, forest reservations and other federalized areas where such connecting links are essential parts of through routes of travel. Uniform road legislation was urged on all States, as well as the passage of road laws in those States as have not yet done so.

BRITISH SQUADRON.

Name	Type	Date	Displacement	Belt armor	Guns	Speed
Invincible	Battle Cruiser	1906	17,250 tons	7-inch	8-12", 16-4"	26.5
Inflexible	Battle Cruiser	1906	17,280 tons	7-inch	8-12", 16-4"	26.5
Carnarvon	Armored Cruiser	1904	10,550 tons	6-inch	6-7", 5-6"	23.5
Cornwall	Armored Cruiser	1901	9,800 tons	4-inch	14-2"	23.5
Kent	Armored Cruiser	1901	9,800 tons	4-inch	14-2"	23.5
Bristol	Scout Cruiser	1905	4,500 tons	none	2-9", 10-4"	26.5
Glasgow	Scout Cruiser	1905	4,500 tons	none	2-9", 10-4"	26.5
Canopus	Coast Defense ship	1817	13,950 tons	8-inch	4-35 cal. 19", 12-6"	15.5

GERMAN SQUADRON.

Name	Type	Date	Displacement	Belt armor	Guns	Speed
Scharnhorst	Armored Cruiser	1907	11,000 tons	8-inch	8-8.2", 6-6"	23.5
Gneisenau	Armored Cruiser	1907	11,000 tons	8-inch	8-8.2", 6-6"	23.5
Leipzig	Protected Cruiser	1905	3,500 tons	none	10-1"	23.0
Nürnberg	Scout Cruiser	1905	3,500 tons	none	10-1"	24.0
Dresden	Scout Cruiser	1905	3,500 tons	none	10-1"	24.0



The True Test of Tires

VETERAN drivers, beginners and prospective motorists are drawn to the Automobile Show to inspect the many new things in motordom.

The tire problem confronts them all.

Firestone success shows that veterans have settled the question by using Firestone Tires exclusively.

Beginners and "prospectives" would save time, miles of service and money by taking advantage of the experience of older drivers.

Firestone Tires are standard; they have earned for themselves a name that amounts to prestige.

This prestige has actual merit to back it.

"Most Miles per Dollar"

This is the true test of tires—the test of quality, design, workmanship—the test that means economy and satisfaction.

All dealers have Firestones—or can get them promptly.

FIRESTONE TIRE AND RUBBER CO.

"America's Largest Exclusive Tire and Rim Makers"

Akron, Ohio—Branches and Dealers Everywhere

FIRESTONE
NON-SKID TIRES

Which Pleasure Car Fits the Buyer's Purse?—Concluded

Name of Car	Name and Address of Manufacturer	Under \$700	\$700 to \$1,300	\$1,300 to \$2,000	\$2,000 to \$2,500	\$2,500 to \$3,000	Over \$3,000
Pearless	Pearless Motor Car Co. Cleveland, Ohio			4.23, F.I.S.R. \$2,660.			5.00, F.I.S.R. \$3,000.
Pierce-Arrow	Pierce-Arrow Motor Car Co. Buffalo, N. Y.						5.00, F.I.S.R. \$3,000.
Pilot	Pilot Motor Car Co. Richmond Ind.			4.55, F.I.S.R. \$2,885.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Pratt	Elkhart Carriage and Horse Co. Elkhart Ind.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,840.			5.80, F.I.S.R. \$3,180.
Premier	Premier Motor Manf. Co. Indianapolis Ind.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,840.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Pullman	Pullman Motor Car Co. York Pa.			4.30, F.I.S.R. \$2,740.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Harold	Harold Motor Co. Christian, Ill.	4.18, F.I.S.R. \$2,675.					5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
R-C-H	R-C-H Corporation, Detroit, Mich.						5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Ragel	Ragel Motor Car Co. Detroit, Mich.			4.25, F.I.S.R. \$2,800.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Reo	Reo Motor Car Co. Lansing, Mich.			4.35, F.I.S.R. \$2,175.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Republic	Republic Motor Car Co. Hamilton Ohio			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Richard	Richard Auto Manf. Co. Cleveland Ohio			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Richmond	Wayne Works, Richmond Ind.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Rog	Rog Co. Reading Pa.						5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Saxon	Saxon Motor Co. Detroit, Mich.			4.15, F.I.S.R. \$2,465.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Simplex	Simplex Automobile Co. New Brunswick, N. J.						5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Stearns	Stearns Motor Co. Inc. Long Island City, N. Y.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Stoddard	Stoddard Motor Car Co. New York City			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Spenay	Spenay Motor Car Co. Chicago, Ill.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Spitfire	Spitfire Motor Car Co. New York City			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Spokane	Spokane Motor Car Co. Baltimore, Md.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Stearns	Stearns Motor Car Co. Cleveland Ohio			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Stevens-Duryea	Stevens-Duryea Co. Chicago Falls Mass.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Rudabaker	Rudabaker Corp. Detroit, Mich.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Stutz	Stutz Motor Car Co. Indianapolis, Ind.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Thomas	R. B. Thomas Motor Car Co. Buffalo, N. Y.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Touraine	Touraine Co. Philadelphia Pa.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Traveler	Traveler Motor Car Co. New York City			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Yale	Yale Motor Car Co. New York City			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Vulcan	Vulcan Motor Car Co. Palm Beach, Fla.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Westcott	Westcott Motor Car Co. Richmond Ind.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
White	White Co. Cleveland Ohio			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Winton	Winton Motor Car Co. Cleveland Ohio			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Winton	Winton Motor Car Co. Cleveland Ohio			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.
Zimmerman	Zimmerman Manufacturing Corp. Auburn, Ind.			4.40, F.I.S.R. \$2,120.			5.75, F.I.S.R. \$3,585.

Which Electric Pleasure Car Fits the Buyer's Purse?

A Self-explanatory Table of the 1915 Models of American Pleasure Cars

Name of Car	Name and Address of Manufacturer	Under \$2,500	\$2,500 to \$5,000	Over \$5,000.
Argo	American Electric Car Company, Madison, Wis.	4p Roadster, \$2,350	5p Roadster, \$3,900	
Baker	Baker Motor Vehicle Co., Cleveland	2p Roadster, \$2,350	5p Coupe, \$3,000	
Barford	American Electric Car Company, Madison, Mich.	2p Roadster, \$2,350	5p Brougham, \$7,500	7p Limousine, \$3,500
Beadley	R. Baily & Co., Boston, Mass.	2p Roadster, \$2,350	5p Roadster, \$2,500	
Beadley	Beadley Electric Company, Los Angeles, Cal.		5p Roadster, \$2,500	
Beechey	American Electric Car Company, Saginaw, Mich.		5p Roadster, \$3,000	
Beechey	Buffalo Electric Vehicle Company, Buffalo, N. Y.		5p Roadster, \$3,300	12p Brougham, \$1,100
Buffalo	Century Electric Car Co., Detroit, Mich.		5p Coupe, \$3,250	5p Coupe, \$3,250
Century	Chicago Electric Motor Car Company, Chicago, Ill.	4p Lim., \$2,000, 5p Lim., \$2,600		5p Coupe, \$3,250
Columbus	New Columbus Bugby Company, Columbus, Ohio	4p Colonial Coupe, \$2,550	4p Brougham, \$2,500	5p Coupe, \$3,250
Detroit	Andrew Electric Car Company, Detroit, Mich.		5p Brougham, \$2,500	5p Brougham, \$2,500
Flanders	Flanders Electric Inc., Detroit, Mich.	4p Coupe, \$1,750	4p Torpedo Roadster, \$2,500	5p Torpedo Roadster, \$2,500
Flinders	Fritchell Auto and Battery Company, Denver, Colo.	4p Torpedo Roadster, \$2,500	5p Brougham, \$2,000	5p Brougham, \$2,000
Giraffel	Giraffel Electric Car Co., Detroit, Mich.	4p Coupe, \$1,800	4p Coupe, \$2,700	5p Coupe, \$3,500
Giraffel	Olio Electric Car Company, Toledo, Ohio	4p Roadster, \$2,500	5p Roadster, \$2,500	5p Coach, \$3,800
Rauch & Lang	Rauch & Lang Carriage Co., Cleveland, O.	4p Coupe, \$2,100	5p Coupe, \$2,700	5p Coupe, \$3,500
Waverly	Ward Motor Vehicle Company, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.	5p Roadster-Coupe, \$2,000	5p Roadster, \$2,000	5p Roadster, \$2,000
Waverly	Waverly Company, Indianapolis, Ind.	4p Brougham, \$2,500	5p Brougham, \$2,750	5p Limousine, \$3,000
Woods	Woods Motor Vehicle Company, Chicago, Ill.		5p Brougham, \$3,450	5p Brougham, \$3,500

Business Man's Reference Table of Commercial Vehicles

The Latest Models of American Gasoline Motor Trucks and Delivery Cars, Arranged According to Tonnage Carrying Capacity

Compiled by C. Edward Palmer

FOR a business which warrants the purchase of commercial vehicles to haul its goods great care is usually exercised, both by the buyer and the seller, to select a vehicle of the proper horse power and body capacity for the particular class of goods to be hauled. For this reason the business man is usually interested more in the size and capacity of a truck than in its price.

In the following table, the vehicles are listed alphabetically according to name, and are grouped according to tonnage capacity. In the tonnage column, the first figure indicates the tons capacity and the second the horse-power of the truck at the price given. As most manufacturers build bodies to order, to suit the business of the purchaser, the prices given are mostly for chassis only.

Motor track manufacturers have made a careful study of the transportation requirements of many businesses and are glad to co-operate with purchasers in the efficient installation of commercial vehicle service.

Name of Vehicle	Name and Address of Manufacturer	Tonnage Capacity, Horse-power and Price					
		Under 1 ton	1-1½	2-2½	3-3½	4	5 and over
Adams	Adams Bros. Co., Windsor, Ohio	1.30, \$1,800	2.35, \$3,000				
Acton	Acton Motor Truck Co., Detroit, Mich.	1.45, \$2,150	2.35, \$3,000				
Albion Daimler	(General) Vehicle Co., Inc., Long Island City, N. Y.	1.45, \$2,150	2.35, \$3,000				
Armstrong	O. Armstrong Co., Cincinnati, Ohio	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Atwater	Atwater Motor Car Co., Buffalo, N. Y.	4. 25, \$1,800	27, \$1,600	3.50, \$2,700	5.50, \$6,400		5. 55, \$9,400
Available	Available Truck Co., Chicago, Ill.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Aver	Aver Co., Portland, Ill.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Aver	Available Motor Car Co., New Bremen, Ohio	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				5. 55, \$9,400
Autocar	Autocar Co., Ardmore, Pa.	1.45, \$1,850	2.40, \$2,450				
Autocar	J. J. Barker, Newark, Conn.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Autocar Motor Wagon	Bessemer Motor Truck Co., Grove City, Pa.	1.45, \$1,850	2.40, \$2,450				
Bessemer	Detroit-Dort Carriage Co., Flint, Mich.	4. 15, \$7,800	4. 17, \$1,800	3. 17, \$2,800			
Blair	Blair Motor Truck Co., Newark, Ohio	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Brooklyn	Brooklyn Motor Truck Co., Cortland, N. Y.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Bulk	Bulk Motor Co., Flint, Mich.	4. 25, \$1,800	2.40, \$2,450				
Bussey Tractor and Motor Trucks	Mercury Manufacturing Co., Chicago, Ill.	1.45, \$1,850	2.40, \$2,450				
Cam and Independent	Independent Motor Co., Paris, France	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Chase	Chase Manufacturing Co., East Chicago, Ind.	1.45, \$1,850	2.40, \$2,450				
Chase	Chase Motor Truck Co., Syracuse, N. Y.	1.45, \$1,850	2.40, \$2,450				
Clark	Clark Delivery Co., Chicago, Ill.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Coleman	F. Coleman (Garage and Repair) Co., Blois, N. Y.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Commercial	Commercial Cars, Ltd., New York, N. Y.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Commercial	Commercial Motor Car Co., Detroit, Mich.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Commer	Commer Automobile Co., Philadelphia, Pa.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				
Cougle	Cougle Gear Freight Wheel Co., Grand Rapids, Mich.	1.30, \$2,300	2.40, \$2,450				

Individually Designed

DETROIT Springs are built to such a high standard that we are able to guarantee them for two years. In the first place, they are designed and built for the particular model of car upon which they are to be used.

They are built for more than safety, that is—Emergency Shocks.

They are built for lasting Comfort—for Car Protection—minimum wear on mechanism and tires.

In addition to the Two-Year Guarantee and all the quality that implies, is the Self-Lubricating feature.

Near the end of each leaf is a small saucer-like depression filled with a long-lived lubricant, which spreads between the leaves as they move over each other.

By this simple device, Detroit Springs always operate smoothly and silently.

Write for free book, "From the Ore to the Motor Car," telling how springs are made.

Detroit Steel Products Co.

2220 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit, Michigan



Pleasure Cars

Cole	Lyons-Knight
	Dodge Bros.
Marmen	Hupmobile
National	Kissel Kar
Oakland	Pathfinder
	Detroit Electric

Trucks

Denby	Republic
Federal	Signal
G. M. C.	Standard
Krebs	J. C. Wilson

Why Uncle Sam Chose The Jeffery Quad

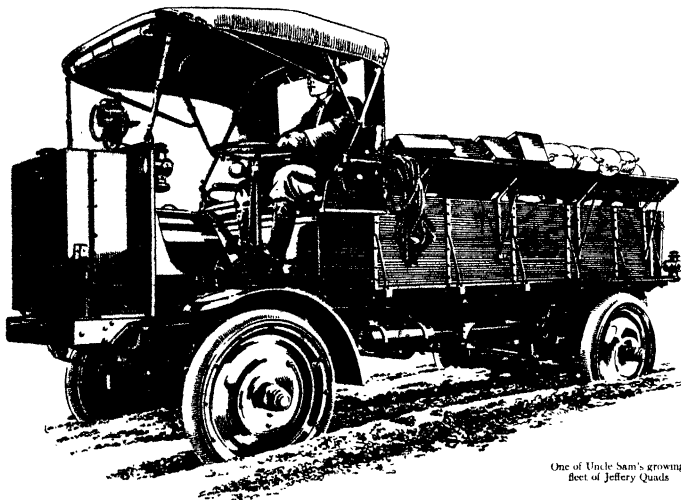
UNCLE SAM had a haulage problem. He wanted a motor truck that was economical in peace and efficient in war. Furthermore, it should be able to travel anywhere his famous four-mule army escort wagons would go.

So the Jeffery engineers built the Jeffery Quad—which drives, brakes and steers on all four wheels and travels where any wheel or wheels can get traction. Uncle Sam bought the first Jeffery Quad made. He has been placing repeat orders for Jeffery Quads ever since.



WHEN Europe went to war, one of the first vital needs was for dependable motor trucks. Even before the great war broke out, when Europe's chancelleries knew that any moment the eruption might come, a special rush order of Jeffery Quads was on the way.

Europe's war experts are keen buyers. They know what best suits their purpose. The first Quads more than fulfilled requirements. That is why nearly every steamship that sails to Europe carries a consignment of Jeffery Quads.



One of Uncle Sam's growing fleet of Jeffery Quads

UNCLE SAM is the most discriminating buyer in the world. His battleships and his navy are second to none. His army is small, for it is intended only as a nucleus. But it is mighty efficient—what it lacks in size it makes up in quality and equipment. That is why it had to have the Jeffery Quad.

Uncle Sam's haulage problems are the same as yours or mine—only a little more severe, perhaps. You cannot do better than take a tip from your Uncle Samuel, and trust your haulage problem to Jeffery engineers and the Jeffery Quad.

The Jeffery Quad will haul from 2 to 7 tons or more at less cost than any rear-drive truck made. It will keep on hauling when other vehicles are stalled. The Jeffery transportation engineers will be glad to show you how and why. Write for the new illustrated story-catalog on "The Jeffery Quad."

SNOW, mud, sand, steep hills and even roadless country have no terrors for the Jeffery Quad. In Death Valley, where the temperature reaches 135 in the shade—in the lumber camps of Northern Minnesota when it's 40 below zero—you can find the Jeffery Quad working under conditions where only pack mules or six-horse teams were formerly used.

If you possess this remarkable and unusual truck you can be making money when perforce the other fellow's trucks are idle. And according to the Law of Supply and Demand, your service is always at a premium when it is better than that of your competitors.

The Thomas B. Jeffery Company
Main Office and Works, Kenosha, Wis., U.S.A.

Cable Address "Jeffcar"

The Motor Truck of Peace Will Supplant the "War-Priced" Truck Horse

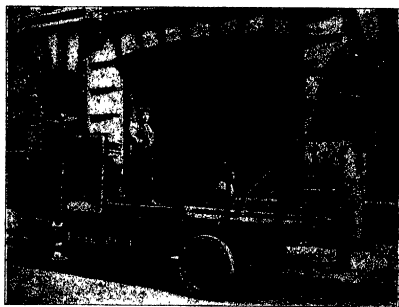
The Electric Truck is the Motor Truck of Peace. In England, France and Germany, where about all the gasoline automobiles, motor trucks, taxicabs and motorcycles have been commandeered and every horse that can stand alone appropriated by the government, the Electric vehicle, and particularly the Electric Truck, has remained right in its own home town and been kept very, very busy.

The Electric Truck is the Motor Truck of Peace. It is not elected to compete in the army trials, but it is favored in the moving of smokeless powder, dynamite and other things of an explosive nature; even gasoline. Twelve U. S. Navy Yards use G. V. Electrics because they are cleaner, safer and more efficient about the yards. No danger from explosion when among cotton, oils, waste, etc. The Electric enjoys the preference in freight sheds, in the cotton warehouses and about our big textile mills. It can be taken up in elevators and loaded and unloaded among excelsior, etc. Sanitary, too.

The success of Electric Trucks is not yet measured by the number in use, but in the efficiency of those at work. The more scientific motor trucking becomes the more Electric Trucks you will see in service.

Why Not "Team With Electricity"?

The War will take away from 100,000 to 250,000 high grade horses and mules to Europe. This means that the clean limbed animal you have been paying \$250 for will cost you \$300 or even more by, say, next spring. Again, 15,000 horses, worth \$1,250,000, died in the city of New York alone in 1913. Thousands more died from glanders, heat and broken limbs in other cities. Then, too, it costs 90% more to feed a horse in the city than it did ten years ago.



Five-ton G. V. Electric, equipped with winch, operated by current from the same batteries which drive the truck.

Why not team with Electricity? It's coming, as sure as taxes. First we had man power, then animal power, water power, gas power—then Electric power. Look at the trend! Look at the 9000 Electric Trucks in a few cities.

G. V. ELECTRIC TRUCKS Excel Everything In Their Field

There are several makes of good Electrics, but there is only one G. V. Electric.

Built first in 1901 and standardized in 1907, G. V. Electrics are now used in 42 of the 48 states and in 9 foreign countries. Over 4000 used by 126 trades; hundreds 7 to 13 years old. Six capacities, ranging from 1,000 to 18,000 pounds. Both worn drive and chain drive in the half-ton class.

Our 14 years' experience, our large distribution and our ample resources are tangible assets to the buyer. We can't afford to sell you a G. V. Electric unless your work demands it—had business for you. You can depend upon us to protect your interests in the matter of adaptability, as we do our own.

Buy right and buy now! The Electric Truck is the greatest aid to economy in city teaming and light delivery that this century has produced. Investigate. Get the facts. Get Catalogue No. 101, anyway.

General Vehicle Company, Inc.

General Office and Factory
Long Island City, N. Y.



NEW YORK

CHICAGO

BOSTON



PHILADELPHIA

Burton Process of "Cracking" to Make Gasoline

(Continued from page 1.)

Mr. Burton puts his valve beyond the condenser, so that pressure is applied not only to the liquids in the still but to the gases condensing in the coil.

In using the apparatus, there is introduced into the still a quantity of the residual portion of the petroleum series of petroleum distillation—let us say the distillate known as fuel oil, which has a boiling point of upward of 500 deg. Fahr. The valve is normally closed. Heat from the fire-chamber distills the volatile constituents and the resultant vapor courses through the pipe and coil, in which they are condensed. With the valve tightly closed against the escape of the products of condensation, the vapors of distillation accumulate and exert a high pressure, from 4 to 5 atmospheres, upon the liquid in the still, raising the boiling point from 500 or 600 deg. Fahr. to 700-800 deg. Fahr. This pressure of the vapors combined with their contained heat converts high boiling members of the paraffine series into low boiling members of the same series. The valve is opened from time to time to draw off the products of condensation into the receiver. The intervals of drawing off are sufficiently frequent to avoid filling the coil with liquid. In the meantime the relief valve is occasionally opened to relieve gas pressure near the lower end of the coil, which is otherwise likely to obstruct operations.

The resultant gasoline, the product belonging to the paraffine series, the same as the petroleum residue from which it was distilled. Mr. Burton makes no attempt to account for the effect of the back pressure from the extreme end of the condensed coil upon the contents of the holder in moving the liquid product of the paraffine series into the objectionable ethylene series, but it is the fact that such effect ensues.

This method of distillation is continued until what is left is a thin, syrup-like residue, marking the limit of the Burton process when first patented. It has, however, been greatly improved since then. In the recently perfected process the residue is taken to a second still of ordinary construction, there to be subjected to heat at approximately atmospheric pressure until nothing is left in the still but a solid residue. The liquid product of this distillation is reintroduced into the first still, mixed with a new charge of the original fuel oil character, there to be again distilled under pressure.

The yields of finished gasoline that can be obtained by this process vary widely with the character of the unrefined fuel oil, which is used as a raw material. Oil derived from crude oil from one section of the world give much better results than oils derived from other sections. Some oils will give a yield of around 60 per cent of crude gasoline distillate, while others will not give so much.

The oil secured by redistilling the products from the original distillation is more refractory than what might be called "fresh" stock. It is therefore impossible to give definite figures as regards yields, but in a broad, general way it might be stated that the process in question will at least double the yield of finished gasoline products from a given crude oil.

It should be understood that the gasoline distillate thus produced, while usable in internal combustion engines, is not a desodorized product. To render it such requires redistillation and sulphuric acid treatment.

It is perhaps too early to say what this process will mean to the commercial world or how it will affect the price of gasoline. Mr. Burton's first patent on this process was issued January 7th, 1913, and the second, making use of the 35 per cent residue from the first "cracking," was issued August 4th, 1914. The fact that the Standard Oil Company is using the process in a plant built for the purpose is evidence of its commercial and practical utility as well as of its scientific interest. Logically, if the process itself is as cheap and economical as it appears to be, the coming increase of consumption of gas-

oline, by the thousands of new automobiles and other calls for "motor spirit," is already met with a means for making several cubic centimeters out of one rock-cracked gallon of gasoline where only one grew before.

Military Tactics and the Motor

(Continued from page 1.)

and miles in the rear of the battle line, as far beyond the range of heavy artillery fire as possible. Connection with the firing line is maintained by telephone and by motorcycle dispatch riders. In fact, the latter are pressing the automobiles hard for honors in this field.

It is getting dark. A fog seems to settle over the battlefield, the smoke from burning farm houses, haystacks, and—well, and "other things"—hangs like a pall over everything. Suddenly a spluttering motorcycle flashes past at a speed of more than a mile a minute. In the continuous crackling of small guns and rifles the noise of the racing motorcycle is almost lost. Preening with arms extended, a man in a light blue uniform leans into the dim light ahead, his sharp electric horn screaming an alarm forward, the rider flashes by, at every instant of his ride stirring with death, because of the darkness ahead. Suddenly he shuts off the gas and slams down the brake with all his strength. The motorcycle stops as his front wheel touches the rear of a convoy truck going slowly to the rear. Past the truck, ordering the driver to shift farther to the right of the road, he goes, and soon he finds "his" truck detachment. An order to the driver in charge and the whole column of motor and battle lines. The motorcyclist acts as guide, so as to insure quick delivery of the ammunition needed at such and such a place. Each regiment has one or two such dispatch riders ready at all times. They sometimes get no real rest for days at a time, as in the case of one who, after having fetched one convoy to the point needed.

The ammunition column thunders past the watcher on the roadside. Powerful gasoline trucks, driven without any regard to efficiency or economy of operation—solely with the idea of getting there, and getting there as quick as the roads will permit. Hardly has the column reached its destination when an urgent request is received by the commanding general for reinforcements to a certain danger point. The telephone carries the message to a motor column in the rear and after motor buses, tractors with two and three trailers, all loaded to capacity, rush forward. Three additional regiments reach the point of danger within a fraction of the time it would have taken an old-fashioned "orderly" to gallop to the commanding general on the well-known "hill overlooking the battlefield." The "hill" in this case happens to be a captive balloon fully 3,000 feet above the trenches.

A lull in the bombardment. Wounded are picked up by the sanitary corps and carried to certain collection points in the rear of the trenches. Every little while motor ambulances come up the line and carry away those whom it has been possible to save under the artillery attack. The motor ambulances, in the case of the French armies, go back to cities in which facilities for the treatment of the wounded can be found, while in the case of the German armies well equipped hospital trains of twenty-five to thirty cars, at some convenient gathering point behind the battle line, to which point the motor ambulances carry their loads.

Steam Tractors

One of the surprises of the British expeditionary forces has been the excellent showing of the fleet of 110 Foden steam tractors as heavy tractors. For slow haulage of three and more trailers, of heavy artillery, and as repair wagons with complete electrical equipment, these steam tractors have given invaluable service. They are easily kept in repair and their burn small anthracite coal as well as crude oil and kerosene. In the fast haulage of extra trailers these steam tractors are almost lost, and a whole column of them is being pressed forward for the

The Records are now Public

The Operating Costs for Nearly a Million Miles

I CLAIMED that the New Alkaline Storage Battery would make the Electric Vehicle the cheapest means of Street Transportation, but I had only my private tests to satisfy me. Today thousands of Edison Batteries in thousands of Trucks and Delivery Wagons are making Operating Records that are easily investigated by all. After the four or five years of hard service that many of these vehicles have had, is it possible to deny that my claim is proved?

Thomas A. Edison

HERE IS ONE RECORD—A REPORT—ON
22 FIVE-YEAR-OLD EDISON BATTERIES

COMPARE THESE
TWO FIGURES
WITH THE COSTS
OF ANY OTHER
KNOWN METHOD
OF DELIVERY



22 Edison Storage Batteries (Edison Storage Co., N. Y.)—one of them

for use in 22 Edison Electric Vehicles in operation for

Write for Batteries and use of Edison Batteries for Lighting, Country Houses, Ignition and Lighting of Gasoline Cars, Yacht Lighting, Railway Traction Lighting and Signaling, Telephone, Telegraph and Wireless and High-speed or Low-speed Passenger Service.

Edison Storage Battery Company

Orange, New Jersey

Distributors in: New York Chicago Boston Cleveland Washington
San Francisco Los Angeles Portland, Oregon Seattle

ADAMS EXPRESS COMPANY

242 WEST 47th STREET

MOTOR VEHICLE DEPARTMENT
ORDERS DIVISION
NEW YORK

New York December 7th 1914

Edison Storage Battery Company,
Orange, N. J.

Attention of
Mr. A. Bachman,
V.P. & Genl Mgr.

Gentlemen—

Thank you for consenting to extend from five to six years the conditions of your guarantee regarding renewal of positive plates.

The average operating cost per battery per month of the twenty-two trucks at Indianapolis, equipped with Edison Batteries in November 1909 and averaging about 680 miles per month, is as follows:

YEAR	BATTERY MAINTENANCE (Refilling, new solution, watering, cleaning, all repairs, inspection, etc.)	CURRENT (Purchased by meter)	TOTAL
	Material	Labor	
1910	\$5.47	\$4.10	\$10.05
1911	5.41	4.10	8.95
1912	5.41	4.10	9.90
1913	5.86	4.10	8.17
1914 (to Oct. 31)	5.11	4.10	9.50
			16.17

The average total operating cost per battery per month was, therefore, \$16.65 for a period of five years.

In this time the average mileage per truck was about 40,000, which reduces the operating cost to \$0.08 per mile. The batteries are still in service.

Yours very truly,

W. J. Bachman
Superintendent

GB:RM



This Truck Tire Wins on the Cost Book

These 1915 Goodyear S-V Tires—pressed onto the wheel—now solve the truck tire problems that have baffled all makers. Goodyear experts worked 8 years for this triumph; and their research costs us \$100,000 yearly.

They built 74 separate tire structures of this type alone. Then 2,100 test tires were made and run. On each we kept a careful record of cost and performance. Truck owners, also, tested these tires by the side of others.

These tests all prove conclusively that this is the final truck tire men have sought from the first.

Cut Cost 5 Ways

Note these definite economies that Goodyear S-V Truck Tires bring—

Reduce Tire Mile Cost—by giving 10% more available tread rubber.

Reduce Cost of Mounting Tires 75% to 85%—by ending preliminary work on wheels, ending the purchase of metal bands, flanges, bolts and wedges.

Save Cost of Carrying Excess Weight—by abolishing these metal fastenings on all four wheels.

Reduce Depreciation by correct cushioning; both the truck and load are protected.

Save Power—by means of Goodyear design and compound.

Keep Trucks Going

Every minute a truck is moving means money. Wrong tires cause costly "lapses"—the time it takes to apply them, time for after-adjustments, time for frequent renewals and repairs.

Goodyear S-V Tires never do that.

They are applied in 5 or 10 minutes. No tinkering to make wheels conform—no fastenings to buy—no boring hole holes.

For Goodyear experts discovered a process that welds in life-long unit the soft rubber tread, hard rubber backing and channel steel base.

See What Users Say

Write today for letters from truck owners, cost facts and full particulars. You owe this to your business. For you lose dollars every day you delay. Address **Dept 132**

The Goodyear Tire & Rubber Company, Akron, Ohio
Makers of Goodyear Automobile Tires

We make Demountable Block Cushion and other Types of Truck Tires

dense columns of smoke given off by the steam wagons. The German artillery, more than seven miles away, got the range of the smoke column and big shells dropped amid the convoy, wrecking three of the Fodens and damaging others severely before the trouble with the fuel could be remedied. Besides the big fleet of 110 Fodens, there are about 80 other steam trucks, of four different makes, in use behind the battle lines. For slow, heavy tractor work the steamers are preferred to the 60 and 100 horse-power gasoline trucks. Generally a complete fleet of steam wagons consists of about thirty vehicles, including a fuel trailer, a repair wagon, a 1,000-gallon water tank wagon with high speed pump installation, stores and equipment sufficient to make the unit fire fleet self-sustaining for six months under war conditions. The personnel of such a fleet consists of one officer, sixteen non-commissioned officers, sixty drivers, five mechanics, two boiler-makers, two smiths, two wheelwrights, two motorcycle orderlies, and one cook.

The driver of one of the heavy trucks, in a letter to his folk, complains that he never knows where he is going. He says that a motorcyclist precedes the first truck of a column, and the driver of that truck has orders to follow the cyclist. The other drivers, of course, "follow the leader." On one occasion the whole convoy made a rash trip which lasted, with few stops, three whole days.

Signal Troubles.

The old-fashioned signal "halt" called by the officer on the roadside probably will have to be amended in some way. On numerous occasions drivers of motor trucks, motorcycles and swift touring cars have dodged death by a hair's breadth. A dozen or so are reported to have been killed because of the old-fashioned "halt" shouted by a soldier. The spattering motor down the call, and the first instinct of the driver of a car gets that anything is wrong in a split second, and he has his head. Complaints from drivers have caused a change in the challenging along some of the most frequently used roads. A red lantern is waved, and if the driver does not stop instantly there's apt to be a vacancy on that particular truck.

Far-reaching Accidents.

On what slight chance the safety of a whole army sometimes depends was shown in the early part of September during a retreat of a French division to another fortified position. There was only a single road of medium width, along which the swift retreat was made. A desperate attack of the German army's superior numbers was launched at this point, and the whole division took to the motors for rapid withdrawal. At the high speed made, one of the big trucks near the head of the column skidded and upset, pitching its load of heavy cases of ammunition into the road and blocking it completely for all vehicles. It took forty-five minutes to clear the debris, and in that time the German artillery dropped hundreds of shells into the surging mass on the road. Fourteen heavy trucks had to be abandoned, after having been rendered useless by removal of important parts. Almost a thousand men were killed and three times that number wounded—all because a truck skidded at the wrong time.

In another case reported from Belgium, a motorcycle orderly guiding an ammunition train to its destination was struck by a small piece of shrapnel in such a manner as to make him lose control of the wheel. He crashed into a tree on the way-side and was knocked unconscious. The accident happened shortly before a cross-road point, and the motor column attempted to go ahead without the guide. The wrong road was chosen, and the column brought up a half hour later at the field kitchen station belonging to another army corps. Nearly ten miles away a regiment was out of ammunition and had to withstand a withering fire from the enemy without being able to reply effectively.

The Rubber Tire Problem.

Except on the first car used by the officers, pneumatic tires are strictly forbidden. Even on motor ambulances the rubber tires

LEGAL NOTICES

PATENTS

If you have an invention which you wish to protect you can secure a patent from the U. S. Patent Office. For advice in regard to the best way of obtaining protection, please send a description of your invention and a sketch of the device, explained by the inventor.

All communications are strictly confidential. Our vast practice, extending over a period of more than sixty years, enables us to advise in regard to patentable inventions and to appear in the courts. Our Head Office in Patents is now free on request. This includes our method, terms, etc., in regard to PATENTS, TRADE MARKS, FOREIGN PATENTS, etc. All patents secured through us are described without cost to the patentee in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

MUNN & COMPANY
361 BROADWAY, NEW YORK
Branch Office, 425 F Street, Washington, D. C.

Classified Advertisements

Advertisements in this column at 75 cents a line. No less than 10 lines per advertisement. All communications must be paid for in advance.

AGENTS WANTED

AGENTS, 5000 Frank, from Europe Gold and silver jewelry, watches, etc. All goods guaranteed. All one can get on. The best quality. Metallic Luster Co., 425 F. Street, N. Chicago, U.S.A.

BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

A GOOD RELIABLE INSTITUTION wants to manufacture and sell a new and improved some military equipment with the inventor, consisting in the use of a new and improved device, and we are in a position to finance a small manufacturing plant and to sell the product on the business by buying in quantity or by selling some other arrangement. Address J. W. J., 10, 11, 12, New York.

MARKETING INVESTMENTS

IN CONNECTION with the development of the new and improved device, we are in a position to finance a small manufacturing plant and to sell the product on the business by buying in quantity or by selling some other arrangement. Address J. W. J., 10, 11, 12, New York.

PATENTS FOR SALE

PATENT ON IMPROVEMENT in Water Motors, particularly that class known as the "jet motor," where the water is forced out of a nozzle, and a bearing to prevent the water from escaping. Address J. W. J., 10, 11, 12, New York.

ELECTRIC LIGHTING FOR AMATEURS
How a small and simple experimental installation can be set up at home. Send for booklet. Address J. W. J., 10, 11, 12, New York.

The Reaction Has Set In

How a small and simple experimental installation can be set up at home. Send for booklet. Address J. W. J., 10, 11, 12, New York.

50 Light Dynamos

\$55 on payment of \$5 per month.

HOBART BROS. CO., Troy, Ohio

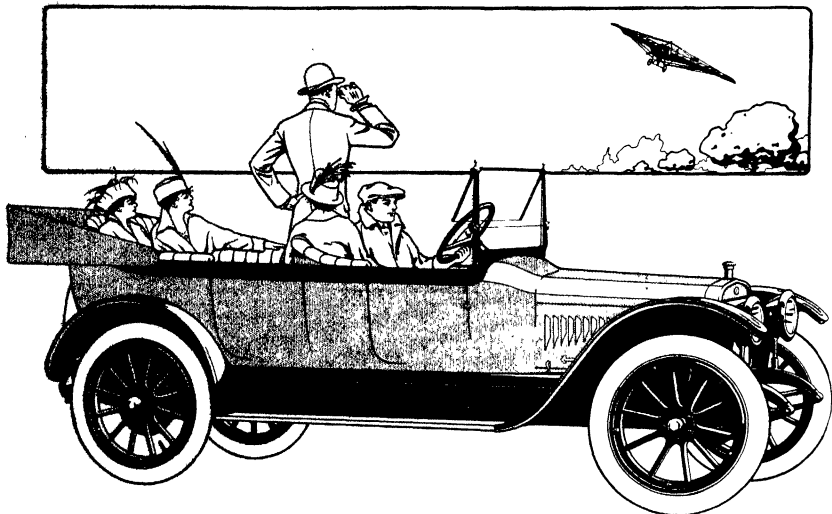
Hotel Puritan

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LAW

How a small and simple experimental installation can be set up at home. Send for booklet. Address J. W. J., 10, 11, 12, New York.

A TOTALLY NEW WINTON SIX



AT A NEW PRICE—\$2285

Excelling quality—never before produced except in the biggest and most costly cars—is now, for the first time, obtainable in a car “not quite so big”—and at a price hitherto impossible:—The New-Size Winton Six at \$2285.

This car gives you everything that makes an automobile high-grade, good to look at, delightful to use, and creditable to own—even to that final note of quality, your own personally selected color scheme.

Here are Some of its Major Features:

Motor—The famous Winton Six-Cylinder L-head motor. Bore, 3 1/4 inches. Long stroke, 5 1/4 inches. Ratio of stroke to bore, 1.44 to 1. Big valves. Spark plugs in head. Fly wheel, crank-shaft, pistons, and connecting rods balanced. Crank-cases divided into upper and lower halves. Motor, clutch, and transmission in unit power plant, completely housed.

Wheel Base—128 inches; eight inches shorter than the Model 21 Winton Six.

Electric Features—Rijur starting and lighting system with separate motor, generator, and storage battery. Head, signal, tail, and dash lights. Bosch ignition.

Control—Rayfield, special type. Dash control. Primer on cowl board.

Fuel System—Seamless gasoline tank of 21 1/4-gallon capacity at rear of frame. Gasoline carried by air pressure to auxiliary tank under cowl; flows by gravity to carburetor. Cleanest and safest system. Main tank has gasoline gauge.

Lubrication—Oil circulation by means of gear pump in crank-case. Practically infallible system that has made the Winton Six the best lubricated motor in the world.

Cooling—Honeycomb type radiator of large capacity. Cylinders fully water-jacketed. Cool-driven centrifugal circulating pump. Radiator fan.

Clutch—Five-pair dry-plate clutch. Highly effective in operation, and easily controlled.

Transmission—Selective sliding gears; four ahead and one reverse. Direct drive on third. Lockout on reverse.

Steering—Left-hand drive, with center control. Worm and gear steering mechanism. Self-lubricating bushings.

Drive—Drive shaft has laterally lubricated universal joint at each end. Spiral bevel gears in rear axle.

Axles—Ellipt type drop-forged front axle. Full floating type rear axle.

Spring—Chrome vanadium steel springs. Semi-elliptical front. Three-quarter elliptical rear. Rear springs underslung. Dana oil-cushioned inserts in all springs. Resilient and expeditious.

Wheels—Wood or wire wheels at purchaser's option. All wheels run on Timken roller bearings.

Brakes—Two contracting and two expanding brakes of liberal size, all on rear axle.

Tires and Rims—16 by 4 1/2 inch tires on all wheels. Non-skid tires on rear wheels. Firestone demountable rims.

Tire Inflation—Motor-driven air pump provides pressure for tire inflation.

Accessibility—To make all working parts quickly accessible has always been the Winton policy. That policy has been thoroughly observed in this model.

Body—The American Beauty type, a creation that makes this a genuine pleasure car. Especially graceful in design, and the last word in comfort. Divided front seats without extra charge, if you desire them. Spacious doors on concealed hinges. Finest of coach leather. Information upon request about roadster, coupe, limousine, and other bodies.

Top—One-man top of silk mohair, with handy lift curtains that are put up or taken down without alighting from the car. Top attached to glass front.

Wind Shield—Handsome and sturdy. Fine plate glass. Both sections adjustable; upper for rain valon, lower for ventilation.

Equipment—In addition to features named above, the equipment includes Warner speedometer, clock, and Klaxon horn. Latter is carried out of sight, under the bonnet. Horn button in center of steering wheel.

Colors—To avoid the monotony of cars that lack distinction and individuality, we permit the widest range of color schemes on this car. Each buyer may have his car finished to suit his individual taste. Metal parts trimmed in nickel.

Service—Buyers of this car will be entitled to the same thorough gratuitous service that is extended to buyers of the Model 21 Winton Six. That means continuous satisfaction.

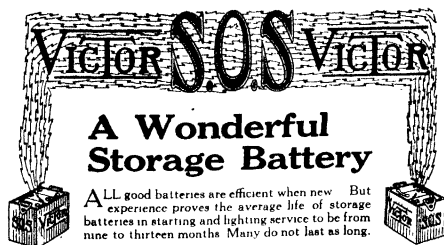
Price—This car, which we term the Model 21A, sells at \$2285, f o b Cleveland.

Complete descriptive catalog upon request

The Winton Motor Car Co.

The World's First Maker of Sixes Exclusively

1096 Buros Road, Cleveland, Ohio, U.S.A.



A Wonderful Storage Battery

ALL good batteries are efficient when new. But experience proves the average life of storage batteries in starting and lighting service to be from nine to thirteen months. Many do not last as long.

Experts Say Impossible

A prominent manufacturer of starting and lighting systems recently said a battery giving even 5% more efficiency would be almost revolutionary.

Victor S. O. S. Batteries will give 25 per cent. to 50 per cent. more efficiency After Six Months' Service than any other lead plate battery now on the market, and their life is twice as long.

ALL CLAIMS PROVEN

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Subsidiary Trucks		1,200	300				1,400	800
Other Heavy Trucks	19,000	15,000	500	300	50	14,000	3,000	800
Gun Tractors	150	800				800	500	
Touring Cars Available	250,000	95,000	15,000	10,000	100	80,000	30,000	300
Special Army Vehicles		300	100	50		1,000	800	

* These figures have been compiled from the latest available official statistics, combined with estimated new production by companies under military control, estimated waste of the first four months of the war, calculated on the basis of 50 per cent. of the total in November, and the reported supplies of British cars to Russia and American cars and trucks to Great Britain. Russia and France the figures make no claim of absolute correctness, but are nearer to these estimates as an "outsider" is able to make at this time. They cannot be far out of the way.

ber tire is preferred, because of the immense trouble caused by bullets or shrapnel penetrating the pneumatic—usually at the most inopportune moment. On some of the British armored cars (two pneumatics are used on the rear wheels, but in the majority of cases solid tires have been mounted. Safety in this case is preferred to a certain degree of comfort.

In one of the dispatches sent by Gen. French to the British government, emphasis is laid on the necessity of having enough spare tires for all sizes of wheels. A whole fleet of trucks had to be abandoned and scrapped during the wild scramble across northern France because there were no extra tires for the trucks! Motor truck experts now at the front calculate the destruction of vehicles at about 90 per cent. of the total, figuring that not more than 40 per cent. of the motor trucks sent to the front will ever return in condition to be useful for anything else. The estimate of the British is slightly higher, reaching nearly 70 per cent., while that of the Germans is less than 50 per cent. Several hundred good British and more than a thousand French and Belgian trucks are reported to have been repaired by the Germans in the big F. N. and Minerva automobile factories in Belgium. The Minerva plant, especially, has proven of great value to the invading army, because of its location at Antwerp, so near the scenes of fighting.

Special Equipment.

Among the special types of vehicles employed in the campaign are a number of 200 horse-power motor plows which dig trenches three feet deep faster than a hundred men can dig them with spades. Huge steam tractors with regular roller wheels for smoothing roads were used for pulling the heaviest weights, while caterpillar tractors, of the type made in Iowa and Illinois, pull the heaviest siege guns.

Searchlight wagons are used extensively, some with acetylene and some with electric lights, powerful trucks equipped with electric dynamos for charging wire entanglements with high-voltage electricity, aeroplane towing and repair wagons, swift, small mail delivery wagons, "cykloettes" on the German side; light four-wheelers on the side of the Allies.

Military tactics to-day may be said to rely pre-eminently on the motor and its speed. Attacks reaching forward at the rate of thirty miles a day are no novelty in 1915. Retreats, in complete order, at a speed of fifty miles a day would have been called impossible by military men twenty years ago. The motorcar has revolutionized warfare. In its complete destruction of all the lore of centuries regarding military tactics it has proved as ruthless as the much talked of 42-centimeter siege gun of the Germans has to the fortresses of the past century.

The Car of 1915

(Continued from page 16.)

of counterbalancing his crankshafts. This lightening and balancing has come as a matter of course, for it is absolutely essential in view of the higher piston speed of the modern motor.

In general, not a great deal of change is noticeable; it is equivalent of changes that may come, however, that one maker has adopted a type in which all gears not in use remain idle and not idly rotating, as is the more usual custom. This, of course, reduces both power waste and wear, and may, therefore, be looked upon as commendable. Disk and cone clutches hold about their accustomed places as

popular esteem, but there has been a notable change in propeller shafts. In quite a number of cases, these now are tubular instead of solid. Hence, they are at once lighter, stiffer and less liable to the whirling which may constitute a grave evil



Counterbalanced crankshaft.

In some of the modern long wheelbase vehicles.

In methods of final drive, the worm scarcely has made any advance, though one maker has adopted it during the year. In the commercial vehicle and electric passenger vehicle fields, however, it steadily is coming into more extensive use. But in the pleasure vehicle field the combination worm and bevel gear, or, as it is styled, the spiral bevel gear, answers practically all of the requirements of the worm gear, but offers few if any



Spiral bevel gear.

of its disadvantages in the way of manufacturing difficulties and mounting problems.

Still another place where the promise of last year has been lived up to is in the spring suspension. The cantilever type of spring, which last year first became at all common when a number of makers adopted it all at once, has become still more common and now has taken a firmly entrenched place in the industry. Its de-



The cantilever spring.

monstrated efficiency, coupled with the worthy fact that it costs less than other systems using more material to obtain a similar result, has brought it to the attention of the industry.

These are some of the things that distinguish the car of 1915 from the car of 1914, though they are not all. They are

following out of the various tendencies which made themselves apparent a year ago at this time. They are merely a little changes for the better, and their very smallness, when taken each by itself apart, compels the conclusion that we may no longer look for big, revolutionary changes in an industry so well furnished with sound engineering traditions.

The High Speed Automobile Motor

(Continued from page 11.)

discriminating selection of materials, and the very highest grade of engineering skill and workmanship throughout.

It is this very high standard of manufacturing required, combined with the old, long-recognized dislike of Americans for high speed motors, which makes automobists hesitate about adopting them as a regular feature. The Frenchman, with small output and skilled hand labor, can maintain this required standard without much difficulty, but to accomplish it on the scale of the American factory output is a far different thing and calls for much preliminary work and experiment before it can be safely launched upon the market.

As regards the four principal features which must be considered in the manufacture of the high speed motor, that of suitable valve mechanism is probably the most important as well as the most vexing problem confronting the engineer at the present stage of development. In fact, it is undoubtedly true that this type of motor really waits at present upon the satisfactory solution of the valve mechanism more than anything else from an engineering standpoint.

We are in the midst of the molting period on valve design, when every conceivable type of mechanism from modified poppet style to so-called sleeve, rotary and piston types is being experimented with, adopted, or advocated. There is much confusion of ideas among engineers as to the relative merits of each, because all types have not been tested enough yet under actual service conditions, and particularly under high speed requirements, to promote confidence as to their thorough practicability. Furthermore, the introduction of the sleeve, rotary and piston valve types complicates the matter by the direct relation they have had upon the lubrication problem. If such valve mechanisms are adopted a delicate adjustment of lubrication must be provided to prevent excess accumulation of oil on the ports at slow speeds and all starvation at high speeds. The ramps of motor speed being greater, the difficulty of such lubrication is much increased over that encountered on relatively slower-speeded motors.

The ordinary poppet type of valve affords a much simpler problem as regards lubrication, but has two serious drawbacks for high speed use. One of these is its smaller relative port area, which tends to cause strangulation of the entering charge as well as of the exhaust gases, and hence reduces efficiency. The other is the risk of actual fracture of the valve stem and consequently serious motor damage due to the terrific hammering action of this style of valve. This type is also more difficult to keep in adjustment on high speed work. Few people realize how great this strain is in poppet valve action. At a speed of 2,000 revolutions per minute of the motor of four-cylinder design each valve must be jerked from its seat, raised, say, $\frac{1}{8}$ inch, and dropped again through the same distance one thousand times in a minute. The actual time used for the complete opening and closing of the valve is of course only a fraction of a second, and it is this high frequency of successive hammer blows which finally causes rupture of the valve stem, even though the blows are small relatively in intensity. Also the alternate heating and cooling of the valves, particularly of the exhaust valve, has a deteriorating effect upon the strength of the latter and hence shortens its life. These two valve drawbacks have their most powerful effect in the high speed motor on account of its extreme properties in all directions, and it is therefore easily apparent why the valve mechanism must be very carefully worked out and given a most searching test before adoption as a standard product.

It is of course only a matter of time before a thoroughly satisfactory valve mechanism will be developed for this style of motor and combined with an efficient oiling system, but still these two vital drawbacks are automatically disposed of and are not likely to be any extensive man-

ufacture of this type of engine, however desirable it may be.

The matter of balance has already been pretty thoroughly met and the rules to be followed are more or less generally understood by all automobile engineers. The introduction of forged steel piston rods of very uniform size and light weight as well as of composite aluminum pistons has considerably simplified this problem of late. In high speed work kinetic balance is of very great importance and the old methods of balancing according to static principles are no longer sufficient. For instance, a flywheel when mounted on a shaft and set on knife edges can be balanced statically without great difficulty by merely drilling into the side of the rim of the heavier portion, but this does not give any assurance that the center of gravity will coincide with the axis when it is revolving. To secure a sufficient approximation to the latter ideal condition necessitates a very careful testing of all the revolving and reciprocating parts. Failure to maintain this high standard of balancing practically eliminates the motor from any bid for success in the high speed field, for its balance must be so perfect that its real motor speed cannot be readily detected. The slightest unbalance produces vibration, which in turn attracts the attention of the occupants of the car to the speed of revolution of its motor. To be a real success, the latter must be literally unobtrusive as regards noise and vibration.

Much of the success of the balancing problem depends upon the skill of the designer in proportioning the relative parts and selecting the materials, so that no useless metal is present in the rotating or reciprocating members. The proper combination of strength with lightness in such units as the pistons and connecting rods, crankshafts, etc., is of the utmost importance, and of course the lighter these parts can be made the easier the balancing problem becomes. From the very nature of the design the parts of a high speed motor of equal power to one of much slower relative speed ranges can be made considerably lighter, for the necessary increase in power is obtained by the greater speed of the motor, and the piston and bearing pressures are therefore less.

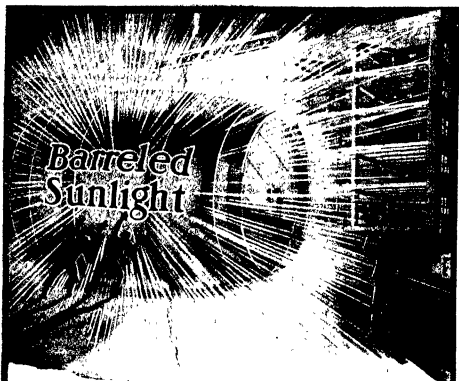
The common practice of balancing by merely pairing off component parts, such as opposed pistons, will not suffice for high speed standards. Such an arrangement is liable to produce a disagreeable fore and aft traveling or periodic vibration along the crankshaft and is a makeshift arrangement at best. Each piece must be weighed, inspected and sorted, with the object of maintaining the duplicate parts of each individual motor at the highest possible standard of uniformity.

The importance of the balancing proposition will call for a considerably higher standard of interchangeability of parts than heretofore, and in fact the repair men will also come in for an increased share of responsibility when it comes to overhauling such motors. It will never do, for instance, to put in an extra large piston in order to stop oil from passing by into the combustion chamber or resort to any other of the numerous tricks familiar to the gentry when attempting to rejuvenate worn-out motors. A little careful work of this character would ruin the finest built high speed motor on the balancing standpoint.

When the small, quiet running motor of this type is finally produced, however, on a really serious commercial scale, it

leaves no room of causing a considerable revolution in motorcar design, the principal effects of which will be in the saving of space and weight and in the matter of economy.

These savings begin with the motor itself, which can be made lighter and very much more compact than the horse power crumbler than anything we have been accustomed to. On account of the higher speeds at which it runs, all shafting and gears can be made lighter, and by reason of the shorter wheel base possible from this compact design a still further reduction in weight is secured. This weight reduction proceeds all along the line with



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The journey, a short one, seemed awfully long to me. Beyond them lay the sea of gold grasses. I could see below me thousands of soldiers marching toward the battle front. Strange bridges over the Ohio and Niagara rivers showed me around the bend of the river.

wholesale body builders. The result is that American cars have very little individuality, all that is allowed the purchaser being a choice of certain colors.

If we accept this *conspicuous standardization* as a necessary evil we should at least insist that the bodies forced on the purchaser should not be lacking in beauty, comfort and convenience. Yet too often is not this the case?

Take for example the windows in closed cars. It will almost invariably be found that they open little more than half way. If this occurred only in the rear light it could be underfoot as the mudguards interfere unless the body is kept within the frame. It is really unpardonable, however, that the door lights should not open completely.

Handwheels instead of the old ash and peg are now much used for operating the windows. The French practice of fusing a small handle upon wheels and of fitting springs at the bottom of the window well powerful enough to compensate for the weight of the glass, may also be cited. The slightest pressure is sufficient to move the glass up and down. Care must be taken not to place the handle near the top of the window as otherwise the glass may crack.

With the individual front seats separated by an aisle now coming into vogue it would be so simple to make them adjustable. Apparently all drivers of any one make of car are expected to be of precisely the same height. How often we have seen tall drivers with their knees jammed against the steering wheels of their cars. If the front seats had a fore and aft motion of only a few inches a tremendous increase in comfort would be made. The ideal arrangement would be, of course, to have all seats adjustable longitudinally, vertically, and as to inclination.

In Fig. 11 a rather novel sedan is shown. It has two entrances, the one on the right including the center window, which is narrower than the corresponding one of the left. This body has its good points, but mounted on a frame almost 28 inches high it is placed at a disadvantage. As this is a single compartment body why are the beautiful striped curtains confined to the rear windows? Why not be logical and drape them around all the windows?

The body in Fig. 12 is a limousine with cab sides, has quite pleasing proportions, but is slung far too high above the ground. I well remember that at the last Paris salon the exhibitor of this make had cleverly arranged ramps approaching the car from the sides, so that would-be purchasers accustomed to low-hung European productions would not be overwhelmed. It seems a pity that with the steering wheel at the left the driver cannot get out on his own side. The rear fenders have had the same outline for eight years, so that it is perhaps too late to suggest changing them, but they would really be more efficient if carried lower down behind the wheels. The bonnet, although slightly tapered, does not make the slightest pretense of merging into the dash, which is of the full blown convex type.

Windshield stay rods are still retained on the touring cars of this make (see Fig. 13), but are mere shadows of their former selves. The spare tire prevent the top from folding down neatly. The upholstery of the front seat arm, part of which is fastened upon the top rail of the door, should be noticed.

The general proportions of the touring body represented in Fig. 14 are very good. It is here seen that in order to provide sufficient clearance for American roads the frame need not be swung ridiculously high. The mudguards are very successful. Almost the only room for improvement lies in the upholstery. As probably no one sits on the doorstep why upholster them?

In Fig. 15 is shown a boat body with an aisle between the front seats, which would be very pleasing were it not for the windshield frame, which are brought down the sides. The normal of the radiator panel, but also by the hemispherical shape of the stern, which reduces the vacuum

The body in Fig. 16 represents a considerable advance over those on the 1914 models, but it is far from perfect. It suffers chiefly from a plethora of moldings, especially on the hood and mudguards. The angle between vertical and rounded portions of the bonnet is continued in the cowl, giving the latter rather an awkward form.

Fig. 17 shows an attempt to build a difficult body—a domed roofed landulet. It is unfortunately a failure from the point of view of appearance. The sides of the body are too low in relation to the window height. The rear light, however, can be lowered almost out of sight, a very good point.

The sedan in Fig. 18 is one of the best looking cars of its type. The roof should have been slightly more domed, rounding off into the back and having a drip molding along the top of the windows, or if the fast type is should project slightly in front. Arranging the door to open the other way would enable more of the running board to be of use.

We now come to what is perhaps the most advanced American stock touring body (Fig. 19). Its general lines are good, though the type being very well worked out. It is unfortunate, however, that on a four-cylinder chassis of 132-inch wheelbase it was found necessary to cut a place out of the rear door. Also why should the driver be compelled to climb over the front seat passenger to reach the ground? If the spare tire is to be mounted a little more forward and the front door farther to the rear it could be turned from an imitation door into a real one. Here I shall let the reader into a secret. There is a brake lever blocking the driver's exit in any case! Good points about the body are the high sides, the turn-in along the top rail and the lack of protruding upholstery. A neat touch not appreciated in the photograph is the inclining of the windshield rearward two inches.

Compare the above body with that shown in Fig. 20, and the improvement resulting from concealing the upholstery is evident. The front seat in the latter car seems in imminent danger of bursting. One would little imagine that this body and that shown in Fig. 7 are both mounted on similar chassis. Such, however, is the case. Compare the relative positions of the steering wheels in Figs. 19 and 20. In one case the driver sits in the body, in the other case he sits on it.

The subject of Fig. 21 is one of the most perfect cars on the market, and it looks its part. The frame has been dropped about the hood, giving it a low-hung appearance desirable in the very large wheel. There are few points for criticism. The sides of the body might with advantage be as high as the hood, thus reducing the gap between body and top and hiding the folding seats. The ventilators at the base of the windshield, while efficient, are not beautiful. As the hood is not tapered there is a sudden swelling at the dash as in Fig. 10. An aisle separates the front seats, a very popular feature for 1915. On a two-door body it is better than a sliding or folding front seat, but as it reduces luggage carrying space it is not always desirable where unnecessary, as in this case.

The mudguards are very fine pieces of work. Particular notice should be given to the front one with the lamp shells and valances in one piece with the guards themselves. The practice of this firm in mounting the headlamps on the mudguards has not been followed. I because of the difficulty in jacking the fenders perfectly rigid; 2, on account of the difficulty of refueling the lamps to suit the individual driver; 3, on the score of appearance. In this position, however, the lamps can light up the holes in the road and not merely cast dense shadows across them.

In concluding this article perhaps I may be permitted to refer to a sedan body which I designed exactly two years ago. As seen in Fig. 22 the wind resistance is reduced to a minimum not only by the small space normal to the direction of travel, but also by the hemispherical shape of the stern, which reduces the vacuum

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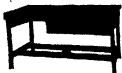
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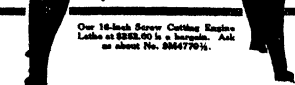
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"It just happens that the man whose letter you've got is a particular friend of mine."

Another British rider who was with the expeditionary forces of Great Britain says the life is none too easy. "The motorcyclist has to shift for himself; he moves too fast, too sudden, and too often to have any regular headquarters, so far as his eating and sleeping are concerned. After he has delivered a dispatch and is dismissed for the time being, he sets out to find somewhere to wash, something to eat, some place to sleep, and last, but not least, gasoline." He has no speed limits to worry over, but the disastrous consequences of running at high speed into the rear of a dark motor truck serve to keep his eyes straining and his ears alert, feet on the brake pedals, ready for instant action.

One of the greatest troubles of the motorcyclist rider in war-ridden France and Belgium is the necessity of riding without a lamp at night. The explosions of the motor are loud enough to cover the call "Halt" of a sentry, and it is related that several motorcyclists were shot to death and a great many fired at by their own sentries because of their inability to hear the "Halt" signal. On one occasion a rider just managed to stop his machine in time to get the point of a French layonet to within a couple of inches of his chest. Less powerful brakes and he would have been dead.

Flares are under way at present, based on the experience of the first four months of the war, to substitute a system of light signals at night for sentries. Flashlight lamps have been tried out, as well as the old style red light, from which a covering cloth is drawn at the proper moment.

Dispatch riders tell with gusto of their growing ability to dodge flying shells coming toward them. The large shells, in particular, can be clearly "seen" at night and quite a few of the riders succeeded in avoiding death by swerving around the descending shells. On one occasion a big shell struck about fifty yards ahead of two motorcyclists coming at top speed and the hole torn into the roadway was so big that the machines could not avoid it. Both went bounding into the crater and were severely injured.

Still more interesting and dangerous is the lot of the motorcyclist dispatch rider who is taking part in the East African fighting. One of them, in a letter to his folk in England, tells the following interesting story: "The other night, when it was just getting dark, the captain had to send me to the next camp, twenty-three miles away, and there is only one track, running right through jungle all the way off I went on the most exciting ride I have ever undertaken. I was fully armed with a service rifle and revolver, hunting knife, water bottle, haversack, and ammunition. The first thing I ran into was a pack of baboons, some of them nearly five feet high. They were terribly excited and ran in front of the machine in the full light for about a mile. The baboons simply wouldn't shift. You ought to have heard them bark. I would not have gotten into their clutches for all the money in the world. However, they at last turned into the bush.

"I also saw two lone leopards. One brute didn't attempt to move until I was within three yards of him. I suppose he finally thought it wiser to get out of the path of the glaring light and the roar of the engine. He jumped snarling to one side and—maybe I didn't go when I got passed him! He must have taken it into his head to follow me!"

While leopards and baboons do not bother the motorcyclist in the European field of war, he has his hands full with problems which somehow or other never seem to have been thought out before. For instance, it has been found that where a cavalry patrol of small size is chased by motorcyclists, all the former need do is drag a telegraph pole or two across the road—there are hundreds of fallen trees everywhere along the roads! The horses

can jump over, if trees are on the road; the motorcyclists are detained long enough to allow the horsemen to escape. In one case three motorcyclists of the British force were surprised by a number of Germans and driven into flight. A tree lying across the road stopped the machines just behind a curve, and they were forced to dismount and fight from behind the tree. Several Germans were killed and wounded and two of the cyclists also were shot, when the third one thought of a loud police whistle he carried. His shrill blast took the Germans by surprise, they evidently believing it a call for assistance from some nearby force. They wheeled their horses and disappeared.

Motorcycles have been used in the field operations for the following work:

1. Carrying orders to the motor truck columns and to cavalry commanders.
2. Guiding motor trucks to their destination.
3. Calling ambulances and reinforcements, guiding them to the places where they are needed.
4. Assisting in dragging machine guns and gun sections.
5. Pulling work on the roads behind the battle line.
6. Reconnoitering, which was formerly accomplished exclusively by cavalry.
7. Acting as scouts in advance of long convoys of automobiles, seeing that the roads are safe for traffic and free of obstacles.

The Good Roads Movement

THAT remarkable progress has been made in the building of good roads throughout the United States during the past few years is proven by data recently obtained by the American Highway Association and soon to be published in the official Good Roads Year Book for 1915. It has been found that more than 34,000 miles of surfaced roads have been constructed during 1913 and 1914, and that during the ten-year period from 1904 to 1914 more than 90,000 miles have been completed. That this progress has been really amazing may be understood from the fact that in 1904 there were only 153,000 miles of surfaced roads of all types in the United States. That the movement is attaining momentum as it goes is proven by the fact that while the average mileage constructed per annum during the past ten years is 9,000 miles the total completed for 1914 exceeded 15,000 miles. The report will show that something like 30,000 miles of highway have been completed with the aid of State funds, of which over \$200,000,000 have been expended. The State aid movement began in 1892 and has therefore continued for twenty-two years. Only recently has it gotten well under way, as the results accomplished for 1913 and 1914 comprise a total of 10,000 miles of State aid highways completed, or in two years' time one-third of the entire mileage constructed with the aid of State funds has been completed.

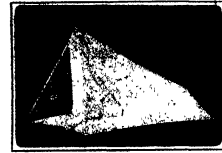
Only six States now, out of a total of forty-eight, are entirely free highway departments, and thirty States have granted actual money aid to the building of roads. The Year Book, which is the official reference publication for all good roads information, is a large cloth bound volume issued yearly in each calendar year by the American Highway Association.

Aggregation and Anticipation.—In the recent case of Read Machinery Company v. Jazurg et al., Circuit Judge Hunt, in the decision, takes occasion to say with regard to aggregation and anticipation, as follows: "Aggregation, as I understand it, will not apply where there is a combination of elements capable of co-acting to produce a unitary result, provided such co-action produces novel and improved results which are useful," and that "Upon the contention that there has been anticipation it is necessary, as I understand it, that the defendant shall show that all of the elements of the plaintiff's patent or the mechanical equivalents are found in the same description or machine where they do substantially the same work by substantially the same means."

Compac Auto Touring Tent



H O, TOURIST! Buy a Compac Auto Touring Tent and live in the open—Save Hotel Bills—Two Private Rooms—Separate Entrances—Sewed in Floor Cloth—Tent and Bed Combined—No Cots Necessary—Perfectly Ventilated—Speedily and Easily Erected or Taken Down—No Poles Required—Rolls up 7x20 inches—Waterproof—Bug Proof—Snake Proof.



Sportsman's Hiking Tent

Sewed in Floor Cloth.

Weight, 3 1/2 lbs.
Fried, 6x8 feet
Rolls 4x16 inches
Accommodates Two

For leaky Auto Tops use **Rainite Waterproofing Liquid and Compound.** Will not injure the finest fabrics. Applied easily with brush.

SEEK ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE

COMPAC TENT CO., Inc., 420 West Tenth St., Indianapolis, Ind.

If yours is a one-man office or a 300-stenographer concern—

THE YALE & TOWNE MFG. CO.

The Dictaphone.

Dear Sirs:—

The seventy-five Dictaphones now used in handling our New York correspondence were installed after fourteen years' experience with dictation machines. We early recognized the dictation machine system as logical and inevitable as it eliminated the duplication of work—two written letters—which short-hand neomaterials.

In 1913 we investigated the relative merit of dictation machines from all angles, as we desired to standardize on one make. The order you received for an eighty-five Dictaphones was the result.

Dictaphones in our office have meant a large saving in the cost of our correspondence. I would give you up the use of the Dictaphone today, we would undoubtedly need a much larger number of stenographers.

In addition to this direct treasure saving we feel that the convenience of the Dictaphone and the time and trouble it saves to those dictating correspondence, while difficult to estimate in dollars and cents, is of equal importance.

Your service has been uniformly prompt, courteous and efficient on the very few occasions we have had to call on you. In fact, your facilities for providing service constituted one of the reasons which led us to standardize on Dictaphones.

Yours very truly,

THE YALE & TOWNE MFG CO



JOHN B. REIMER
Anthracite and Bituminous Coal
Manufacturing Materials

ORANGE PARK, New York.

Answering yours of May 28th. Asking a man who has one used the Dictaphone as to his opinion in regard to its practicality and efficiency, is like asking a man's opinion of the telephone, the electric light, trolley-car, or against horse-car, railroads, or against stages, long-hand writing as against stenography, etc. The answer to these questions is so self-evident that any further expression of opinion is superfluous.

Yours very truly,
(Signed) JOHN B. REIMER

THE DICTAPHONE



The Dictaphone (Copyright Dictaphone Co.)
Sole Distributor
Sells 1114, Westcott Building, N. Y.
New York City. Write for the latest price.

A Dictaphone System in the Yale
Library. The Dictaphone is the
most efficient means of copying.



The canal boat, the railroad train, the interurban and the Delco equipped automobile—Epoch making steps in the development of transportation—all caught at the same instant by the eye of the camera

THROUGHOUT the history of the world civilization has hung closely upon the heels of transportation—

First there was the narrow trail through the woods and along the mountain side—the trunk of a tree across the stream—

Mankind walked and beast of burden carried—

Travel was slow and very circumscribed—

The world lived in a myriad of little communities, each separated from the other by the barrier of distance—

Then came boats—slow, cumbersome affairs—propelled by oar or sail or by mules along the canal routes—The world was brought a little closer together—a very little—

One day a boiling tea kettle suggested to an alert boy the latent power of steam—

The steam engine came—

A new era in transportation and in civilization dawned—

Railroads and steamships multiplied—they connected cities and nations—they developed agriculture and mining and industrial resources—they brought the world close together into one great intimately connected community—

Then came the electric car—the interurban—supplementing and still further developing the civilizing influence of railroad and steamship lines—

And finally came the automobile—crude at first, but quickly developing into a vehicle of almost unlimited speed and power—of universal adaptation and of marvelous grace and beauty.

The most popular of all means of transportation, the automobile has become the center of an enormous industry—it has revolutionized manufacturing and commercial methods—It has wonderfully developed

agriculture by bringing the farm and the city close together—it has renewed the interest in road making—one of the original influences for better civilization—it has largely increased the world's wealth and the world's pleasure—

And yet in spite of all this remarkable development the automobile was, until a very few years ago, sadly hampered by crude methods of starting and lighting—

Then came the Delco system—starting, lighting, ignition—electricity adding the one final touch to the efficiency of the gas driven car—

In a few short months the automobile industry was revolutionized—

The motor car that hitherto had required skill and a strong right arm to operate became as safe and simple and easy to control as an electric carriage—

The scope of its usefulness was greatly broadened—

The safety and pleasure of driving were intensified—

Today 190,000 Delco Equipped cars are in operation—

Thousands of them are being driven easily and safely by women—

You will find the Delco System at the Automobile Shows as regular equipment on the

Cadillac	Hudson	Cole	Cartier
Buick	Oldsmobile	Moore	Jackson
Oakland	Stevens-Duryea	Auburn	Westcott
	Patterson		



These three units comprise the entire Delco System—cranking, lighting and ignition

FIAT

Overland



American
Electrics

KISSELKAR

*Rough & Ling
Electrics*



BAKER

ELECTRICS



Mitchell

SPAULDING

Republic

SGV

Pilot



Peerless
EMPIRE
Lyon's Knight
MODEL K

LEWIS

CUNNINGHAM

STANWELD PRODUCTS



Stanweld Plain Clincher Rim

Stanweld Number Fifty Detachable Rim

Stanweld Number Twenty Detachable Rim

Stanweld Number Sixty Detachable Rim

The equipment made by Stanweld is the most reliable type of rim. Strong and made of the best material. These products of Stanweld are made in the most modern plant in the world.

Stanweld equipment is made in the most reliable type of rim. Strong and made of the best material. These products of Stanweld are made in the most modern plant in the world.

The Stanweld type of detachable rim is made in the most reliable type of rim. Strong and made of the best material. These products of Stanweld are made in the most modern plant in the world.

The Stanweld type of detachable rim is made in the most reliable type of rim. Strong and made of the best material. These products of Stanweld are made in the most modern plant in the world.

You Should Know Every Part of the Car You Buy

THE CAR you buy will be equipped with Stanweld Rims, when you learn these facts. Stanweld Rims are made by America's first and largest rim-makers. They are made of the best material obtainable for the purpose. They are made by the most expert workmen employed in the rim-making industry. Every Stanweld Rim is tested four times - for quality of material, for accuracy, for ease and certainty of operation; and for the tire-fit by the Tire Manufacturers Association.

This company was the first to use electric welding in a practical and successful manner. And in the years that we have been engaged in the manufacture of rims, tubing, and parts by that method, we have perfected the process up to a point where today it is recognized as one of the greatest inventions of the last two decades.

We are probably the only concern that ever has been called upon by the U. S. Government

to make test material by the electric welding method.

These facts should mean this much to you. That Stanweld Rims are first of all safe rims - the safest rims made. And because you want first of all a safe car, you should insist on a car equipped with Stanweld Rims.

Literature on any or all types of Stanweld Rims will be gladly sent to anyone free of charge. A post-card is sufficient.

STANWELD SEAMLESS STEEL TUBING

If you've ever owned a bicycle, motorcycle, or automobile, you've undoubtedly owned a piece of Stanweld Steel Tubing. It is used by the world's largest manufacturer of automobiles, by the world's largest manufacturer of motorcycles; and likewise by the world's largest maker of bicycles.

Stanweld Steel Tubing is used by so many manufacturers because it has a combination of qualities rare even to good steel tubing - lightness, strength and fine finishing-qualities.

A large part of our tubing-output is sold in formed parts, the department for this work being the largest of its kind in the United

States, where we make up wards of five million separate pieces a year.

The held for steel tubing is rapidly widening. In many cases it is replacing wood, fibre, copper, brass,

and expensive machined parts, giving the finished articles greater strength, better appearance, and lower cost.

Although we have many large accounts we are always desirous of

getting in touch with small concerns of individuals who seek to use steel tubing or tube parts.

We are able to offer a service which is exceptionally valuable because of our experience with countless difficult and intricate problems.

Correspondence is invited on any matter pertaining to steel tubing.

The Standard Welding Co.
Pioneers and World's Largest Producers of Rims for Motor-Driven Vehicles
Main Office and Factory CLEVELAND
Distributors in Principal Cities

Stevens
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ELECTRIC



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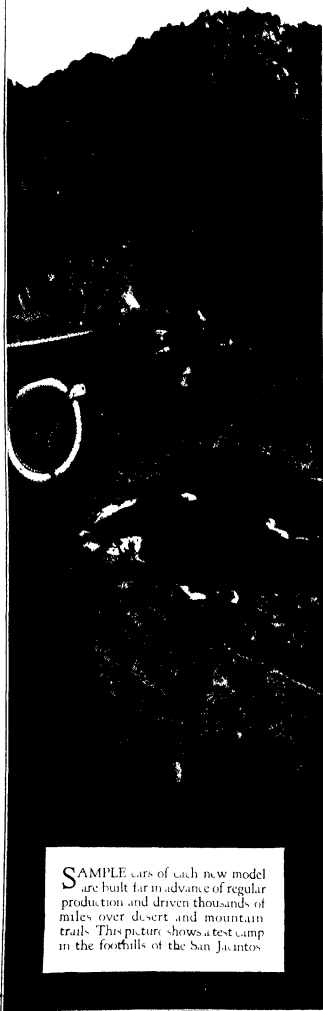


PATHFINDER



Dorris
BUFFALO ELECTRIC

The All-American Car



SAMPLE cars of each new model are built far in advance of regular production and driven thousands of miles over desert and mountain trails. This picture shows a test camp in the foothills of the San Jacintos.

AS PIONEERS we once accepted European standards under the natural assumption that, being older in practice, they represented a more mature development.

But while our foreign connections were making parts that were acceptable as separate units, Packard engineers were working constantly toward their ideal of a completed car with every part designed and built in perfect harmony with every other part.

In the fixed purpose of attaining a Packard motor carriage standard which would surpass every previous achievement at home or abroad, we found the American answer for American requirements.

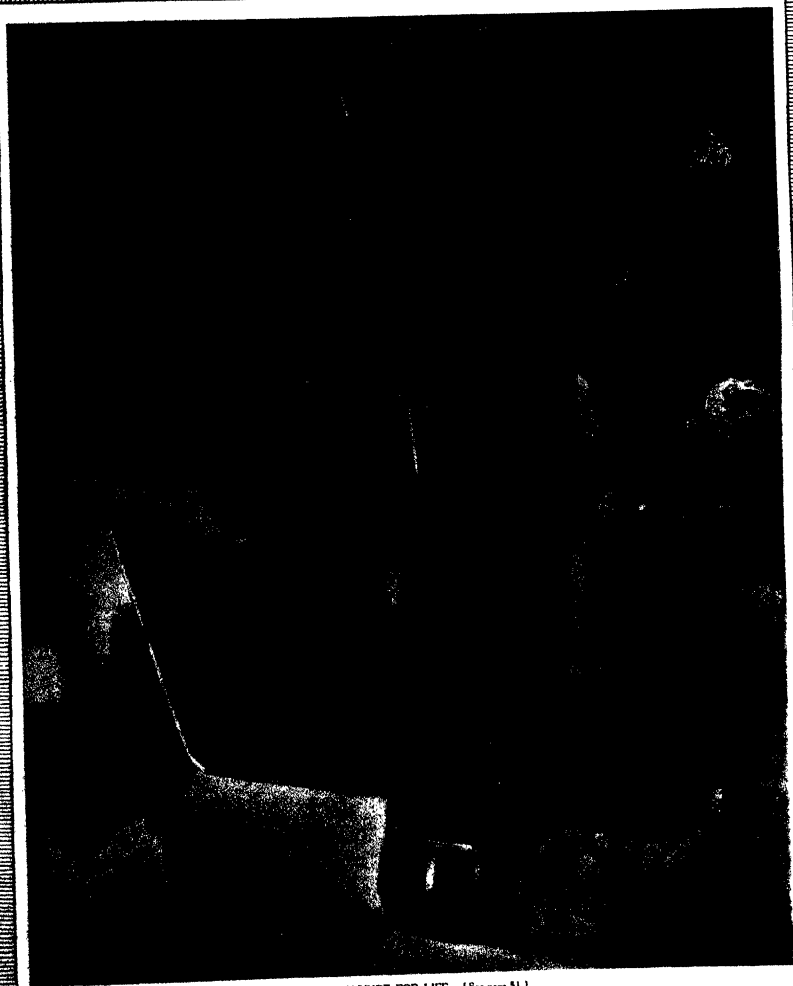
Results are valued in proportion to the intelligent and useful effort necessary to their accomplishment. Today the Packard is completely independent of Europe. It is Packard-made throughout and is rightfully acknowledged to be the criterion of motor cars.

*Ask
the man who
owns one*

PACKARD MOTOR CAR COMPANY
DETROIT • MICHIGAN

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

16 NOV. 1915



A MAD PLUNGE FOR LIFE.—(See page 51.)

Vol. CXL No. 2
January 9, 1916

Munn & Co., Inc., Publishers
New York, N. Y.

• Price 10 Cents
\$3.00 A Year

Electricity

Transatlantic Cable in London.—A 4-foot tunnel is about to be constructed in London for the conveyance of mail. It will contain two tracks with island platforms at the eight stations from Paddington to Whitechapel, including the Strand. The trains will be run without operators from direct central stations at an average speed of 25 miles per hour. At the island platforms there will be electric elevators to transfer the mails to the sorting offices.

Electricity in St. Louis.—A number of plants in St. Louis, Mo., are producing commercial oxygen electrolytically. A 10 to 15 per cent solution of caustic soda or caustic potash is employed. Through this a current of electricity is passed and the oxygen that collects at one electrode is trapped and led off to a compressor, while the hydrogen is permitted to escape. If, in this country, showed anywhere near the aeronautic activity of European countries the hydrogen would also be collected and used for the inflation of balloons.

Railroad Electrification in Montana.—Contracts have been let for the electrification of the Puget Sound line of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railway, between Three Forks and Deer Lodge, a distance of 113 miles. This is the first step toward the electrification of the line from Harlowton, Montana, to Avery, Idaho, a distance of 440 miles. Should this prove satisfactory, it is planned to extend the electrified section to the coast, making a total of about 850 miles. It is believed that electric locomotives will provide much better service and reduce the operating costs over those of the present steam system.

Electricity from Canada.—Of the electricity generated in the hydraulic power plants of Canada, just across from our border, more than half is exported to the United States. According to a report issued by the Canadian government, 1,543,464,097 kilowatt hours were produced in 1913 by Canadian companies with transmission lines crossing the border. The total, 777,597,040 kilowatt-hours was transmitted over the "export" lines while 770,867,046 kilowatt-hours of electrical energy was retained for use in Canada. Of course this does not represent all the hydro-electric energy generated in the Dominion. There are stations at Montreal, Toronto, Quebec and Winnipeg that manufacture electrical energy for domestic consumption only.

British Wireless Amateurs and the War.—So much has been said in disparagement of the amateur wireless telegraph operator that it is a pleasure to find him coming in for some official appreciation. Wireless telegraphy is playing a very important part in the present war, not only on the European battlefields, but also in defense of the British coast, so that an appeal has been issued to amateur operators to join the Post Office staff and share in the wireless watch that is being maintained by the government. There is also a call for efficient operators in the navy and in the army, and the wireless amateur has a chance now to make practical use of the experience he may have gained at the expense of some annoyance to commercial wireless stations.

"Ferrowatt" Tungsten Lamp.—The "ferrowatt" is the most recent novelty in the way of European lamps. An improvement in filament process allows of abandoning the usual zigzag mounting, and the 3-foot length of filament is wound in a compact spiral so that the makeup is much stronger. The filament is mounted at the middle of a spherical lamp bulb and is held in shape by hooks arranged in circular form around the filament so as to keep the filament from falling in. Maximum light is secured in the vertical direction because the incandescent body now lies at the center of the lamp and is very compact, so that vertical lighting is said to be five times what the old forms gave, and the horizontal lighting is reduced by only 25 per cent. With a reflector, the horizontal light can be increased, however, if need be. The new lamp is 2 1/2 inches in diameter and is made in 25 candle-power sizes. It is specially good for table lighting.

Illuminating Engineering and the War.—In a discussion before the Illuminating Engineering Society of London, by Mr. Leon Gasker, a few weeks ago, attention was called to the excellent opportunity now offered of studying certain questions of illuminating engineering in the possible conditions resulting from the war. British cities and towns have found themselves turned back suddenly to the conditions of a hundred years ago, in the matter of illumination. The effect of diminished lighting seems to result in a depressing effect that keeps people ladsome, checks shopping, and the paragonage of the elements. It was brought out that, instead of an increase of accidents, there has been a decrease in the past few months, because diminished lighting made the driver of vehicles more careful. Dimmer lighting in street cars as compared with subway trains, which have no occasion to lower their lights, raises the interesting question of whether there is a greater attraction of the public to the more brightly lighted conveyances. Another illuminating point is the reduction in the number of street lights which may result in introducing the far preferable indirect illumination system.

Science

The Weather over the Western Cattle Ranges is the subject of special daily reports which, according to the last annual report of the Weather Bureau, were inaugurated last spring and have elicited much approval. Reports from a number of points in the western (Great Plains) region are collected daily by telegraph at Amarillo, Tex., and these distributed in bulletin form to the cattle and financial interests in the surrounding country.

Suspending Mendel's Law?—An article of interest to plant-breeders in the current issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2036 for January 19th, 1915, by Dr. W. P. Jenney, describes the method followed whereby the hybrid Japanese morning glory is made to reproduce itself true from seed. The operation of Mendel's law, which is not manifested until the second generation from seed of a hybrid, is ingeniously avoided by repollinating the hybrid with the pollen of its male parent, whereby no true second generation occurs, but only a series of progressive first generations, on which the Mendelian law has no action.

Dr. Bose's Visit to America.—Prof. J. C. Bose, whose discoveries regarding the continuity of physiological processes in the plant and animal world have been known in England and the Continent, is now in America on a scientific mission from the British government. Prof. Bose exhibited his resonant recorder at Philadelphia before Section O of the American Association for the Advancement of Science on the 29th of December. This instrument records time intervals as short as the thousandth part of a second, and measures the perception time of a plant. On the 11th of January Prof. Bose will give a discourse on "Plant Autographs and Their Revelations," illustrated by original experiments, before the Academy of Sciences, New York. Before his return to Europe Dr. Bose will lecture before the Columbia University, the University of Sciences, Washington, the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, the Twentieth Century Club, Boston, the Universities of Chicago, Wisconsin, Illinois, and Michigan.

The European Starling (*Sturnus vulgaris*) was introduced into the United States 25 years ago, and its range has gradually extended over much of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. During its migrations in search of food it ranges as far as the Rocky Mountains. It is now found as the District of Columbia. According to the Biological Survey, which has recently made a study of this bird, it will probably spread ultimately over the whole country, in spite of the fact that four states in which it exists have now withdrawn all protection from it, while its shipment from one state to another has been prohibited under heavy penalty by Congress. It appears to be an undesirable addition to our fauna, on account of its fondness for small fruit, and because it nests in tree cavities, boxes, or recesses of buildings, and is thus brought into competition with more useful native birds, such as the bluebird, purple martin, and flicker. On the other hand, the starling destroys many noxious insects in its food, and does not appear to be destructive to grain crops. In the old world, especially Germany, the starling is a favorite cage bird, being taught to whistle tunes and pronounce words.

John Muir.—News comes from Los Angeles of the death there, on December 24th, of John Muir, the widely known naturalist. He had been visiting his daughter at Daguerre, where he was stricken with pneumonia, and removed to a hospital in Los Angeles, where he succumbed at the age of 76 years.

John Muir was born in Dunbar, Scotland, April 21st, 1838, and came to this country when 11 years old with his parents, who settled in the wilderness of Wisconsin. He secured more than the ordinary education by his own efforts, studying early and late when not engaged in farm labor, and later pursued his studies in the University of Wisconsin. His love of nature induced him to take up a wandering life, during which he covered much of the territory of the Southwest and West, constantly increasing his knowledge of natural history, as well as allied sciences. About 1876 he joined the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey to enable him to extend the field of his observations, and covered great sections of Alaska. The great Muir Glacier bears his name. He was one of the party that went in search of Delong and the lost Jeannette expedition, and also of the Corwin expedition, during which he had an opportunity to study the glacier formation of the Bering Sea, and the coast of Siberia, and later went to Switzerland and Norway for purposes of comparison. Besides being a naturalist he was an able geologist, explorer, artist and philosopher, and in his younger years showed that he was a clever inventor. He was widely known as the "Guardian of the Yosemite" and the "Naturalist of the Sierras" from his intense interest in those regions, and he did much for the preservation of the national parks.

His literary work is widely known. He received many honors from institutions of learning, and was a member of a number of scientific societies.

Aeronautics

Swiss Army Aeroplanes.—Reports before the war stated that the Swiss government had decided upon the types of aeroplanes to be adopted for use in the army, and three makes were officially approved, these being the Bleriot (monoplane), Lohner (biplane) with fixed motor and water cooling, and a type of aeroplane built in Germany according to designs of the Swiss engineer Schneider, which accounts for the preference given to it. This apparatus also has a fixed water-cooled motor. It was stated in the German press that all the aeroplanes for Switzerland were to be built in Germany, but the above statement contradicts this. It is impossible to say how many machines were secured before the war was declared.

German Aeroplanes Drop Bombs in England.—On December 24th and again on Christmas Day, German aviators flew over England and dropped bombs. On the former day a machine appeared high above Dover and dropped a single bomb in an effort to hit Dover Castle. The bomb fell in the garden of the Rectory and did no damage. British aeroplanes were in pursuit, but the German machines had too great a start and they were unable to overtake them. On Christmas Day a second German aviator flew over England and penetrated as far as Rochester, which is but 28 miles east of London and 7 miles from Gravesend. The bomb which he dropped fell in a road and did no serious damage. On the other hand the attack made by Squadron Commander Richard B. Davies of the British Naval Air Service on the airship shed in Brussels the day before Christmas is thought to have been successful in destroying a Parseval airship. Lieut. Davies, in his Farman biplane, flew directly to Brussels and discharged eight bombs upon his first attack. Six of these he believes hit the shed and did serious damage. He dropped four more in the second attack, but owing to the clouds of smoke which arose from the shed the damage caused by the latter could not be ascertained.

Turkish Aviation Programme.—According to statements published before the war, Turkey, following the example of the other powers, entered the aeroplane movement, and may even be in advance of some in the way of marine aviation. In considering the make-up of the new aeroplane fleet there was considerable competition between constructors of France, Germany and America, the last represented by Curtiss, who made a series of flights upon the Bosphorus to show the advantage of his flying boat. It appears, however, that French builders came in for a good part of the order, and the Nieuport establishment was to furnish as many as 30 hydro-aeroplanes. According to a good authority, Turkey intends to fit up three centers of naval aviation, and the above-mentioned marine flyers are for this purpose. These are of 80 horse-power, the Rhône type, the same as made such a good performance at the last French naval maneuvers and went through a series of brilliant flights at Bizerta, on the Mediterranean. It is stated that the Turkish army has already 25 pilot officers who are now in good training. Capt. De Goya is engaged in organizing both the army and the navy aeroplane service. No doubt matters have changed considerably since the war broke out.

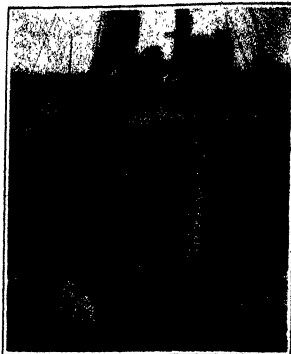
A Successful Naval Aeroplane Raid on Cuxhaven.—Encouraged by the former raids on Düsseldorf, Friedrichshafen, and Brussels (by Commander Davies on December 24th for the purpose of blowing up a Parseval) the British authorities carried out a similar raid from the sea on Christmas Day. Seven aeroplanes piloted by Flight Commanders Oliver, Hewlett, Bass, and Kille, and Flight Lieutenants Miles, Edwards, and Blackburn, participated in the raid, which was made off Heligoland from two British cruisers and several destroyers and submarines as a base. The water craft managed to thread their way successfully through the mines and to get within a short distance of the coast, where they remained for three hours without being detected by the German forts or warships and where they safely re-embarked three of the seven hydro-aeroplanes with their occupants, before returning home. Three other aviators returned to their base and were picked up by submarines, which afterwards sank the aeroplanes so that they would not be captured. Flight Commander E. T. Hewlett is son of Maurice Hewlett, the novelist, was the only one who did not return. His machine was found wrecked some eight miles off Heligoland and its pilot was thought to have been lost. As soon as the ships had arrived off the coast in broad daylight, but under foggy weather conditions, the seven aviators took flight with the purpose of dropping bombs upon various points of military significance on the mainland. The Germans state they did no damage beyond setting afire a gas tank at Cuxhaven. They repelled the attack with their own aeroplanes and a couple of Zeppelins, but once the latter had received a few shots from the aircraft guns of the "Undaunted" and the "Archduke," they withdrew and did not any longer risk destruction. The Germans claim that they suffered no casualties, so that the fight was a draw except that it awoke Germany to the fact that she is quite in danger from the attacks of British aircraft.



Top of one of the hollow concrete caissons forming piers for the Balboa docks.

The Balboa Docks

How the Solid Masonry Columns for Supporting the Great Wharves at the Pacific Ocean Entrance to the Panama Canal were Rapidly and Economically Constructed, Carrying the Foundations Down to Bed Rock



Adding a new section to the concrete caisson that is to form a pier for the Balboa docks.

THE operation of a great canal like that at Panama necessitates the construction of extensive auxiliary works. Thus, at Balboa, on the southern or Pacific terminus of the great waterway, extensive wharves and piers are being built. As some of the loads to be carried are very great, it has been deemed advisable in general to carry the foundations to solid rock. This is by no means one of the easiest of engineering problems because of the necessity of combating the water. The surface of the soil is, in part, actually covered with water, and the soil itself is pretty much everywhere permeated with it. The method of reaching the rock through water-bearing material pursued in New York city, in the construction of the foundations of the great skyscrapers in the extreme southern end of Manhattan Island, is to use the pneumatic caisson. This is a very sure method, but it is also decidedly expensive. At Balboa a caisson is employed, but it is open at both ends. Large shells of concrete, 7½ feet in diameter, each 6 feet in height and open at the end, are first

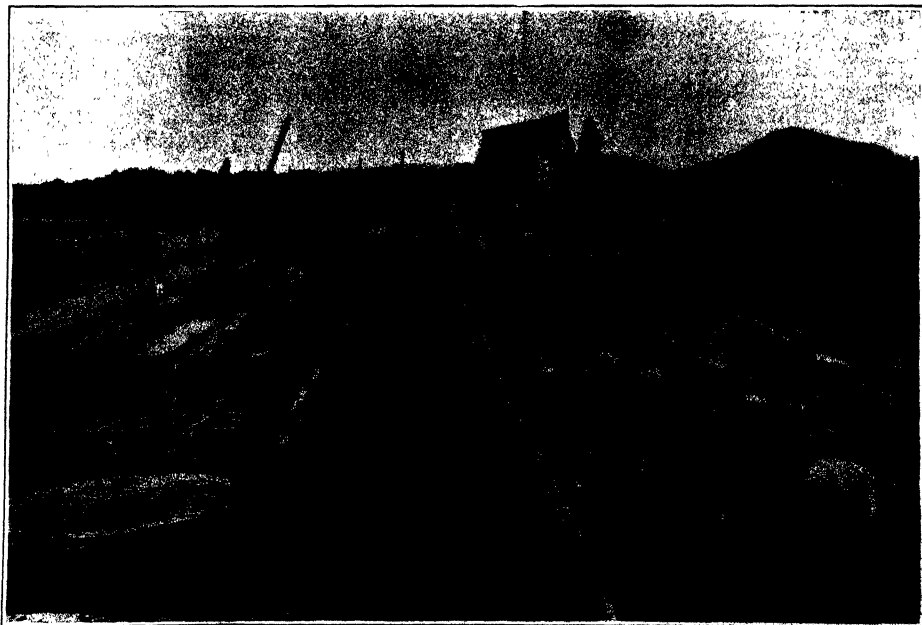
constructed. They are the sectional parts of what will be long cylinders reaching from the rock up to the desired level. The method of procedure is to set up several sections, one atop of the other, the bottom one being fitted with a metal edge and having somewhat different dimensions. If the ground is quite soft the shell will enter a shorter or longer distance into it simply because of the effect of gravitation; however, an orange peel bucket is employed to dig away the material from the inside. As this is dug away, and additional sections of shell are added above, the caisson will sink deeper and deeper, until at last it reaches rock. Sometimes caissons of the general description of those being sunk at the isthmus stick in the earth and give a great deal of trouble. For example, when a caisson is being put down there may be less resistance on one side than on the other, this circumstance resulting at times in tilting the whole caisson, and it is very apt to stick. Again, the cutting edge may be going down easily and rapidly when suddenly one side comes

into contact with a boulder. However, at Panama, in one month thirty-one caissons were successfully carried to rock at an average depth of 60 feet.

The caisson sections have a wall thickness of 1 foot, so that there is an opening of 5½ feet in which to work the orange peel bucket. Each section of the caisson weighs about 4 tons, so that it is necessary to provide a powerful apparatus to lift them into place for sinking. An ordinary caisson from rock to surface will contain ten or eleven sections.

When a complete caisson has been sunk to rock and its interior entirely freed from earth, it is ready for its filling of concrete, which converts the whole into a solid 8-foot column, reaching all the way to the rock, and thus affording a strong foundation for the wharves and piers.

As a great many of the concrete sections had to be made, steel forms were employed, which may be used over and over again. A concrete mixing plant, operated by a steam engine, was established on



Making concrete caisson sections for the Balboa docks.

a flat car, running on a temporary track, and the concrete was run into the hollow piers through a tube, which could reach several piers from a single location of the mixing plant.

An idea of the heavy service to which the docks at Balboa may be put may be gathered from the fact that at one point the wharf will carry two great coal unloaders. These are tower-like structures 150 feet tall, each moving on a double track between which a regular railway track is arranged. Each tower carries four steam engines and a hopper, which may contain as much as 50 tons of coal.

Notable Salvage Work Upon the "Empress of Ireland"

By Robert G. Skerrett

ALTHOUGH lost some months ago, salvage work on the ill-fated "Empress of Ireland" has only recently drawn to a close in the St. Lawrence River. Probably no other wreck has presented a more difficult task for the salvors than this ship. Originally, the Canadian government employed a Canadian organization which made use of facilities developed by Mr. William Wallace Wetherston, the well-known salvage expert. The latter personally attended to the work, and was a potent factor in its success, although the fullest credit must be given to others, and acknowledgment must be made to the splendid services rendered by the British naval divers who assisted in the hazardous tasks of recovering the bodies of the dead as well as the mails and the silver bullion stored in the specie room.

At the particular point on the St. Lawrence where the "Empress of Ireland" went down the water is quite 138 feet deep to the surface of the soft mud bottom, and high tide increases this by quite 14 feet. This means a very strong current, especially at ebb tide, and impeded a working period of but 30 minutes at each slack tide twice a day. Apart from that, the water was so cold that the divers' hands soon became numb, and to protect them it was necessary to employ rubber mitts. These were of American make and thin enough to enable the diver to guide himself by his sense of touch—something upon which he has to depend very largely in deep and dark water.

After sinking, the "Empress of Ireland" partly righted herself, then heeled over at a very sharp angle, and settled deeply into the mud of the river bed. This added greatly to the peril of the work and made especially hazardous the operations incident to getting through the steel side of the craft and following a devious route into the ship's strong room. These efforts required that the divers should work at the very unusual depth of 130 feet inside the body of the foundered liner, and, to make them familiar with their objective, they were previously schooled by means of a cardboard model of the internal structure along their route. Further, that their risks might be lessened, flanking doorways and one wide passage were bulkheaded off in order that the men should not go astray nor their hose, lifeline, or telephone connections become entangled.

The telephone played an important part in the operations. This telephone gear was of English design, but somewhat improved by American telephone engineering practices. Because of the dangers involved, the divers worked always in pairs; and as soon as one couple came to the surface two more men were immediately ready to carry on the work. One of the best things done was that of drilling into the side of the ship and cutting an ample passageway. The men worked upon a piecework basis, and they pushed ahead so rapidly that their rate was but little short of that ordinarily deemed excellent at a shipyard and in the open air.

The salvage craft was provided with a compressed air system, and the divers received their air from storage tanks instead of from pumps, as is the common custom, and there was also a hospital or decompression tank such as is used here in the United States in foundation work for skyscrapers. The diving was carried out precisely to the directions prescribed by the British Admiralty, and certain well-known scientific men, and a large number of twelve divers were

engaged upon the job only one man lost his life. He, unfortunately, slipped from the side of the sunken liner and dropped into much deeper water. The sudden application of hydrostatic pressure confused him, and in his excitement, instead of opening his air valve, he screwed it closed, and actually broke off the little hand drill. After that fatality every valve seat was watched so that air would reach a diver in distress and keep him alive until aid could be sent to him, no matter if he did jam the valve by mistake.

All of the bodies were recovered that could possibly be reached, and this was really the prime concern of the officials of the Canadian Pacific Railway; also the bullion and specie in the strong room were saved; and up to date substantially most of the mail pouches have been brought to the surface. In addition to this, the steel masts of the "Empress of Ireland," which were a menace to navigation, were cut away with air drills. This entire undertaking marks a notable advance in deep-water salvage operations, and shows that even the dangerous conditions on the St. Lawrence will not daunt determined men when guided by thoroughly competent experts.

The Highest and Lowest Temperatures in the Atmosphere

THE classic example of extreme hot weather is the temperature reading of 127.4 deg. Fahr., recorded at Ouargla, an oasis in the Algerian Sahara, on July 17th, 1879. It must not be supposed, however, that this is the highest temperature ever known to have occurred in the atmosphere. It is merely the maximum ever

Zembla. A minimum thermometer left here by an Austrian expedition in 1872 was found many years later to have registered a temperature of 95.8 degrees below zero. The lowest average temperature throughout the year is found in Antarctica, though the winter temperatures here do not fall so low as those above mentioned. The minimum individual temperature reading thus far reported from the Antarctic is 73.3 degrees below zero, observed by Amundsen's expedition on August 13th, 1911.

The absolute minima of temperature heretofore measured in the atmosphere were not, however, found near the earth's surface, but at an altitude of several miles, and the measurements were obtained with self-registering thermometers attached to "sounding balloons." The "record" up to date is 133 deg. below zero Fahr., and, strange to say, this extremely frigid temperature was found about 10 miles above the Island of Java, only a few degrees of latitude from the equator. A temperature of 119 degrees below zero has been measured almost exactly over the equator in Central Africa, at an altitude of 12 miles.

Amole

ONE of the natural resources of the sandy portions of the Great Southwest is used to great advantage mostly by the native Mexicans, in their process of laundering woolen goods of fine texture.

A species of cacti, native of New Mexico, often taken in common with several other species of cacti, which have divergent properties, under the head of amole, but more scientifically known as the species *lechuguilla* (*Agave halimifolia*), abounds in practically inexhaustible quantities throughout the southern portion of New Mexico.

Its sword-like leaves contain many minute pores, which absorb moisture from the atmosphere, thus giving life to a form of vegetation which otherwise could not exist in our arid belt and sand dunes. These leaves also protect the plant from its enemies, which are so numerous to ward this particular species because of a sweetness of its sap, which when extracted, will rapidly vanish down the throat of any cow or calf which is in close enough proximity to be attracted by its odor.

Below this cluster of "sword-like leaves," and usually about two or three feet from the ground is a trunk of fibrous form, and below this an anchorage of very tough fiber roots, usually very short and stumpy.

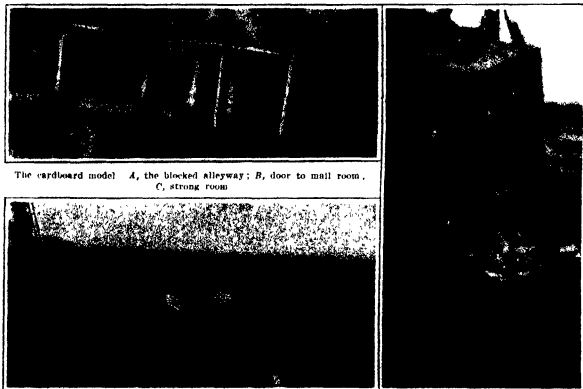
The trunk part, which extends away into the ground before the roots branch off, is the part used by the Mexicans for its soap-giving properties.

By the use of the axe the leaves and upper portion of the trunk are cut off and thrown away. A hole several feet deep is dug around the lower portion of the trunk. The plant is then cut off just above the roots. The outer bark, also of a hard fiber-like composition, is peeled off and the remaining fibrous tissues are placed in the open sun to dry. After it is thoroughly dried it is then cut into small chunks or pulverized into a powder, wrapped in a cloth and placed in the wash tub or vessel in which the woollen are to be washed. After boiling for several hours a wooden paddle or stick is used to stir the mixture until a thick lather is formed.

The clothes to be laundered are then placed in the mixture, and in case of woolen goods allowed to soak overnight. The usual method of rubbing on a hard or corrugated piece of metal and rinsing in clear water is then followed.

Woolen goods, especially sweaters and the like, which are washed with amole instead of ordinary soap, will come out like new, their texture soft and silky and every thread thoroughly cleansed. No shrinking ever accompanies this process. It is for this reason mainly that it is used by the Mexicans in washing their beautiful and finely colored hand-made woolen blankets and serapes.

The Work of Exploring the Upper Air with kites and balloons heretofore carried on by the Weather Bureau at Mount Weather, Va., has been transferred to Drexel, Neb.



The cardboard model. A, the blocked alleyway; B, door to mail room; C, strong room.

Because of perils involved the divers went down in pairs.

Bringing up the purser's safe.

Notable salvage work on the "Empress of Ireland."

measured by the shaded thermometer of a regular meteorological station. In the interior desert region of New South Wales the traveler Stuart once measured 131 degrees in the shade, Griffiths, in his "Travels in Arabia," mentions having observed the heat during land winds to reach 132 degrees in the shade, and 156 degrees in the sun. In this connection it should be remarked that readings of a thermometer "in the sun" are entirely unreliable, because the instrument is directly heated by the sunshine and no longer records the temperature of the air around it. In the Northern Circars (India) the temperature on one occasion is reported to have stood at 106 degrees at midnight, and at 112 degrees at 8 A. M. Night temperatures of 100 degrees and more are common in the Arabian desert. The most extraordinary shade temperature on record is 147 deg. Fahr., said to have been observed in the Desert of Gobi, but this observation is certainly questionable.

At the opposite end of the scale we have the famous reading of 90.4 deg. below zero Fahr. recorded at Verkhoyansk, Siberia, January 15th, 1885. This often quoted record has, however, been beaten recently at the same place, with a reading of 97.8 degrees below zero. The greatest cold prevailing in that region of Siberia in winter is the more remarkable when we consider that the same region occasionally has temperatures as high as 88 degrees above zero in summer—a range of 186 degrees! The summer is about two months long, and its hot days show the ground to a depth of about 3 feet. Verkhoyansk would be uninhabitable in winter, but for the fact that it never experiences much wind at that season. Another "winter cold-pole" appears to lie over Nova

Rebuilding Edison's Great Plant

AN impressive example of American inventive faculty, combined with mechanical efficiency and organization, as found in a large plant maintained and operated under the best of modern conditions, is shown in the reconstruction of the plant of Thomas A. Edison, Inc., at West Orange, New Jersey, after the disastrous fire, which occurred on December 9th, 1914. While the name of Edison and many of his inventions are of course household words, the general public does not appreciate that with his inventive genius there has been coupled an effective system of organization and administration, not merely of one large industry, but of a group of industries engaged in the large scale manufacture of such dissimilar products as phonograph and records, electric primary batteries, kinetoscopes and motion picture films, both for exhibition and for the household, dictating machines, kinetophones, alternating current transformers, and house lighting controllers. Not only are these the inventions of a single master mind, but they have been manufactured virtually through a single organization, under the control of the inventor himself, with facilities adequate to undertake not only the assembly of various parts, but also their complete manufacture, from often the crudest raw materials. Therefore, economically, as well as from the standpoint of structural engineering, a fire damaging some eleven buildings and extending over an area of nearly six acres must be regarded as an important conflagration, particularly when the total loss is well in excess of a million dollars. But such a disaster, when it befalls a well-organized American plant, is but a test of its strength, efficiency, organization, and power of recuperation, and once again we have this illustrated at the Edison works. So little was the great invention discouraged that before the ruins were cold he had assembled his engineers, ordered the clearing away of the debris, and the reconstruction of the great plant furnishing employment to thousands.

Thorough-like there is being restored from the ashes in West Orange a group of buildings in which the lessons of the fire have been applied, while with cement made at the Edison works, and with plans of buildings produced by members of his own staff, there will soon be in evidence a group of factory buildings that will practically be models of modern construction. Although reinforced concrete is usual for a modern factory building, in how many cases on the cement be produced by the same owners and used and cast under the direction of their own engineers?

In putting in order this large and remarkable plant naturally the first consideration was the buildings structurally damaged the least. In these the intense heat had broken through the windows and with large glass exposures not protected by wire glass considerable damage had been done to the building as well as to the total destruction of the contents. This defect in the original construction was far from good practice, which would have required wire glass. Accordingly, the first step in the reconstruction was to provide metal sash and wire glass for the burnt-out buildings, and the photograph record building was the first to receive attention, since the portion of the sash was shipped from Youngstown in express, delivered at Orange the next day and the following morning some sections were erected. By January 1st practically all sash in this building had been erected and the glazing with Syntec wire glass was under way. In the meantime the buildings had been cleared and put in readiness, so that their regular use was only a matter of a few days.

In other cases where the columns and floor beams had shown failure, due to the unusually hot fire, these columns were immediately repaired with the cement gun, two complete outfits having been leased for this purpose, and the cement deposited wherever possible, and especially as soon as the reinforcements had been completed. Of course where the buildings were beyond repair the loss was complete, and these will involve total replacement, which in many cases will add to the convenience and symmetry of the plant as well as its safety.

While it is impossible to entirely avoid fire hazard in a factory plant, especially in a congested group of buildings, each having some branch of an industry, especially where inflammable materials bulk large, yet there are ways of lessening such dangers, and confining the damage to a single floor or structure. In the Edison buildings the old group comprised various types of construction. The new buildings will comprise but one, namely, the best, with metal sash and wire glass at all exposed openings, with fire doors and adequate sprinkler systems. This equipment takes into full recognition the fact that even the most fireproof build-

ing, if filled with combustible material, must be regarded simply as a store in which the flames are confined until they find some point of egress sufficiently big to break through.

Thus it can be seen that even a disaster like this is but temporary in its effect. In manufacturing, as in other commercial undertakings, capitalized brain power, be it in the form of patents, systematic organization, able administration, or the collective minds of trained technical workers, is an asset far greater than bricks, mortar, cement, and machinery, for those qualities always will rise superior to temporary misfortune. Added to this we find in the Edison works the same wonderful power of enterprise that enabled its chemists to make its own chemicals when the war cut off the foreign supply, and the fact that unwashed through the fire came the laboratory of the inventor with its priceless records and experiments in progress. With the nerve center unimpaired, other members of the body soon again can be made to function, and it is only a matter of a few months before the product of the Edison laboratories will be at the customary output, while new inventions will add to the list of its activity.

A Formula for Calculating the Tactical Value of Fighting Ships

By A. Given

THE descriptions of fighting ships as given to the public generally cover displacement, speed, main battery, secondary battery armor protection, and number of torpedo tubes. To these are sometimes added the bunker capacity and size of torpedoes. These are enough to enable a naval officer to judge very roughly the value of any given ship as a tactical unit, but to the unprofessional mind the very number of necessary details are confusing.

It is wished herein to present, tentatively, a method by which, from the above details, the tactical value of a ship can be calculated for purposes of comparison. It is based upon the four factors of gun power, depending upon the size and number of guns in the primary and secondary batteries, protection, which includes the main armor belt, secondary armor, and protective decks, speed, as modified by coal capacity, which means ability to keep the sea; and torpedo offensive power, influenced by number and size of torpedo tubes. The calculation is as follows:

1. Gun power

a. Primary battery.
Multiply the square of the caliber in inches by the number of guns.

b. Secondary battery.
Multiply the square of the caliber in inches of each size by the number of guns in each class. The sum of these products constitutes the units of value for the secondary battery. The sum of the units of the primary and of the secondary batteries constitutes the factor of gun power.

2. Protection

a. Primary armor.
Multiply displacement, in thousands of tons, by inches thickness of main armor.

b. Secondary armor.
Multiply displacement, in thousands of tons, by average thickness, in inches, of secondary armor.

Note: When only one thickness of armor is carried, multiply displacement by twice the thickness of armor.

For value of a protective deck armor, multiply displacement by thickness of deck armor.

The sum of the units of primary and of secondary armor constitutes the factor of protection.

3. Speed

Multiply the speed in knots by hundreds of tons of coal capacity. Where bunker capacity is not given, assume 1 ton coal for each 10 tons displacement.

This factor can be applied in the same manner to submarines, but the speed in knots should be the average of the surface and under-water speeds.

4. Torpedoes

Multiply the number of tubes by the diameter. Where the diameter is not known, assume 21 inches.

The sum of the units of these four factors gives an approximation of the tactical value for purposes of comparison.

Applying the above formula to fighting ships described in a recent number of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, it is found that a super-dreadnought of the "Iron Duke" class shows a tactical value of 3,428 units; the "King George V," 3,128 units; the original "Dreadnought" class, 2,570 units. Semi-dreadnoughts of the "King Edward VII" class show 1,900 units, while dreadnoughts of the "London" class have only 1,662

units. Likewise a secret of the "Mokaw" type shows 1,044 units, which is located in the "Mokaw" type shows 1,044 units. For purposes of comparison, the French super-dreadnoughts of the "Jean Bart" class show a tactical value of 2,750 units; the German "Kaiser" class, 2,000 units; and the Austrian "Viribus Unitis," 1,115 units.

The Sewage Purifying Plant of Oostend

OOSTEND, Belgium, has a modern plant for purification of sewage, and it is of interest not only on account of the method employed, but also from the construction of the plant, which is carried out on the Henebique system of reinforced concrete. The Ostend plant is largely subsidized by the state and is designed to treat 200,000 cubic feet of sewage per twenty-four hours. It is the largest works in which the Vial process is employed. The layout includes a first basin of 50,000 cubic feet for receiving sewage which comes in at night, then come four clarifying basins and a steam plant which will be further mentioned.

The works consist of two wings connected by a central building forming a court in which is located a smoketank 140 feet high. The right wing is a building of over 1,000 square yards area, which contains the receiving basin, and situated on the second floor. This basin occupies the whole of this floor and has 8 feet depth of water. On the ground floor are four "Vial" system tanks. In this system the tanks are used to set up a circulation of water which begins first added to it. The reservoir, of reinforced concrete, is divided into smaller sections or cells by cross partitions of the same material, which extend from a slight distance below the level of the sewage in the tanks nearly to the bottom of the same. By arrangement a thin sheet of chemically-charged water flows over the partitions and travels at a certain speed above the main masses of water which are stationary in the cells. The water in this small stream or sheets precipitates its solid matter due to the action of the chemicals, and such particles drop to the bottom of the tank, to be thence pumped off to the sludge tanks. In due time the entire contents of the tank undergoes this circulation and precipitation process.

The first set of tanks collect nearly all the sludge deposit from the water and the remaining tanks finish the process. It is to be noticed that the complex shapes and variable sections of these basins could not be readily or economically constructed except in reinforced concrete. The inclined bottoms of the basins are calculated for loads that reach 300 pounds per square foot. In the middle building are the quarters for handling the lime, which is the reagent generally adopted for precipitating the water, and it is said that the Vial method secures much better results than has been obtained heretofore by lime treatment. The distributor is composed of a drum of wire gauze into which powdered quicklime is introduced, which breaks up and sifts the finely divided lime into a vessel placed just below and having four hoppers. In the bottom of each hopper is a vertical screw driven by a pawl, which serves to feed out the lime, and at each turn of the screw a given and constant dose of the lime powder is dropped into a tank of water provided with a stirring device. This milk of lime is formed, which then goes to be mixed with the sewage in the settling basins.

In the left hand building are the boilers, the 50 horsepower engine, dynamo and electric fittings, as well as the Robatel centrifugals for concentrating the sludge and the Heald apparatus for drying it. The centrifugal machines run at 1,000 revolutions per minute and act to thicken up the sludge and bring it to the state of paste, then screw conveyors take it to the dryers, which are heated by waste gases from the furnaces. An endless belt of wire gauze runs through the sludge paste and, becoming charged with it, passes into a chamber in which hot furnace gases circulate, so that at the end of the course the material is dried and can be removed in the condition of the powder. This is transported by a conveyor to the second floor, where it is prepared for shipment as a fertilizer.

On the top floor are the water tanks for boiler feed and for cleaning purposes. Here are also placed tanks which receive the sludge coming from the main settling basins, and it is delivered hence to the centrifugals.

Oostend Water Purifying.—The city of Nice is making use of two large plants for purifying water on the Paris Otto scheme system. First there was erected an osmotic crystallizing plant at Bon Voyage, which handled 675,000 cubic feet per day, and as this was found to be most successful, the next step was to put in a second works at Rimplas, and at the present time the city is entirely supplied by osmotic-sterilized water. Power for the first waterworks comes over an electric line using 3-phase current at 20,000 volts and belonging to a special network, while in the second plant the water supply is obtained under conditions which allow the osmotic power itself to furnish all the power needed for the current.

War Experiences of an Air Scout—III*

A Battle in the Clouds

By Frederick C. Hild, American Volunteer With the French Aviation Corps

THE next morning at 8 o'clock I was ordered to duplicate the flight I had made the day before. The day being a busy one, it was quite difficult for both the observer and pilot to see the activity upon the ground beneath us from our established elevation of 7,000 feet, so I descended to a level of 4,000 feet, which made my flight a rather dangerous undertaking. We covered nearly the same ground as we had on the day before, with excellent results; but the fact that I was not brought down by the enemy's guns was a wonder, since terrific rifle and machine gun fire must have been directed against my apparatus. Examination of the wings and body showed where they had been penetrated by six bullets. A small circle, drawn by crayon, around each hole, together with the date and time of my flight, served for future reference. The weather was beginning to get extremely cold, which made flying at high altitude a rather cold proposition; so I was quite happy to have again alighted after flying 1 hour and 15 minutes.

Dodging Among the Clouds.

In the early part of the afternoon on the same day I was ordered to make my third flight over the battling armies. This flight very nearly proved to be my last flight upon this earth. The sky was then cloudy, which proved to be a rather excellent time for both observation and bomb-dropping, as it enabled us to fly at a ridiculously low height, with comparative safety from the enemy's rifle and machine-gun fire, my apparatus being obscured from time to time by the low-lying clouds. After flying about a half an hour at a 3,000-foot altitude, we sighted the enemy a few miles away, and the observer who accompanied me proceeded to get ready to dispatch a thousand of the little death-dealing steel darts that we had been directed to take along. My apparatus was then dashing in and out of the clouds, which presented a rather difficult target to the enemy below. As a rule, when an enemy's flying machine is sighted the gunners on both sides are on the lookout for it. In the early days of the war French airmen were shot down by mistake by French gunners, who fired at nearly every aeroplane they sighted. To prevent this, all the French machines had the national colors painted beneath each wing. The German machines were likewise designated, but at a height of 6,000 feet the flag is invisible, and it is only by their shape and the direction from which the apparatus is coming that the two types of aeroplanes are detected. Flying at only 3,000 feet our machine could have been easily seen and detected; but the fact that we were nearly all of the time obscured by clouds either prevented our detection or fooled the Germans into believing that it was one of their own apparatus.

A Shower of Steel Darts.

Suddenly through an opening in the clouds we sighted about 20,000 Germans directly beneath us, on the march. My observer immediately dispatched the steel darts on their deadly errand; but with what result we were unable to ascertain. Almost instantly we were obscured in another cloud, and by turning the machine sharply to the right, which nearly threw off my observer, I instantly changed my course and fooled the thousands of Germans below, who must have supplied their rifles into open space in an endeavor to avenge the murder of many of their comrades that my apparatus must have caused.

A Flight in the Sky.

Having finished my errand, I proceeded to return to headquarters, stopping by enroute, and at the same time concentrating myself upon getting away safely from the most dangerous machine I was ever in. Then I pursued a hazardous path in order to get out of the clouds and ascertain whether my compass was guiding me correctly. This proved to be nearly the end of my active flying with the French aviation corps, for a few moments later I was shot down by the German machines, an

Erich Taube. Being over-stimulated with our previous success, I decided to give chase, though both the observer and I were armed merely with a revolver apiece provided for just such an emergency. My apparatus, being capable of making 90 miles an hour, soon caught up with the German machine, who upon seeing us had headed for a bank of clouds, and my observer was just getting ready to fire, when suddenly there appeared from the bank of clouds another German machine of

A Race for the Shelter of the Clouds.

Upon arriving at the bottom of our steep descent, I leveled out my machine and soon left the German machines in the rear. Evidently they had thought that their rifle fire had found its mark and brought us down. Upon seeing that our machine was again flying normally, they gave chase immediately, but the tremendous speed of my monoplane soon outdistanced both of them. As I had been gradually climbing throughout the chase,

I soon regained my normal height and faded out of sight into the welcome clouds. Again I headed my apparatus toward the French lines. This time I maintained my altitude and was quite satisfied with an occasional peek at the ground below, through the opening of the clouds, to ascertain my direction. It seemed hours to me ere we were again flying inside the French lines, where it was quite safe to lower my apparatus from our obscure place of hiding. A most welcome sight to both the observer and me were the hangars upon the aviation field that loomed up in the distance, and a few minutes later our apparatus was rolling over the ground after flying for nearly two hours and the most thrilling and exciting two hours that either my observer or I had ever experienced. Further flying that day was out of the question for either of us; in fact I was all in, and it was really a wonder that I was able to return safely after our mad plunge for life.

Shortage of Machines.

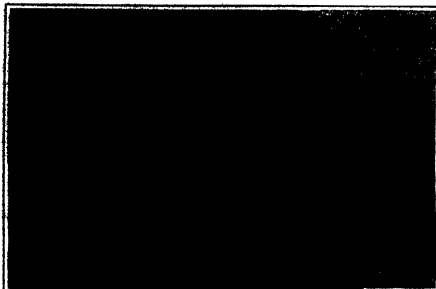
My experiences up to this time were most exciting and thrilling and I enjoyed them immensely, but sad to say, they were short lived. I was sent for by the captain, who informed me that, through a shortage of machines, my Morane-Saulnier monoplane would be taken over by one of the officers, and that I must again return to St. Cyr to await the arrival of a new apparatus. It seemed that the officer in question had broken his machine that day when a stalled motor made it necessary for him to land on rough ground, and immediately he made application to the captain for a new machine. Since I was not an officer and merely an ordinary soldier pilot, I had been chosen as the victim. I was greatly discouraged and appalled to the commander, but to no avail. If that was the military system in France, I decided that I was through as far as rendering any more assistance in my capacity was concerned.

I returned that night to St. Cyr, two other pilots who shared the same fate as I accompanied me. Arriving at St. Cyr the following morning, I reported to the captain for another machine, but he informed me that I was to await my turn, and as there were about thirty pilots there waiting for Morane-Saulnier monoplanes, which were being produced at the rate of about six a week, I figured it out that it would be a month before I would get another chance to go to the front. Getting into conversation with the pilots on the waiting list, I discovered that many of them had suffered the same fate as I had, at different points along the front, and in the last couple of days. The throwing out of the Hefel, Rep. Duperdunin, and Niemont monoplanes increased the number of pilots for the Morane-Saulnier monoplane; the output of the manufacturer did not meet the demand.

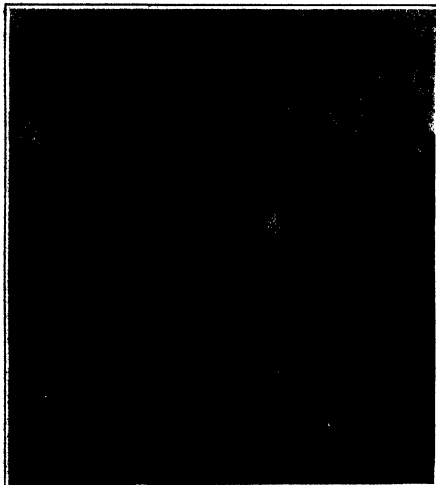
Honorable Discharge.

I secured an interview with Capt. Duperdunin, who had been transferred from Tours to St. Cyr, the headquarters at Tours having, since I had departed some days before, received the order to dismantle and move to St. Cyr and Avord, where future operations would be carried on. I laid my case before him in detail, and when he told me confidently that it would be many weeks and months before there would be an abundance of machines to go around I requested of him my discharge and in order to have some substantial excuse on which the action of the Minister of War would be based, I

(Continued on page 52.)



The Fabre device for dropping bombs from an aeroplane. Note the sights.



Photograph by Lerin.

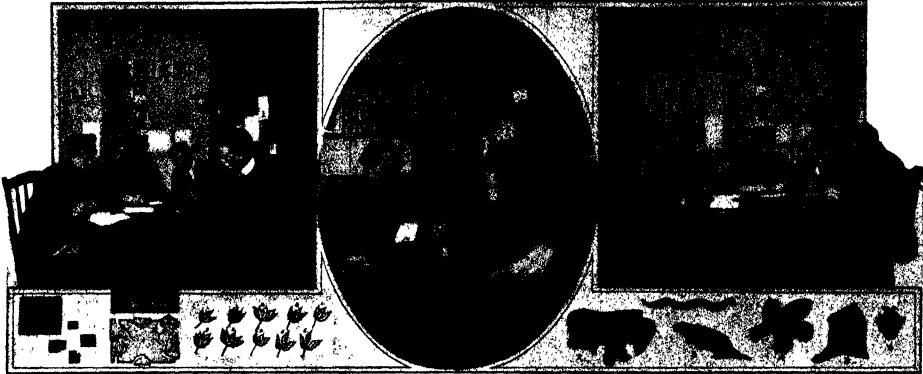
French mitrailleuse firing at a German aeroplane.

the biplane type, which immediately opened fire upon my apparatus with what looked to me like a machine gun. Of course, no sound could be heard above the roar of my motor. Being unprepared for such an attack, immediate action was necessary. The German armored machine was now nearly over our apparatus, while the Taube had since turned about and was coming straight for us. Our position was most dangerous and for a second it looked as though we would soon be dashing headlong into space. I then did the only thing possible, pushing my elevating lever forward my apparatus dived head first so steeply that it nearly turned upside down, and in a moment I was a thousand feet away, quite low, but fortunately for both of us, we were well behind the German lines and over country where there were few or no German soldiers to be seen; otherwise we should have been facing further difficulties to hamper our escape.

Measuring Human Intelligence

A Progressive Series of Standardized Tests Used by the Public Health Service to Protect Our Racial Stock

By Howard A. Knox, Assistant Surgeon, United States Public Health Service, Ellis Island, N. Y.



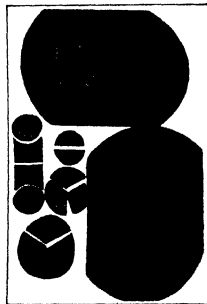
The Moran test should be done by ten-year-olds with ten-year-olds with ten-year-olds. The pieces are shown alongside for purpose of illustration.

The graphic test of the test can be done by ten-year-olds with ten-year-olds. The pieces are shown alongside for purpose of illustration.

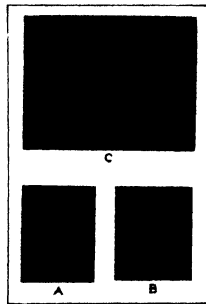
Leaf cluster comparison test. There are ten clusters arranged in five pairs; the numbers of each pair, numbers and letters corresponding, as 1 A, 2 B, etc., must be exactly alike in principle at least. The examiner can draw the clusters sufficiently well for practical purposes with a pen. The examiner points to cluster "1" with a pointer and asks the subject to indicate the other one like it with his pointer.

The inkblot imagination tests. The subject is asked about each blot, "What does this look like and what does it remind you of?" The answers given should be logical and sensible, and it would not be so to call "1" a tree or a star, but it would be quite reasonable to call it a snake, a river, or a pennant, and it would also be well within the realm of sense to call "2" a bear, "3" a house or a hat, and "4" a butterfly or an umbrella. (Imagination is an important possession, an great achievement was ever accomplished without it.) Many defective, having no imagination at all, will say, "I don't know" about each blot excepting perhaps "1" and "2," which are very easy.

A MAN or woman who succeeds in life is mentally more energetic, better able to remember, more attentive, less open to evil suggestion, has better judgment and is less liable to brain fog than one who makes a failure of his opportunities. These qualities and a few others of lesser importance constitute the thing we know as intelligence and the quality and quantity of this that we possess is largely determined by heredity. In short, making allowance for favorable opportunity and environment, we will be pretty much the same kind of man or woman as our parents and ancestors have been, and we are then a composite of them. We are liable to suffer from the same emotions as they, and we are liable to obey the same impulses and inclinations, and it is for this reason that habitual crime is really an inherited disease and it is for this reason that the law providing for life imprisonment for habitual offenders is a good one. The tendency toward crime may exist in the presence of a brilliant intellect, as it very frequently does, and we are unable to detect it with any degree of accuracy. The measuring scale to be given further on only determines the intellectual power, that is, the ability to think, to reason, to judge, to adjust one's self to the social requirements of the world around him and to exist harmoniously in it, in conformance to its laws and customs, exclusive of vicious tendencies, which last cannot be detected by the mere grading of the intellect.



Two Models of the Cassell Test. Twelve-year-old children find this test easy to perform.



A is the Fernald test, B the Gwyn triangle, and C the Kropff diagonal. All are used in the make-up examination.



Two Models of the Insect Test. Intelligent six-year-old children can put these pieces back with very few mistakes.



Surgeon L. L. Williams and staff of the United States Public Health Service, at Ellis Island, N. Y. These officers stand guard to our national health, and the colossal piece of preventive medicine carried on by them saves the country untold millions of dollars each year and helps to maintain the high physical and mental standard of our race. The officers of the United States Public Health Service are commissioned by the President in the same manner as are the officers of the Army and Navy, and the scheme of the Service as regards rank, pay, duties, and social life is in general the same.

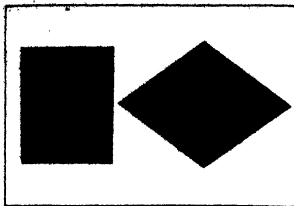
gence. The mental enfeeblement which can be determined by the scale does not take into account the cause of the enfeeblement, which may be anything from alcoholism to actual insanity in the one being tested to those same conditions in one of his great-grandparents—in other words, faulty heredity.

The purpose of our mental measuring scale at Ellis Island is the sorting out of those immigrants who may, because of their mental make-up, become a burden to the State or who may produce offspring that will require care in prisons, asylums, or other institutions. This same measuring scale could, however, be used in industrial enterprises to determine the intelligence, and hence the probable efficiency of illiterate or poorly educated alien seeking employment, and on all others of equal intelligence, such as the negro population of certain parts of the South. One must remember that ignorance is not foolishness, and one of the advantages of the scale here given is its ability to separate the two.

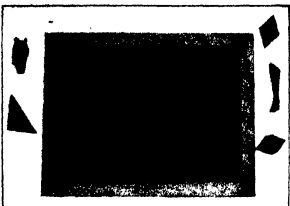
The questions and other requirements of this scale for the various ages were arrived at as the result of experimental and practical work on thousands of aliens of many nationalities and all ages; for instance a large number of 8-year-old children were able to count backward from 20.

Readers interested in statistical tables of experimental work are referred to page 148 Journal of the American Association, March 1914, and the author will furnish copies of this article to those interested.

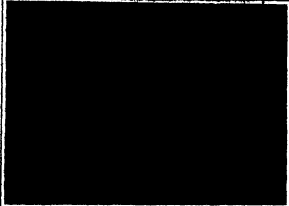
Feature Profile Test. The subject is expected to get the seven consecutive feature pieces in place in five minutes. The feature are engraved on wood.



The Diamond Frame Test. There are six pieces all cut on the bias, which fill the frame evenly. It is approximately a nine-year-old test. It is a most difficult test for anyone to perform quickly if he is laboring under any emotional stress, and for this reason it serves as a useful indicator of the degree of excitation.



The Horse Picture. This is a picture from a child's picture-book, pasted on a piece of boarding. Average nine-year-old children should be able to put these pieces back in 8 minutes, and adults in a correspondingly less time. Defectives often have difficulty in replacing the two right angled triangles, even after considerable practice.



Raglin's Formboard. The formboard is shown to the person to be tested with the pieces out and in a pile beside it. He is told that they all fit in evenly and smoothly in such a way as to leave no extra space unfiled. He is told to put them in as rapidly as he can, and the exam- tuer notes the time required with a stop watch.

to 1 and a large number were able to repeat five figures after the examiner as 7, 3, 5, 9, 2, and it was, therefore, concluded that these requirements were fair to ask of all 8-year-old children. The majority of the cases examined were somewhat below their racial and social average, so that the only criticism of the measuring scale is that it is too easy, at any rate it is eminently fair to anyone tested by it. The idea of using a graduated scale with performance tests for determining the intelligence of illiterate and especially illiterate, upon whom no real honest work had ever before been done, was original with Surgeon Ezra K. Sprague of the Public Health Service, and to him much honor is due for the present efficient methods at Ellis Island.

It will be seen that certain questions are applicable to every year up to and including 13 years of age, and all persons over 13 years should be able to do the 13-year requirements; in other words, for the purposes of examination 13 years is adult or maximum development so far as the scale is concerned. The "mental" age of a given individual is the point in the scale beyond which he can go no farther; suppose for example that a man of 40 years could only do the things that a 9-year-old should do, we would say that this man was but 9 years old mentally, and this is a very common place for the mentally retarded to stop. In fact, a great many tramps such as the one that we make up the "hobo" armies that travel about the country and annoy church gatherings are actually less than this age mentally. They are easily led and influenced.

The personality is an entity apart from a man's intellectual ability so that a fine looking, clean, pleasing, and companionable person may be woefully lacking when one goes beneath the surface. It is necessary

then to find out what that special brain is capable of doing, and we do this by "trying it out" on the various details of the measuring scale. All conditions should favor the one undergoing the examination; the room should be quiet and well ventilated, the temperature should be not over 70; there should not be over three persons present, if the subject does not understand English an interpreter should be used that he thoroughly understands; the examiner and the interpreter should be calm, patient, and kind, the subject should be encouraged, and never told that he is wrong. He should previously have had a good meal, and if possible a bath and sleep. Allowance must always be

any sense of the word, they are simply performance tests of gradually increasing complexity suitable for the various years of mental development up to adult life, and persons over 13 years of age should have no difficulty with any of them, they require a little native ingenuity, constructive imagination and sense of form and some judgment, but not any more than the least endowed of normal illiterate adults should possess, in fact, all should be able to do with considerable facility everything in the scale, and if any man cannot do this he is to be looked upon with suspicion, and I personally would not want such a person attached to any project that I had an interest in, for he might at some inopportune time blow out the gas or turn the wrong switch.

The term "Educated" to be used further on simply indicates the ability to read and write, to persons educated beyond this the scale is far too easy. No tests for 1- and 2-year-olds will be given. The examiner need not begin at the beginning if the person he is testing is able to begin higher.

A Scale for Estimating Mental Defects in Illiterates and Others.

A normal child should be able

At 3 years to—

1. Recognize toys and other simple objects
2. Point to eat, nose, or lips when told to do so.
3. Repeat two figures, as 7, 5, after examiner.
4. Recognize objects in child's picture-books with which it is familiar.

5. Give its full name when asked

At 4 years—

1. Put some pieces in Raglin's formboard. (Above.)
2. Imitate line *a* of cube test. (Center of page.)
3. Repeat three figures as 7, 9, 5.

(Concluded on page 52)



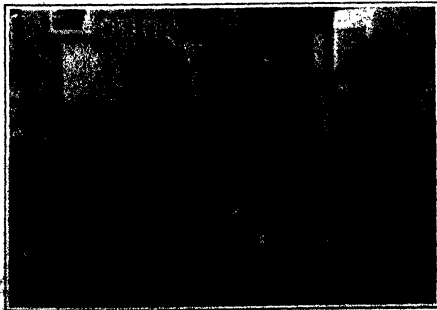
The Moon Section of the Visual Comparison Test. This is composed of fourteen moon-like figures which may be drawn with a pen by the examiner if some little care is used. They should be drawn in two rows of three and two rows of four, as in the engraving. The eyes of four of the figures are made to look to the left, and the eyes of each of the others must be made to look in other directions. The subject is started on the upper left-hand moon, and told to point out the four that are looking toward the (subject's) left.

Cube Test. This test has given satisfaction as a weeding out test in sorting out defectives from large bodies of men where time was a factor to be reckoned with. The cubes are usually painted red, blue, green, and yellow, so that they can be used in testing for color intelligence, and for the reason that they make the test somewhat easier than when it is done with plain cubes of one color. The colors make a command test possible also. O is the actual cube board used, and A is the block used to tap the cubes.

The Envelope Section of the Visual Comparison Test. The designs, given here suggest envelopes, and as in the case of the leaves of the Leaf Cluster Section, the objects used here (envelopes) are familiar to everyone. The principles involved in the use of the Leaf and the Envelope Sections are not all the same for the reason that in the latter there are only four true pairs, the other two odd designs, "2" and "H" while they appear on casual examination to be mates, prove on closer inspection to have a different spacing between the interior lines.

made for fear and mental stress under which the subject may be laboring, and two or more separate examinations on different days may be necessary to accurately determine the upper limit of his ability.

It will be noted that wooden tests are an important part of this measuring scale, they are not puzzles in



A mentally defective immigrant woman attempting to perform the cube test, at 4, has of the cube test, with which she had but little success, having failed to find out of four cubes, the one that was the mother of three children, one of which was defective also, and the other three, while normal intellectually, were, of course, capable of transmitting from him to their offspring.



There is practically nothing in the physiognomy of this immigrant that indicates the gross mental defect that he possesses. The alien is performing, with considerable dexterity, the Raglin's formboard, a task which should not require more than 20 seconds in normal adults. This alien required somewhere from 40 seconds to 4 1/2 minutes, and his performance is not in line with practice and repeated trials.

Temperature in Plants

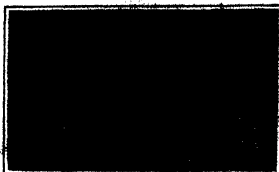
By S. Leonard Bacile

THE question of the degree of warmth which is evidenced in living plants is of great interest. Although the matter is one concerning which our knowledge is by no means complete, certain remarkable facts have been established. In the first place the process of respiration is associated with a considerable liberation of heat. This is commonly illustrated in a simple experiment with germinating seeds, such as peas. A thermometer is placed among the seeds which are starting into life. This shows a distinct rise of temperature, usually about 2 deg. Fahr. when compared with a thermometer whose bulb is not among the germinating seeds. The respiration of the seeds involves the taking in of oxygen and the giving out of carbon dioxide, the same process as that of animals. During respiration a greater or less amount of heat is produced.

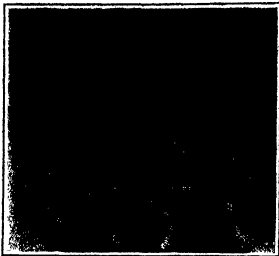
As we ascend in the scale of vegetable life we shall find that the respiration of the seedlings is trifling compared with that of certain plants. At some periods in the development of a plant, and especially in particular parts, extremely high temperatures are produced. The case of the Alpine soldanelles is very remarkable in this direction. It is the habit of these plants to start active growth very early in the spring, long before the crust of frozen snow has disappeared. Yet, owing to the large amount of heat which is liberated by the shooting flower stalks, these are able to bore their way up through the snow just as if they were so many hot wires. It should be borne in mind that the flower stalks are of an exceedingly slender growth, and it is simply owing to the heat they liberate that they can make a way through the snow crust, which is often exceedingly hard. Where the covering of snow is very deep the flowers of the soldanelle often do not reach the surface at all. In such a case they come up in a little cavity, which they then cut in the shape of a dome. Strangely enough, even under these untoward conditions, the blossoms are able to develop their pollen. Certain species of Aroids are remarkable on account of the great heat which they produce in their flower buds at the time of opening. The case of the Brazilian *Monstera deltoidea* is notable. Experiments have shown that inside the spathe of this plant the temperature was 100 deg. Fahr., while the air outside was 78 degrees. Even more astonishing was the case of the *Amorpha*, a common species on the Mediterranean coast. Here when the outside air was registered at 80 degrees, the inside of the spathe showed a temperature of 110 degrees.

Apart from the question of respiration it is known that plants are able to maintain a certain temperature within themselves. Protophytes is killed by extremes of heat or cold, and it is obvious that some means must be taken to prevent a harmful rise or fall in temperature. Here the facts are not entirely understood, but some very fascinating experiments have been carried out. These seem to show that in a general way the temperature of the plant is a fairly stable feature, whatever the external conditions may be. The ordinary temperature of the blood of human beings remains at about 98 deg. Fahr., whether the individual is living in the tropics or the Arctic regions. It is very much the same with plants. The long spells of hot dry weather experienced in Australia are, of course, notorious, but, however scorching the sun may be, the sap of the plants remains cool. It is a common practice in some parts for the natives to cut open the roots of eucalyptus trees in order to avail themselves of the store of water. The method of procedure is on the following lines: The long side roots are laid bare for a distance of 20 or 30 feet, these are then cut into short lengths, from which the water drips steadily. The soil through which these roots are running may be baking hot soiling that the roots are often only about 6 inches below the surface, yet the water which drips out is always deliciously cool. It is quite wholesome and free from any unpleasant taste. Melons and gourds of all kinds are astonishing in their powers of keeping cool, even under the most scorching conditions. The cool feeling of the skins of these fruits is not simply an illusory effect, for, if tested, it is found that the temperature is really much below that of the atmosphere. An accompanying photograph shows a singular experiment in the testing of the temperature of a gourd. The thermometer, in a fairly strong sun, ran up to 110 deg. Fahr., yet the temperature in the interior of the fruit was little more than 60 degrees!

This maintaining of the temperature in the plant is a process which is directly associated with the life of the specimen. The coolness in the gourd only remains so long as it is attached to the plant, when the fruit is cut it rapidly becomes as warm as the atmosphere surrounding it, just like any other object. Of course it is well known that even in an inanimate object a certain coolness may be brought about by evaporation. Thus the water in a porous vessel keeps cool even in a hot sun. This is owing to the fact that the water is constantly passing through the porous sides of the



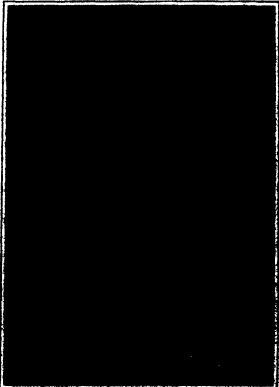
The Alpine soldanelles bore through the snow like hot wires.



Where the snow crust is too thick the soldanelle buds melt out a cavity.



The temperature within the spathe of the Italian arum is very high.



However hot the sun, the gourd remains cool.

vessel, and being turned into vapor. As a consequence the air surrounding the vessel is kept in a cool condition. The moisture in plants cannot be kept cool by evaporation or else during spells of dry weather the sap would disappear, altogether. It is, however, interesting to know that everything we have about plants which shows that dry countries show that all kinds of devices are employed to check and prevent loss of moisture. The loss of water by evaporation through the leaves and the gourd must be very slight, while the heating power of the sun probably hardly transpires in air.

Archimedes and His Lever

By C. O. Sandstrom

GIVE me a fulcrum and a place on which to stand and I will raise the earth from its place!" This is a saying popularly attributed to Archimedes. If the required conditions were possible the feat might be performed, but in addition to providing a fulcrum and a place on which to stand Archimedes would also have to be furnished an indefinite lease of life.

To raise the earth a height of one inch by the force which Archimedes would have been capable of exerting would take not only an extremely long lever, but an extremely long time, as can be readily shown.

We shall assume the following data in our calculation: that the earth is a sphere 7,926 miles in diameter and that 5.5 is its mean density, also that the lever has no weight. Should we design a real lever it would be of such enormous length and weight that Archimedes' weight would be a negligible quantity.

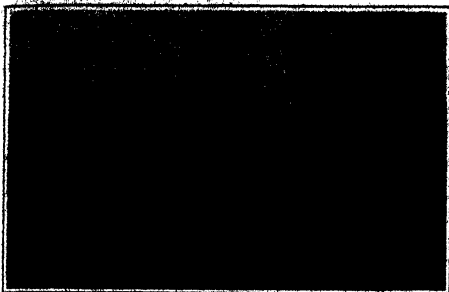
If the earth is 7,926 miles in diameter, the volume is about 261,000,000,000 cubic miles, or 38,460,000,000,000,000,000,000 cubic feet, and if the density is 5.5 the weight per cubic foot would be about 544 pounds, which, multiplied by the volume, would give us the weight of the earth as 13,300,000,000,000,000,000,000 pounds. We shall assume, further, that Archimedes weighed 150 pounds, and that "the place on which to stand" was some distant star; then, if the fulcrum is one mile from the point of application of the lever to the earth, the length of the power-arm of the lever, or the distance of Archimedes' "standing place," would have to be 58,000,000,000,000,000,000 miles. To move the earth a distance of one inch, Archimedes' end of the lever would have to move through a distance of 1,388,000,000,000,000,000 miles. Now, if Archimedes should take hold of the end of the lever and apply his weight of 150 pounds to it, and should move off into space with the velocity of light, or 186,000 miles a second, it would take him 227,000 years to finish the job he proposed, so that now, nearly 2,200 years after making the famous dictum, he would barely have started the undertaking.

Should Archimedes, while flying through space at the above rate of speed, encounter the atmosphere of some planet, the effect would be that of striking a solid, and he, for an instant, would perform the function of a swiftly moving hammer with a very long handle.

Dr. Hall, the Aluminum Pioneer

DR. CHARLES MARTIN HALL, the pioneer in and inventor of processes for the production of aluminum, which made the practical, commercial use of this invaluable metal possible, died recently at Dayton, Fla. Dr. Hall was 51 years old, unmarried, and his home was at Niagara Falls, where the great aluminum plant with which he was identified is located. Dr. Hall was born in Thompson, Ohio, and was educated at Oberlin College. At an early age he became interested in the subject of aluminum, which then was worth twenty-five dollars a pound, and devoted much time to a search for a cheap method of producing the metal from some of the multitude of the sources everywhere at hand; and in this he was successful, for at the age of twenty-two he invented the process based on electrolysis, which, with later improvements, has resulted in reducing the price of aluminum to about eighteen cents. He started to produce aluminum in Kensington, near Pittsburgh, where he was able to turn out fifty pounds a day at two dollars per pound. When the power of Niagara was turned to the production of electricity the possibility of obtaining unlimited current at a low cost led to the removal of the plant to Niagara Falls, where the industry began to grow at an astonishing rate, and the inventor amassed a great fortune, not, however, until after he had died. He was unable to sustain his claims. Dr. Hall received his doctor's degree from Oberlin in 1870, and in 1871, received the Dr. William Henry Perkins Gold Medal. He was a member of a number of the leading scientific societies.

Patrons: Published by the most popular and profitable means publication of the Department of Agriculture, were issued during the last fiscal year in the total number of 14,893,000 copies, which is greater than any other publication in the United States. The new publications in this series numbered 10, and 224 earlier issues were reprinted.

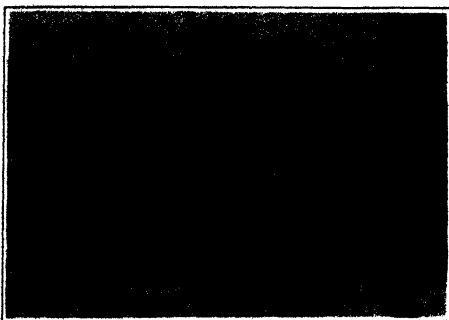


British recruits in bayonet practice on dummies.

Photograph by Underwood & Underwood.



Kitchener's recruits in cross-country drill.



Copyright by International News Service.

An X-ray wagon at a French field hospital.



Copyright by American Press Association.

Searching cotton for concealed arms, with X-rays.



Copyright by International News Service.

German short-range mortars captured in Flanders.



Copyright by Underwood & Underwood.

A bathroom in the French trenches near Solason.



Photograph by Galich.

White Star Line steamship after the German raid.



Photograph by Spert and Ottens.

Havoc wrought in the Grand Hotel at Scarborough by the German bombardment.



Photograph by Spert and Ottens.

Scarborough lighthouse damaged by a shell.

PICTURES FROM THE FRONT

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

These columns are open to all patentees. The notices are inserted by special arrangement with the inventors. Terms on application to the Advertising Department of the Scientific American.

Pertaining to Apparel.

SAFETY HACKETT FOR THROATERS.—C. MILLER, 30 W. Canal St., Newburgh, N. Y. This invention has particular reference to the provision of a novel pocket construction adapted especially for men's trousers. It provides hip pockets for trousers, the openings of which are practically invulnerable against a garment of best appearance.

DRAW STRING.—BETHA CLARK, 228 12th St., Brooklyn, N. Y. In this patent use is made of a draw string adapted to be inserted in the hem of a garment and fastening means attached to the ends of said draw string for fastening the ends together at the end members having resilient means for causing one end of the hem to hold this member against slipping into the hem.

KNIT UNDERWEAR.—J. H. BRADLEY, care of Union Mills, Inc., 377 Broadway, N. Y. N. Y. The invention relates to knit undergarments and is more particularly intended for producing union suit trousers and knickerbockers having a body of comparatively large size, without employing a large machine such as is necessarily required to produce a garment of similar size according to present methods.

COBNET LOCK.—J. SCHOKKE, 2918 34th St., Bath Beach, Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. This invention provides a device whereby a corset can be easily and quickly locked, which device will not accidentally break fast and which will render the corset less cumbersome, as the number of securing means can be greatly reduced, which means, furthermore, when locked will stay in locked position, when unlocked will remain so.

INSOLE.—O. H. BIAN, 241 10th St., St. Louis, Mo. This device is of a type suitable for wear in shoes, boots, slippers and footgear, the purpose of the device being to promote the ease and comfort of the foot, especially where the foot is afflicted with corns, bunions, calluses or other analogous sources of discomfort.

SHIRTMENT.—AMERICA H. WEISS and MARTIN HILGEMAN. Address the former, 121 W. 10th St., Manhattan, N. Y. N. Y. In the present patent the invention has reference to women's wearing apparel, and the object of the improvement is to provide a new garment which can have an apron, wrap-up and street dress and which can be readily and quickly converted from one to the other.

NECKTIE SHIRT.—H. N. ELKROG, 854 W. 14th St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides for effective ventilation of the wearer's body by currents of air being created within the shirt as the name of the device is moved the reinforcing of the shirt being tested by a single strip extending down the body of the shirt at the front from the sleeve to the bottom and covering the upper part of the seam of the sleeve, the seam between the side seam of the shirt and the lower part of the collar and induction of air by the hollow action of the shirt as the arms are moved up and down.

Of Interest to Farmers.

FEED CAN.—G. THIMAN, care of P. W. MARRER, Michigan City, Ind. The invention relates to a shipping case for containing bulk commodities such as eggs, and relates more particularly to a case of that type which oppositely disposed cellular holders combine to form receptacles in which the eggs are individually placed.

FRUIT SEPARATOR.—A. W. JOHNSON, Box 325, Yuba City, Cal. The invention pertains more particularly to apparatus for separating fruit from fruit, such as oranges, lemons and lemons, and the aim is to provide means whereby to accomplish this result without the necessity of a running stream or current of water.

CRATE.—J. F. CARROLL, Concord, N. J. This crate is for use in shipping farm products and the like, and the aim is to provide a crate of a single blank of metal such as sheet steel so stamped as to provide the necessary openings for ventilation and at the same time having sufficient strength and rigidity to protect the contents.

Of General Interest.

OIL SEPARATOR.—W. MCNEILSON, 1302 Belmont Ave., Bronx, N. Y. N. Y. In this patent of the invention has reference to the separation of liquids and has particular reference to an improved apparatus whereby liquids of different specific gravities may be separated primarily by the operation of gravity.

BOX BRACKET.—J. A. O'NEAL, 132 E. 10th Ave., Chicago, Ill. This device is of that type consisting of a plurality of box like jaw-holding units which are hingedly connected together in such a manner that when the bracket is closed it will form a rigid unit which will set on the wrist like a single piece angular bracket, and which, when open, can be strengthened out like a chain.

JACKET FOR HOT BOTTLES.—J. J. SCHWARTZ and L. R. MORGAN, 77 Grand St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a

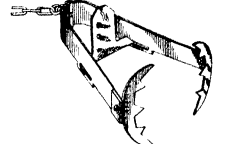
device covering adapted to be detachably secured to the neck of a bottle or jar, and as a protector from injury to a person using the hot water bag without diminishing the efficiency or quality of the bag which jacket, furthermore, prevents a too rapid radiation of heat from the bag and serves so to say, as an accumulator thereof.

HIGH LEVEL INDICATOR FOR LIQUIDS.—LUTHER K. NEITZ and J. O. REISS, address the former 1440 Elbow Ave., Yonkers, N. Y. This invention provides a device which is applied to the vat to warn the attendant when the level is approaching the top of the vat so that with the device in position in the vat, the attendant may avoid or correct this line in any other work until the audible signal is given for the cutting off of the flow.

TREATMENT OF SEWAGE AND TIE LIKE.—N. TAYLOR, 6 Broad Street Place, London, E. C. This invention relates to the treatment of sewage or the like and has for its object to provide an improved process of disposal of such matters allowing of effecting this more cheaply than heretofore, and in some instances without cost. This result is largely obtained by the recovery of valuable constituents of the substance to be treated.

STEEL BARGE OR SCOW.—J. P. KARR, 921 Grace St., Port Wayne, Ind. The invention has been devised and constructed by a man of practical experience has demonstrated to meet all requirements. It is made of plate or sheet steel and its sections may be easily separated together or detached from each other, as conditions require. The joints between the sections are made with rivets, bolts, nuts or equivalent gaskets which render it water tight.

PLANT TRAP.—R. P. ESTRADA, Magda le, Sonora, Mexico. An object here is to provide a trap for the movement of the elevator, the construction being made principally of sheet metal of uniform thickness stamped and bent into the form desired. Another object is



ANIMAL TRAP

to provide a trap including a trigger which will be actuated at great distance from the jaws and is adapted to be sprung either by pushing or pulling it according to the nature of the animal to be caught.

OFFICE DESK.—F. BIANCHI, A. REIER, Madrid, Spain. This desk or table possesses two separate work surfaces which are disposed one above the other and are hinged between themselves in such a way that on drawing forward the lower half the upper one retrocedes, and the invention differs from the prior art in that the tables of this class because on pulling the lower half this latter occupies the original position of the upper half, while the latter is being pushed toward the back of the table is simultaneously lifted.

HAME HOOK.—J. T. TAYNOR, Indianapolis, Ind. This invention has for an object to provide a structure which will prevent the traces from becoming accidentally disengaged when slack. Another object is to provide a hook which will give a direct pull on the hame and which will not become entangled with a collar, springing hook or other attachment when the horses road together.

PRINTING STAMP.—HENRY MERRITT and F. HANKE, address the former care of Pittsboro Rubber Type Co., 126 Fulton St., New York, N. Y. This inventor provides means for altering the operative or reverse relation of the device type and the printing type on the pad, provides means for varying the imprint of the dating type, and provides for simplifying and arranging the elements forming the stamp.

Hardware and Tools.

SOFT LUBRICANT.—E. CHERRY, Alfred Maine. This invention provides means for holding two nuts on a bolt, the one from a rotary movement and the other from a longitudinal movement relative to the bolt. Provides means for locking a nut on a bolt, said means being adapted for withdrawal from operative position and being engaged in a follow-up and provides a follower nut and a relatively slidable member to engage a clamping nut to cut the desired thread thereon as to prevent the rotation of the nut on its bolt.

Washing and Conveying Mechanism for Machines for Washing and Conveying Mechanism.—J. H. KNOX, 1041 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y. This invention has special reference to a washing and conveying mechanism for machines used for washing and drying laundry, paper, and more particularly to a machine which is adapted for effectively washing and drying soiled paper or prints in long or

short lengths and for discharging them on to a platform or where they are dried.

MANUFACTURE OF PIPION PACKING.—F. W. LANCHESTER, 55 Hagley road, Edgmont, Birmingham, England. This improvement consists in a method of manufacturing spruce piston rings, which includes the use of a former of such a non-circular shape, that a ring blank shaped from it, when reduced in circumference, becomes on compression a circular ring of the required finished size.

REPRODUCING MACHINE.—A. ROCK, 3531 Build Ave., Cypress Hills, Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. The object here is to provide a reproducing machine for reproducing statues, relief plates and other works of art, either of the same size as the pattern or of an increased or a diminished size, and without the aid of a skilled artisan.

CONTROLLABLE ELEVATOR.—RAFFETY STOP.—C. R. JONES, Milwaukee, Wis. This invention provides innovative means which can be controlled by the elevator governor or by means that can be manually operated by the man controlling the movement of the elevator. It also provides a controllable safety stop whereby when falling the elevator is gradually brought to a stop.

BOTTLE CAP PADDING MACHINE.—A. JOHNSON, 14 Dunham Place, Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. This invention provides a machine to completely pad and prepare caps by a continuous operation, reduces the factor of manual labor attending the operation of padding caps, avoids injury to the adhesive member employed in the operation of padding, and permits vapors or gases generated in the operation to escape.

HINGE WIRING MACHINE.—A. W. GLOUSE, 209 7th St., Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. This invention provides a machine to completely wire and prepare hinges by a continuous operation, reduces the factor of manual labor attending the operation of padding caps, avoids injury to the adhesive member employed in the operation of padding, and permits vapors or gases generated in the operation to escape.

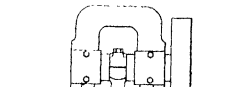
AUTOMATIC MEANS FOR LOWERING LIFE BOATS.—F. T. CLARK, care of Marine Insurance Co., 17 Battery Place, New York, N. Y. This invention relates to ships and has particular reference to means for supporting life boats on the decks of ships, and also for the rapid manipulation of the life boats either for hoisting or launching more particularly in the latter.

COAL WASHER AND GRE CONCENTRATOR.—A. C. CAMERON, Asheville, N. C. The object here is to provide improvements in coal washers and ore concentrators, whereby a novel percussive action is given to the pan to facilitate the separation of the heavier and lighter materials, and to allow convenient adjustment of the parts to suit the nature of the material under treatment.

MACHINE FOR APPLYING LARD HEATERS FOR NAILS.—M. F. THURLEY, 651 Calle Maipú, Buenos Aires, Argentina. The invention relates to a machine designed to staple cold lead bands on the ordinary tacks in order to prevent them from rusting and thereby greatly reducing the danger of rusting in place of the flat plates, galvanized iron, from which roofs, and walls of warehouses, and other structures are formed.

STRAP SHOE.—J. T. ALDER, Erie, Pa. (Canal Zone). The invention refers to extruding machinery and has particular reference to heavy stamping machinery or shoemaking machinery being under the direct control of the dipper man on the beam.

SAFETY DEVICE FOR PUNCHES.—N. R. KATZ, 255 Vine St., Hartford, Conn. This invention relates to power machinery and has particular reference to safety appliances therefor, the primary purpose being to provide



SAFETY DEVICE FOR PUNCHES.

an attachment for a machine punch or the like, having a repositioning part whereby it is practically impossible for the operator to have his hands injured by a movement or impact of the reciprocating part of the machine.

Railways and Their Accessories.

METAL RAILROAD TIE.—W. C. FARR, Marble, Col. This invention relates to railway

equipment and has particular reference to structure for railway ties. Among the objects of the invention is to construct a railway tie principally of metal and provided with easily separated and reliable rail-shouldered ends.

AUTOMATIC TRAIN STOP.—W. A. FIER, 1006 Corning St., East Oak, Iowa. The present patentable device has reference to an automatic train stop, and the object of the improvement is the provision of means for automatically applying the air brakes and closing the sliding door when the engine of a train leaves the track.

DOOR LOCK.—M. T. HAZARD, Box 24, Buford, N. D. An object here is to provide an instantaneous lock which will draw the door slightly against the door post when the lock is made to engage the post. Another object is to provide a door lock which will not be affected by the vibration produced by the movement of the car.

MAIN-ROD BRASS.—F. A. BROWN, Oakdale, Tenn. This invention produces brass of the form making unnecessary the use of separate liners usually employed; provide a brass having a steel core and when so operated bedded therein and essentially integral therewith, provide a form of main-rod brass having an integral bearing member and provide a strengthening liner that will hold the parts of the brass in position should brass become broken and provide a form of brass having strengthening liners so formed and disposed therein as to make the mating brass reversible and interchangeable.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

AUTOMOBILE SIGNAL.—G. W. RABINOWITZ, Box 100, Lawrence, N. Y. The invention relates to improvements in signal device for automobiles, and has for an object to provide a structure adapted to be operated from the seat of an automobile and when so operated will throw out or move out an arm to one side at the rear of the automobile.

ELEVATING TRUCK.—J. M. CHAPMAN and E. C. COVAN, care of the latter, with The Essex Bell and Paper Co., Holyoke, Mass. The present invention relates to elevating trucks which are utilized to raise and transport various articles of considerable weight which are supported a sufficient distance from the surface on which they stand by the placing of the lowered truck therebeneath, for instance, staves, rails and the like.

SHOCK AMBROUR.—M. M. SCHWARTZ, 404 E. 12th St., Manhattan, N. Y. N. Y. This is a new mode of a support mounted on the free end of the axle spring, a cylinder supported



SHOCK AMBROUR.

on the free end of the vehicle body spring and partly filled with a liquid, a piston movable in the cylinder and provided with a resilient aid support, and a spring interposed between the said cylinder and the said support.

COMBINATION SKEIGH AND WHEELER.—VEHICLE.—W. W. WATTS, 432 Rural Ave., Wilmamport, Pa. The invention relates to a vehicle provided with running wheels, and with single runners rockably mounted on the vehicle to take positions beneath the wheels, to convert the vehicle into a sleigh, or to a raised position when the vehicle is to be supported on its wheels.

VEHICLE WHEEL.—J. HEMMELICK, Delaware, Ohio. This invention relates to vehicle wheels and more particularly to automobile wheels. It provides a wheel having a demountable rim. It also provides a metallic rim having concentrically resilient spokes removably associated with the fully and hub.

NOTE.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the Scientific American for ten cents each. Please send for complete patents, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

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- 2 Repeat six figures, as: 0, 9, 2, 5, 7, 3.
- 3 Of a simple story of five details remember at least three.
- 4 Tell difference between tree and glass, the feet of horses, cows, and dogs, or other objects chosen from the subject's experience.
- 5 Give an intelligent account of occupation for the past year.
- 6 Concrete subtraction of simple numbers from 10, as 10 eggs — 8 eggs = ?
- At 12 years:
 - 1 (If educated.) Test the person in the spelling of such words as he commonly uses. Then have him give the multiplication tables from 4 to the table of 8, inclusively.
 - 2 See Concrete test in 5 minutes with sensible mistakes if any.
 - 3 Test abstractions, as: "A man walked down the street swinging a cane with his hands in his pocket." "Man cut into ten pieces, suicide?"
 - 3 Sylogisms, as: "I am taller than my mother. My mother is taller than my father. Which of us is the tallest?"
 - 4 Story solution, as: "A man was walking in the woods and he saw something hanging from a tree that frightened him, he ran back to his village and told the police. What did he see?"
 - 5 Concrete subtraction of simple numbers from 20, as 20 cents less 4 = ?
 - 6 Divide twenty apples into four equal parts, how many will be in each?
- At 14 years:
 - 1 (If educated.) The degree of education must be ascertained and questions improvised that will tend to show how much the man profited by his education and, in short, whether he was intelligent or not as ought to be.
 - 1 Do Feature Profile test in 10 minutes
 - 2 The picture of a ship posted on a board and cut into ten equalized pieces of the same shape, should be properly assembled in 10 minutes. The pieces are all cut vertically into ten equal parts.
 - 3 (If they cannot do it.)
 - 4 Problem "My head is to my hat as my hands are to my ————." (gloves)
 - 5 Define Justice, pity, truth, goodness, and happiness.
 - 6 Complex factors in concrete addition, as: "1 horse and 1 man how many legs? 1 horse and 1 man and 1 chicken? 2 horses and 1 man and 2 chickens."

Make-up tests for adults.

These are to be used on those who, judged by their features, are subnormal, but not less than 7 years old mentally.

- 1 Put the four pieces into Gwynn's "triangle" three times in 45 seconds
- 2 Put the pieces into Kempf's "diagonal" inside of three minutes
- 3 Put the pieces into Kempf's "diagonal" inside of five minutes.
- 4 Count 90 dots, each about $\frac{1}{8}$ inch in diameter, arranged in ten parallel lines
- 5 Give an intelligent and connected account of the technicalities of the previous occupation.
- 6 Permit the subject to choose a topic about which he says he is familiar and allow him to discourse on it at length (If this is done well and the subject uses more than 100 words in his description the examiner should be particularly sure of his ground before certifying the case.)
7. The Ink-blot Imagination Test.

The Make Up tests are used a day or two after the first examination has been conducted in order to find out whether the subject is really as he could or whether the poor showing was due to indifference, fright, or possibly fear or intelligence. The tests used at the first examination can be used also, but they are no longer real tests to that particular man because he has already seen and worked with them.

To illustrate the working of this test

reading scale of intelligence and to demonstrate how an American business man could wreat out the worthless and very often dangerous mental weaklings from his service the writer will cite the case of a certain American business man, one of the thousands of defectives that have been handled by the United States Public Health Service at Mills Island. It is to be supposed that this scale should be of particular value in the industries at this time when all the workers are being widely tested. It is actually seen to be founded scientifically upon work done upon insanity. Investigation has shown that they are frequently the cause of serious and expensive accidents, and the immigrants immediately connected with those accidents are frequently of the same type. It is worthy of note that mental defectives are among the least efficient in well known.

A rather attractive looking illiterate alien, aged 20, was held on suspicion of being mentally defective because he added poorly, a brief examination revealed the cause of his ill reading. The scale was different for him, and that he made many mistakes in counting from 20 to 1, and could not count from 20 to 1 by 2s at all. He was accordingly detained, and on the following day he was followed by the scale given here with the following result. He counted from the line, 100, 90, 80, 70, 60, 50, 40, 30, 20, 10, 0 (No 6) of the 8-year requirements (refer consequently to the scale for the age requirements), No 5 of the 9-year ones, Nos. 2 and 3 of the 10-year requirements, and No 6 of the 11-year requirements. Now, since these are the requirements for the 10-year age line, he did not successfully, and he did without error five of the requirements of various years above the 7-year tests, he was rated by us as 7½/7 years mentally by the scale, and in reality he was flattered by this rating. To give him credit for the line, the Cubes only, he failed again on the following day, at which time he only did creditably one of the requirements that he had before failed on, and that was No 3, counting from 20 to 1, of the 8-year one. Out of the Make Up tests he accomplished No 1 fairly well, and No 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100. He was certified by us as "feeble-minded" and promptly deported by the Immigration Department. This man would have been one of the first to obey a walking delegate or to commit an outrage punished by someone else. We would have been glad to have had him, but otherwise would have been one of the

The War Experiences of an Air Scout

(Continued from page 11)

I stated that, through my inability to speak the French language, I would be of little or no service to the French government. He communicated by telegraph with the Minister of War, who, a week later, on November 22, took action and wired me that I was to be sent to the front. I left for England at once via Boulogne, to Folkestone and London, where I visited the War Office of the English government and made application for appointment with the Royal Flying Corps.

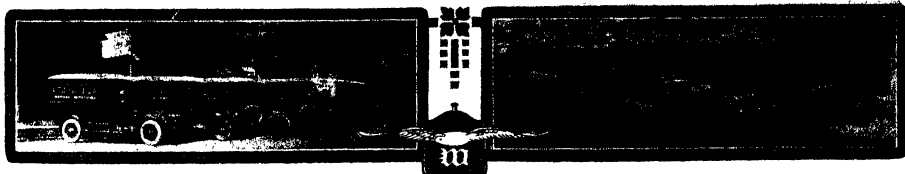
Under date of November 19th I received the following communication from the War Office.

"With reference to your letter of the 7th instant, I am directed to inform you with regret that there is no vacancy in the Royal Flying Corps, in which your services could be utilized.

"I am, however, glad to have decided to transport to America, and booked passage on the steamship 'Australia,' which arrived at New York on November 27th.

The French Aeroplane Corps.

In my nine-week stay in France I have noticed many things. In the United States we imagine that the French possess the largest and best flying corps in the world, and that they are the best of the world conditions. They possess about one in ten of the machines that are claimed for them. Pilots like Vedrines are begging for machines; but Vedrines, being but an ordinary soldier like myself, is shown no preference, and those officers who have participated in the war are given the machines. Some first and get the best machines.



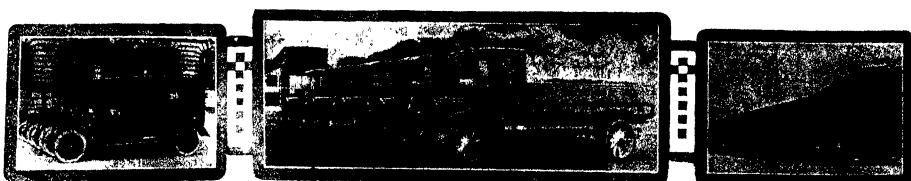
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DIVER LEAVING A SUBMARINE TO PLANT A MINE.—[See page 66.]

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The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

Unjust Criticism

WE can least of some achievements in the field of transportation in the United States, and among these the most remarkable, at least from the standpoint of safety, is the enormous number of passengers which have been carried year in and year out on the subway system of New York with out any fatalities or even serious accidents. There is nothing in the whole world to compare with the record for safe travel over this underground system, as witness the fact that during the last nine years of its existence the subway carried over 2,000,000,000 passengers with the loss of but a single life. In fact, the first fatality in this time was the loss of one passenger in the recent short-circuit trouble to which so much attention has been given in the public press.

We have no wish to minimize the seriousness of the recent situation, when the burning out of the cables filled the subway with acrid smoke and subjected several hundred passengers to the danger of asphyxiation. It is undoubtedly true that it was largely owing to a combination of favorable circumstances that there was not a considerable loss of life. At the same time we feel that common justice calls for a protest against the unmitigated criticism to which the operating company has been subjected because of this accident, and further that we would protest against the endeavor which has been manifested in some quarters, to make political capital out of such an every-day occurrence as the short-circuiting of an electric cable—something which in the present state of the electrical art seems to be unavoidable.

Even in such a highly developed art as that of electrical transportation, evidently there yet remain certain lessons to be learned, certain improvements to be made. The obvious lesson of this accident is that the manholes in which the splices of the main cables are located should be absolutely walled off from the subway, so that, in the event of a short circuit, the resulting heat and smoke may escape to the outside atmosphere through gratings or other means at the street level.

The most that can be said, it seems to us, is that the construction used was an error of judgment; certainly, in view of the marvelous record for safe travel which the subway company has achieved it is grossly unfair to make the charges of criminal carelessness and indifference which have been so freely heaped about in the public press and uttered in public officials. That no less than eight weeks of investigation into the matter should have been set on foot is ridiculous. The question of this accident and its proper remedy is purely a technical one, and the proper judges in this matter are the experts of the Public Service Commission and of the company which operates the subway.

THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN holds no belief for the Interborough Company, in fact, during the earlier years of the operation of the subway, we were not sparing in criticism of certain features which we believed were faulty and called for drastic remedy. At the same time we cannot but feel that, in the matter of this recent accident, the press and much of the public seems to have lost entirely their sense of proportion. The fact

has been entirely overlooked that the one fatality which occurred took place after almost years of the fastest, the most congested and the safest transportation of vast bodies of people, under conditions which reflect the highest credit upon the skill and caution and vigilance of the operating company.

Having recognized these indisputable facts, let every man be taken to prevent any possible repetition of a similar disaster. It is desirable, where long stretches of subway occur in which there are no speedy exits to the street and no means of riding the subway quickly of harmful gases, to provide, as early as possible, both means of ventilation and means of escape. Additional facilities should be provided to enable the trainmen, in the event of fire or other accident, to communicate at once by telephone with the fire and police departments and with the proper officials of the company. Incidentally, the accident has drawn attention to the advisability of the fire department's being equipped with an adequate supply of smoke helmets for use not merely in such contingencies as a fire in the subway, but in fire of any character which may occur throughout the city.

Industrial Capitals as Factors in War

WHEN war was declared between Germany and France in 1870 the Parisians surged through the boulevards shouting "On to Berlin!" and in Berlin doubtless the cry was "On to Paris!" Truly, except from the pen of the newspaper writer, but pressed for matter, no such talk is heard; for the day has passed when possession of an enemy's political capital was the decisive factor of the war. Probably, in spite of the rush of Von Kluck's army almost to the gates of Paris, the objective of the German army in the western theater of war was, first and last, the mobile field army of the Allies. Once these were routed, captured, or dispersed and demoralized, the remainder of the German task in the subjugation of France would have been comparatively easy.

Similarly, in the eastern theater of war it is the breaking up, decimating, and surrounding and capturing of the Russian field army that is the objective of Von Hindenburg and his staff. Not only would the taking of Warsaw fail to end the war, but it would have only a temporary effect upon its fortunes. Nor would the capture of Moscow bring Russia to terms any more to-day than in the days of the great Napoleon.

The primary objective of the Allies, both of the French-British armies in France and Belgium and of the Russian hosts in Poland, is of course to achieve the annihilation of the German armies, but the conditions of modern warfare, with its admirable system of intelligence by aeroplane and spies and the wonderful mobility conferred by motor traction, has probably shut out from the councils of the general staff of the allied armies any expectations of the general capture or dispersion of the unduly efficient German army.

What, then, is the Allies' objective? If it is not Berlin, the political capital, at what particular point or points are Joffre, Kitchener, and Nicholas aiming with a view to bringing about a decisive conclusion?

To answer that question we must bear in mind how greatly the conditions have changed in Germany since the war of 1870. At that time Germany was an agricultural country which was witnessing the beginning of that industrial development which, in the succeeding forty years, has been the wonder and admiration of the whole world. In the interval the centers of resources and industry, particularly as related to a machine-made war, have been shifted, and they are to be found at opposite ends of the German Empire, namely, in the huge aggregations of mineral wealth and countless manufacturing which are gathered in Essen and in the neighboring cities, and also in the rich mining district of Silesia. Should Silesia be overrun by Russia and should the allied French and British forces drive their way through into Silesia, Westphalia and take possession of the war works, it would be as if they had taken the seat of the great sources of supply of the munitions of war and the means of transportation would be closed for the German army; and not all the acknowledged bravery and endurance of the German soldiers would avail if the great arsenals for the output of artillery ammunition and the vast coal fields for the supply of fuel to the troop trains, to say nothing of the steel works from which come the steel parts for renewals of the military automobile service, were in the hands of the enemy.

So far, then, as the operations on land are concerned, the objective points of the Allies are, Breslau and Silesia for Russia and Westphalia for the Franco-British armies. So varied have been the fortunes of war in Poland that it is impossible to make any prediction as to the course of events out there. In France and Belgium it looks as though a turning point had been reached, at which the German offensive was about to be transformed into a powerful defensive. To reach even the Allies must fight their way across an average distance of 250 miles of most strongly entrenched and

as is certain to be the main line, that best-placed and defended country. Judging these the decisive objective of the German troops and the extraordinary work of their war staff, it is not likely that the Allies even in the event of a successful offensive, can expect to reach Westphalia before two and one half years of severely contested fighting have passed by.

A Plan for Scientific Methods

SCIENCE is perhaps the most important of all man's works. It would seem that man has given birth to a monster under than himself, which reaches upward into icy altitudes where he cannot live and stretches down to the unsavory grime of a certitude which lies deeper than all his hopes and desires. Perhaps there is something sinister about this monster. It has shattered man's simple pride and shattered his comfortable faith. And what are its compensations? For more than two thousand years have men groped after scientific knowledge, have spent laborious lives, ay, and suffered martyrdom, in the service of this most detached of all man's occupations. As a result we have achieved modern civilization, the very glorification of flaming virtues and bestial vices, of a few men with power surpassing that of Caesar, with knowledge surpassing that of the old-time gods, and of millions who toll ceaselessly and hopelessly, driven by fear, with their priceless potentialities scotched from birth; the faintest adumbrations of what they might have been. And on the continent of Europe the nations who have reached the topmost pinnacle of this scientific civilization are slaying one another in hosts greater than any known before in the history of the world.

Knowledge has not saved us; we are no better than our fathers. The old fierce instincts still rule, but nevertheless, if man is even to achieve the least of his dreams, he must play the greater part. The very nature of man is a contradiction. Together with his recently acquired and comparatively weak desires for tolerance, charity and universal fellowship, are those barbaric old impulses, the legacy of innumerable brutal ages, which, after smoldering through many peaceful years, have now flamed out in mad destruction over more than half the world.

The brute in man took a long time in the making; these turbulent emotions have come down to us from very far ages; a few generations of noble thinking affect these old passions very little. We must have faith and patience. In the presence of this upheaval we are too prone to think that science has done nothing that really matters, nothing beyond adding to man's material comforts, building up a heartless civilization, and giving man greater powers of destruction than he ever wielded before. But, indeed, science has done more than that. Scientific knowledge is perhaps of little worth where the great things of life are concerned. Innumerate hatred and bloody wars are evidently not avoided by learning that the earth is round, that air is a mixture of nitrogen and oxygen, or even that the universe may have four dimensions. But although the promulgation of scientific knowledge does not greatly alter a man, there is more hope in the promulgation of scientific method. A man who habitually thinks on the scientific method learns a fairness and restraint which is one of the most promising things in the later development of mankind. The hysterical outbursts of some scientific men over this war indicate merely that they keep water-tight compartments in their minds and that they fail to practice the scientific method consistently. The scientific method is very simple; it consists in believing no more than the facts warrant and in divesting one's self of national prejudices.

Whatever our sympathies may be, we often get a very hopeless feeling after reading some European writers. It is then that we realize the advantages of the scientific method. It might not be so free and picturesque as their own methods of thought, but it would at least prevent their writers as ready prey to an endless series of biases. How on earth can a man regard the whole German nation as made up of devil incarnate? It is exactly this fiercely partisan, hopelessly false, and unscientific Silesia frame of mind which made the war possible. A permanent world-peace will never be possible until these screaming "patriots" of all nations are either eliminated or else reduced to an unduly low standard of sanity. This means that a large part of mankind has to undergo a spiritual change, and the supreme value of science lies in this, that it is a living, irrefragable testimony to the efficacy of scientific method, and the steady promulgation of scientific methods of thought among mankind is the best means of effecting this spiritual change. We are hardly at the dawn of things. Science has achieved nothing compared with what the future holds for it. We have learnt a few items of information, it is true—but that is not science. All the treatises on all the "ologies" are merely by-products. Science is a method of thought, and its importance lies in this: a method of thought means a method of life.

Science

Ship Outside of Battery. It may be longed for in many places for coasting ships' bottoms. The poisonous nature of the mercuric iodine prevents the growth of sea plants and other organisms which foul the ship bottom and cause the vessel to lose speed.

The Association of Official Agricultural Chemists has decided to establish a quarterly journal, which will contain the proceedings of the association's annual convention. From 1885 to 1912 these proceedings were published annually by the government as bulletins of the U. S. Bureau of Chemistry, but this plan has been discontinued.

National Bird Reserves.—According to the last annual report of the General Land Office, the national bird reserves now number 67. Three of these were created during the last fiscal year; viz., Anaho Island, in Pyramid Lake, Nevada, the home of the white pelican; Smith Island, in the Strait of Juan de Fuca, Washington, the roost of wild ducks and geese and many migratory shore birds which have been devastated by pot-hunters; and Blackbeard Island, off the coast of Georgia.

Motion Pictures in the Department of Agriculture.—The U. S. Department of Agriculture now maintains its own motion-picture laboratory for producing educational films on agricultural subjects. Several of these have been exhibited to farmers and other audiences by the agents of the department in connection with lectures. This laboratory has also co-operated with the Panama-Pacific Exposition Board in taking and developing subjects for other branches of the government, including the Bureau of Education, the Treasury Department, and the Smithsonian Institution.

Revegetating Kodiak Island.—The eruption of Mount Katmai, Alaska, in June, 1912, covered the agricultural and grazing lands in the neighboring island of Kodiak with a heavy blanket of volcanic ash. Experiments in revegetating this land, carried on by the agricultural experiment station at Kodiak, have made such progress that the government herds of fallow deer which have been returned to the reservation in the island. It has been found that wherever nitrogen is added to the volcanic ash or where the lower rich soil is mixed with the ash excellent crops can be raised. A special plan for mixing the ash and soil has been devised at the Kodiak station.

Weed Males a Man See Green.—A very interesting case is reported of a soldier, in a recent engagement, being shot in the forehead, a bullet passing out of the back of his head without killing or even stunning him. He remarked "Everything seems green all round me," and when in the hospital tent he still perceived that he saw everything green. This case appears to favor the old theory of color vision of Dr. Edridge-Green, the shock to the brain having altered the discriminatory apparatus so that the impulses caused by green rays had a preponderating influence.

Research Fellowships.—To extend and strengthen the field of its graduate work in engineering, the University of Illinois has since 1907 maintained ten Research Fellowships in the Engineering Experiment Station. These fellowships, for each of which there is an annual stipend of \$500.00, are open to graduates of approved American and foreign universities and technical schools. Appointments to these fellowships are made and must be accepted for two consecutive collegiate years, at the expiration of which period, if all requirements have been met, the Master's degree will be granted. Not more than half of the time of the Research Fellows is required in connection with the work of the department to which they are assigned, the remainder of the time being available for graduate study. Nominations to fellowships, accompanied by assignments to special departments of the Engineering Experiment Station, are made from applications received by the Director of the Station each year not later than the first day of February. Additional information may be obtained by addressing the Director, Engineering Experiment Station, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

A Manual of Weather Forecasting, to which a number of officials of the U. S. Weather Bureau will contribute the results of their experience in this kind of work, is now in preparation, according to the last annual report of the Weather Bureau. This is undoubtedly a greatly needed work, since the technique of weather prediction, as practiced by meteorological services, has never been reduced to writing, and has perhaps not been fully formulated even in the minds of the forecasters themselves. A preliminary contribution to this subject which the Weather Bureau has just published is a voluminous series of charts with descriptive text, by Messrs. Boyle and Whittaker, entitled "Types of Storms of the United States and Their Average Movements." The Bureau is also gradually putting in tangible form this knowledge gained by its officials in the forecasting of floods and river stages. Rules for the preparation of flood forecasts for the Mississippi at St. Louis and for the Susquehanna at Williamsport and Harrisburg, Pa., have recently been formulated and put into practical use.

Automobile

Motor Street Sweeper Saves Money.—The city of Houston, Tex., reports that the use of motor vehicles in sweeping and flushing its streets has resulted in a saving of \$1,000 per month. The work formerly was accomplished by means of 20 mules.

65,000 Motor Trucks in America.—According to the latest figures obtainable there are at present 65,000 commercial motor vehicles in use in the United States, representing a cash investment of about \$16,000,000. The two largest users are the American Express Company with 750 cars, and the Adams Express Company with 850 machines.

Spring Wheels on Masses.—An average of 35 patents on spring wheels for motor cars and trucks have been granted per month, since early last year. Not in several years has the crop of inventions along this line been as numerous as at present. About one out of twenty gets a real test, and less than one out of a hundred survives the trial stage. There are at present ten spring wheel designs in commercial use, four of them being offered also in New York city. The rest are born, reared and die with unfailing regularity.

A Self-adjusting Piston Ring.—Packing the pistons in an internal combustion engine is not an easy matter, and many are the plans made to circumvent the necessity of continually adjusting and packing loose pistons. A novel type of piston ring has been invented by a Boston manufacturer, in which the use of radial holes serves to equalize the pressure between the piston and inner surface. The piston rings have a slightly conical shape, which causes them to be forced tightly against the cylinder walls during the compression stroke, when the tendency of "downward crowding" is at its highest.

Muffling Exhaust by Turbine Wheel.—A new form of muffler for the exhaust gases of automobile and aero-plane engines has just been brought out by a Rochester firm. It consists of a small turbine wheel which is rotated rapidly by the impinging exhaust gas, breaks its force and converting the explosive noise into a slight hissing sound. Part of the gases are caught by a baffled plate, but the back pressure caused by this is so small as to be almost negligible. There is no loss in power from the motor, and the inertia of the revolving wheel assists in driving the exhaust gas from the pipe and manifold, even after the force of the piston movement has passed. The device takes a smaller space than the ordinary baffled plate muffler.

12,000,000 Tires a Year.—The average man has but a vague idea of the enormous extent of the automobile tire industry in the United States. There are at present in road numbers 1,000,000 automobiles in the country, and not one of them can possibly get along without more than 4 tires a year. As most of them use much more than that, the most conservative estimate must place the number per car at 6 tires a year. This would be 6,000,000 tires. In addition there are scheduled for manufacture during 1915 not less than 600,000 new cars, which must be fitted with at least 2,400,000 new tires. A total of 12,000,000 tires, or at the very least considerable figuring. In reality the number is much greater, even though a million or more tires are "re-treaded," fitted with "covers," etc. Taxicabs and some of the high-powered converted racing cars could not possibly get along with less than 20 tires a year. The money spent for tires in 1914 in the United States alone probably exceeded \$200,000,000.

"Rolls" Falls to Make Good.—For some time past the press of the country has been deluged with sensational reports about a new and wonderful fuel for internal combustion motors that surpassed gasoline in efficiency and could be produced so cheaply that the price of motor fuels would be cut to near the vanishing point. The statement is now given out that because of its apparent lack of practical commercial value, the "Rolls" which was the subject of the Indianapolis experiments, has been dropped by the group of men who were interested in its exploitation. It is stated that among the difficulties encountered was that the naphthalene component, which gave it that moth ball smell, crystallized out in the feed pipes, thus choking the flow of fuel.

Co-operation in Road Building Matters.—One of the results of the Road Congress held at Atlanta was the action taken for the formation of the Association of State Highway Commissioners and Engineers. This is an association of the practical men who build the highways, and as it is recognized that the question of good roads is not in any way local, but one whose interests extend from State to State, the confederation of such men may be expected to be productive of much mutual benefit. Preliminary steps for the formation of such an organization were taken, to be perfected at a future date. At the annual meeting of the American Highway Association, held at Atlanta, Fairfax Harrison was elected president, Logan Waller Page vice-president and Lee McClure treasurer. A number of directors were also selected.

Astronomy

Astronomical Telegrams.—The European war put an end, for the time being, to the work of distributing telegraphic news of astronomical discoveries, heretofore carried on by the Zentralstelle für astronomische Telegramme at Kiel, Germany. It is now announced that this work has been assumed by the University Observatory at Copenhagen, under the direction of Prof. Elis Strömberg.

Another Astronomical Bull.—The last number of *L'Astronomie* furnishes a piquant addition to the long catalogue of astronomical "bulls" which that journal has recently been collecting. It appears that one of a series of paintings representing the life of Mahomet, exhibited at the last Salon, and entitled "The Tomb of the Khalifa," shows an evening sky in which the crescent moon, correctly oriented, has a brilliant star between her two horns. The idea was borrowed from the Turkish flag, which, however, does not always show the star in this impossible location.

Proper Motion of Nebulae.—Dr. Heber D. Curtis, of the Lick Observatory, has recently given a preliminary account of the results obtained from comparing a large series of nebular photographs made with the Crossley reflector twelve to sixteen years ago, with a similar series now being made with the same telescope. In this interval changes due to motions of translation or rotation in the nebulae are not appreciable, or, at most, exceedingly small. This applies to several large irregular nebulae, including the Orion nebula, and to several prominent spirals, including the great nebula in Andromeda. It is inferred from these observations that the nebulae in question are enormously remote, and therefore, of course, enormous in size.

Variable Brightness of a Comet.—Interesting fluctuations in the luminosity of comet K. 1914 were observed by M. Chofardet at the observatory of Besançon. Although after May 10th, 1914, the comet was receding from the earth, its brightness was estimated as of magnitude 10.5 on May 22nd, and of magnitude 9 on June 10th, while the head had increased in angular diameter from 30" to 40" seconds to 2 minutes. On June 20th the brightness appeared to have again diminished, but heavy weather made this observation uncertain. The above observations were confirmed by those made at Uccle by M. van Biesbroeck, who, after noting the normal diminution of the comet's brightness with increasing distance up to May 15th, was surprised to find a marked increase on June 3rd, when he estimated the magnitude as 8.5.

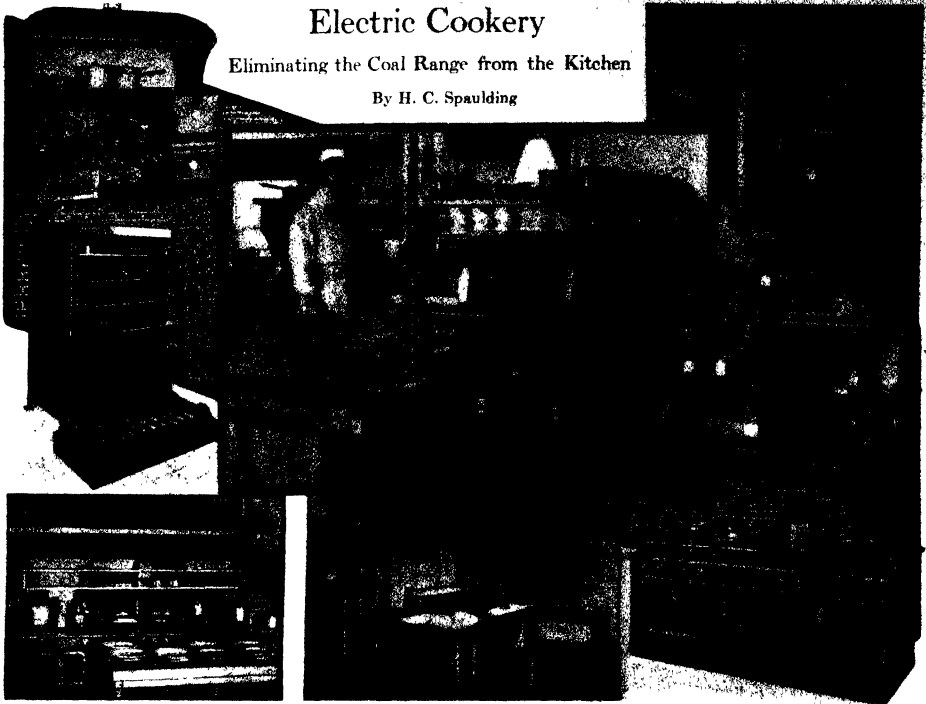
Stereoscopic Photographs of Comets have yielded interesting results at the hands of Prof. E. E. Barnard, who has applied this method to the study of Comet Morehouse, of 1908. Series of photographs of the comet made on the same date in various parts of Europe and at the Yerkes Observatory were available for stereoscopic combination, and from the resulting series of stereographs, extending over a period of several hours, it is possible to interpret certain curious changes in the appearance of the comet's tail. At one time the tail was abandoned and drifted away into space, where it formed an irregular ring, from which a secondary tail, in cylindrical form, was developed. Soon after, the nucleus sent out a new tail which appeared to connect with the old one, but which the stereographs show to have really passed behind the latter at a considerable angle.

Radio Time Service.—The last annual report of the U. S. Naval Observatory records the increasing importance of the radio time signal which the observatory sends out twice daily, at noon and 10 P. M., via the naval radio station at Arlington. The signal is distributed broadcast over the continent east of the Rocky Mountains and over most of the North Atlantic Ocean. A case is mentioned in which a merchant vessel sailing from New York checked its chronometers daily by this signal until within 600 miles north of Rio Janeiro, or 4,250 miles from Arlington. The noon signal is also sent by radio from New Orleans and has been used to check Key West, while in the case of breakdowns at Arlington the stations at Newport, New York, Norfolk, and Charleston are directed to send the noon signals. In case of an appreciable error in the signal it is corrected by sending it again one hour later. The mean daily error in transmission during the last fiscal year was 0.035 second, and the maximum error 0.36 second, or less than a change of rate in the standard sidereal clock resulting from recent overhauling. The number of small radio sets for receiving the time signals in use throughout the country by watchmakers, jewelers, colleges, etc., is increasing rapidly. A point requiring investigation is the lag, or difference of time, between the transmission of the signal and its arrival at a distant point. This lag sometimes amounts to 0.3 second. In view of the increasing use of the signals for astronomical and other purposes requiring high precision, the installation of more up-to-date sending apparatus is desirable, and a system of return signals should be arranged in order to ascertain the exact time of receipt of the signals. The observatory wants a special appropriation from Congress.

Electric Cookery

Eliminating the Coal Range from the Kitchen

By H. C. Spaulding



Substituting electric for coal heat in private and public institutions.

1 Electric range in a private residence. 2 Baker's electric oven. 3 Range in a school at Middlebury, Conn. 4 Kitchen of the Engineers' Club, Boston. 5. An electrically equipped laundry. 6. Kitchen of the United States dreadnought, "Texas." 7. Range in a Colorado hotel. 8. Electric range in house of the Great Republic, Boston.

EVEN in these days when electric toasters, percolators, blenders, etc. for table use are an old story, comparatively few people realize to what an extent and on how large a scale electricity is being adopted for cooking purposes, not only in small or moderate-sized households in which the safety, convenience, and uniformity of electrical methods would offset a possible increase in cost over coal or gas, but in public and private institutions where the cooking must be done in large quantities and at first thought the use of coal or gas (with live steam when available) would seem to make for final economy.

Apparently the science of electric cookery is today (speaking from an economic standpoint) just about where electric street railway operation was some twenty-five or thirty years ago, a recognized possibility, of which those familiar with results already obtained were most sanguine for the future, but of which the public at large was skeptical, and inclined to consider in the light of an interesting experiment for which the manufacturers did not yet must foot the bills.

Fortunately, for the public welfare, the development of electric cookery methods has in the very nature of things been more gradual and based on more carefully and broadly obtained data than was the case in electric railroading, and at the present time its assured place in household and civic economies seems to be mainly a question of publicity and of the minor improvements inevitable in the evolution of any line of apparatus intended for general public use.

An interesting fact to be noted in this connection is that we in the United States are far behind our friends across the water in this particular line of progress and that "over here" our Western States are, as a rule, far ahead of the Eastern in their readiness to "do it electrically."

Of course the widely varying rates for current are to a great extent responsible for this, although this variance is far from being accounted for in many locations, where, as was the case in the early periods of railroad and telephone development, it seems to be the policy of certain interests to follow public demand instead of to anticipate it, or even meet it half way. When we

realize that the cost of electric current in some parts of this country is about four times what it is in others for electric lighting and approximately eight times for cooking, it is not to be wondered why this difference exists and whether it is due to geographical or (local) financial conditions, especially as in some parts of England the rate for current used for cooking purposes is only about one-fifth of the minimum rate here in America.

The explanation obviously involves so many considerations that it is beyond the scope of this article, but briefly, the difference in cost to the consumer is mainly due to (a) geographical and (b) governmental causes.

In certain localities the development of large water powers has made possible hydroelectric installations which are furnishing electric current at rates which would be impossible where fuel must be freighted, stored and used under ever-varying conditions.

By "governmental" causes we mean primarily taxation methods, which vary in a degree almost unbelievable by those who have not made a special study of the subject. In one instance, that of a central station in one of our largest cities, the total amount of taxes paid is almost exactly equivalent to the net cost of current generated and delivered at the station bus bars—and this is under a "normal" (?) administration.

The average consumer does not stop to consider that the price charged him for current represents (a) actual cost of generation, interest on plant investment, taxes and insurance, (b) distribution, including leakage (engineering and financial), superintendence, etc., and (c) administration cost, including executive, engineering, legal expense, etc. However, it would seem, in spite of the possibilities for future development, that electrical cooking methods have become an accomplished fact so far as the average household is concerned, since recent investigations on the part of a non-prejudiced authority showed that more homes in the United States use electric current than are provided with running water, and wherever electric current is installed electric cooking is a logical and inevitable result.

In public institutions, most of which have their own "isolated" plants, economic considerations are of still

greater importance. The current required for cooking purposes is almost entirely an "off-peak" load, and when properly combined with lighting, refrigeration and general power service shows an evident economy over distinct functional operation.

One peculiar feature of electric cooking, aside from safety (no matches, no leaky pipes, no open but unlit valve cocks) is that in cooking meats, fish, fowl, etc., whether baked or broiled, the actual loss in weight or "shrinkage" is much less than when the cooking is done by coal, charcoal, or gas.

As a result not only is there a saving in "bulk," but the food is much more palatable, since the natural juices and flavors of the meat are retained instead of going up the chimney or venting pipe in the form of vapor, representing a definite economic loss.

That electric cooking on a large scale is no longer an experiment but on an economical as well as practical basis is evidenced by the decision on the part of the engineers of one of the big western trunk lines to use electrical equipment throughout in the kitchens of a new \$300,000 station, no coal whatever being used in the building except for general heating purposes.

Now as to cost: A favorite unit basis with writers on this subject (and their name is legion) for comparing cooking expense is the "kilowatt-hour at ten cents per." Without attempting to explain what a "kilowatt-hour" is, suffice it to say that your bill for current is based on the number of them used, just as the gas company charges so many "cubic feet" of gas, as shown by the gas meter, at a certain rate.

No one ever saw a cubic foot of gas and no one ever saw a kilowatt-hour of electric current, but the bills and checks representing them are as everyday as soap.

Very good. The price of these commodities varies all over this big country of ours, for instance within the scope of this article, but any reader can find out for himself or herself just what the charges would be for his home (note the simple abbreviations) and figure out the cost to himself or herself of various alternatives from the following data based on a previous year, which is actually in force in many of our large cities and

(Continued on page 65)

Where the Smoke Helmet Would be Invaluable

A Lesson from the New York Subway Fire

When disaster in the New York subway tunnel, where some hundreds of hapless people escaped death by suffocation from smoke and scalding fumes entirely by good luck, causes a shudder to the whole country in regard to our measure of public safety for which but little provision has been made. Of course subways are not uncommon, but what occurred in New York is but an exaggeration of what might happen in many other localities on a smaller scale, and whatever human life is concerned it is well to take thought for its preservation in advance.

In the New York disaster hundreds of passengers in the trains that were caught in the tunnel were rendered unconscious by the smoke and fumes of the burning insulation of the feed cables that carried electricity for supplying power and light to the trains and stations, and their rescue from their dangerous position was slow and rendered difficult because the atmospheric conditions in the tunnel prevented the firemen from reaching these helpless people promptly, and many of the firemen themselves were overcome and required the aid of the pumpmotor, which undoubtedly saved many lives. That the casualties were so small was entirely due to the fact that the accident occurred at a point where the subway tunnel was very close to the surface, where a number of openings to the upper air were available; but had it happened at some of the deeper points, probably not one of the fifteen hundred or more passengers in the trains stalled near the point of the accident would have survived.

The lesson of the disaster points most forcibly to the necessity for some device that would enable rescuers, whether firemen or others, safely to penetrate dense smoke and efficiently to carry on the work of rescue. Such devices, generally known as smoke helmets, are by no means unknown, and are in common use by the fire departments of many foreign cities, as well as by a few cities in this country; but in the present case it is the astonishing fact that not a single smoke helmet was available, although the New York fire department is supposed to be one of the best equipped in the world. Why such a condition should be permitted to exist it is impossible to ascertain, but it is known that this department has in a casual way considered the subject of some device that will permit its men safely to penetrate thick smoke in confined situations, but nothing definite has developed.

That the New York fire department should take such an apathetic attitude in this matter is the more surprising, as the reports of almost every big fire in the city contain mention of firemen being overcome by smoke while engaged in the performance of their duties, and in some cases we read of firemen being laid out in rows on the sidewalk, where remedial treatment was applied. As long as this indifference to human safety was confined to members of the paid department the public has assumed that such things were unavoidable, or at any

rate all a part of the day's work of a fireman; but since the dramatic incident in the subway people are realizing that it is a subject that is of vital interest to them, and undoubtedly movements will result that will compel the New York fire department to properly equip itself for the saving of life as well as saving property.

As originally organized, all fire departments were in-

regular use of this means of enabling their workmen to safely conduct operations where dangerous acid fumes exist. In refrigerating plants pipes containing liquid ammonia under great pressure sometimes give way, and except for the use of a protective helmet which enables a workman to enter the unbreathable atmosphere and either repair the damage or close the necessary valves, the establishment might be shut down for an indefinite period and the entire neighborhood endangered.

Passing over the very numerous instances abroad where these life-sustaining devices have been in successful practical use for years, we have a splendid example of what can be done in this direction in this country in the mine rescue work organized by the U. S. Bureau of Mines. When an explosion occurs in a coal mine there is always dense smoke, great quantities of noxious gases, with heavy clouds of stifling dust, conditions precisely as bad as existed in the subway fire, but by the use of protecting helmets and apparatus carried on the shoulders of the rescuer, which supplies fresh air, it is possible for a man to enter the most unwholesome passages and save lives that only a short time ago would have been surely lost long before the shafts and tunnels could be cleared of the foul gases and fresh air substituted by the ordinary means. This is not a theory, nor an experiment, for the Bureau of Mines has established a large number of rescue stations at which these helmets are the principal piece of apparatus, and some thousands of miners have been taught to use them; and this organization is constantly saving lives, and has a long record of rescues that meets any argument against the value or the practicability of the device. This record also plainly demonstrates that apparatus of this kind can be successfully used by men of ordinary intelligence and under unusual and trying conditions. These smoke helmets, of which

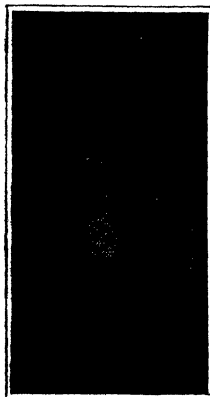
there are quite a variety, usually take somewhat the form of a diver's helmet, although they are of very light construction, as it is only necessary that they keep out smoke and gases. In some cases, where the atmosphere to be encountered is not injurious to the eyes, only a small cone covering the mouth and nose is used, but for general use some sort of a hood that fits closely around the shoulders and is provided with a window and connections for receiving and discharging air is the favored form.

For providing the wearer with air there are several systems employed. The simplest, which is quite extensively employed by fire departments, and which serves its purpose quite well under simple conditions, consists of a light close fitting hood with a slight window, and having a large tube of airtight cloth that extends down close to the floor where it gets a supply of moderately fresh air, for in a fire it is well known that the heated

(Continued on page 76)



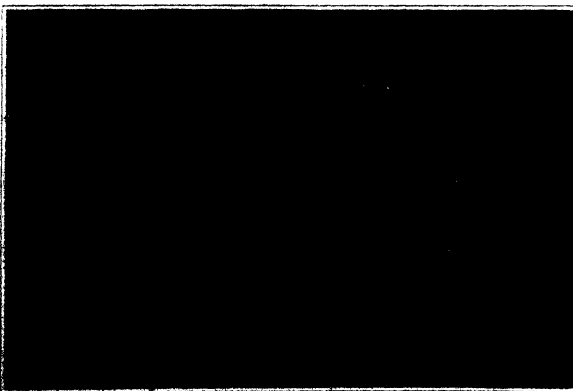
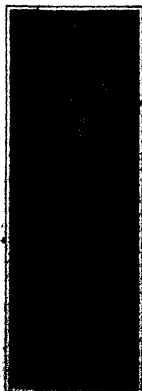
Breathing device for use in coal mines.



Type of helmets used in German fire departments.

tended to be protectors of property only, but the frequent presence of human beings in burning buildings compelled the firemen to extend the scope of their duties and activities; and although the title of such a city department has never been changed, the saving of life has come to be such a recognized function that the firemen are now always called upon as a rescue corps in every case of disaster. Under the circumstances it would be logical to plainly recognize the modern position of the organization and call it the Department of Public Safety, equipping it accordingly.

Devices that enable men to enter places filled with dense smoke and noxious gases and remain for considerable periods of time have been known for many years, and although they undoubtedly have not reached their ultimate development, there is no question but that there are several on the market that are entirely practical. Indeed, many private commercial establishments, such as chemical works and refrigerating plants, make



Rescue station belonging to one of the Rescue Stations established by the U. S. Bureau of Mines entering a gallery after an explosion.



Smoke helmet, showing intake near floor.

Disastrous Burnout in a Subway Manhole

Lessons that Are Taught by the Accident

A SERIOUS short circuit occurred in the power cables of the New York subway during the morning rush hour on January 6th, which set fire to the insulating materials surrounding the cables, liberating large volumes of smoke and gases that asphyxiated hundreds of passengers in trains stalled in the immediate vicinity. That only one death resulted was due to good fortune rather than any special provision for such an occurrence. It was the most serious accident that has ever occurred in the subway system of New York and it has focused public attention upon a defect that has existed ever since the line was built.

Power System of the Subway

The power for the subway system is generated in a large plant at Fifty-ninth Street and Eleventh Avenue. From here alternating current is transmitted to substations at a tension of 11,000 volts, through cables carrying from 5,000 to 5,000 kilowatts (1,000 to 6,700 horse-power) each, at the substations the power is converted into direct current and transformed to a tension of 630 volts. From each substation, low-tension cables carry the current to the subway, where it is delivered to the third rail at stated intervals. Unfortunately, the subway system has no independent right of way for its transmission lines, except for the short cross-town lines running from its various substations and from the main power station. Hence, the subway itself is used to carry the power lines. They are placed in conduits behind the subway walls.

The main high-tension cables come to the subway at Fifty-eighth Street and Broadway and thence run north and south. At various points, where they run out of the subway line to the respective substations, manholes or "splicing chambers" are provided, and here low-tension cables from the substation enter and turn north and south to feed the power rails. Cables are also carried across the subway to splicing chambers on the opposite side. Not only are splicing chambers provided at the junction with conduits leading to the substations, but also at intermediate points, because it is impracticable to make and handle the heavy cables in lengths of more than 500 feet. The splicing chambers may be entered from the subway through a doorway normally closed by a steel door lined with asbestos, and in most cases they can be entered through a manhole from the street as well.

Cable Insulation.

In electric power transmission we have the curious anomaly that we must depend upon highly inflammable material to prevent fire. The matter has been studied for years, but so far no insulation has been developed that is fireproof and yet waterproof and flexible. Feed cables cannot be introduced into conduits unless they are flexible. The usual high-tension cable construction consists of a multiplicity of copper wires imbedded in a mass of paper or rubber insulation, the paper being treated with some compound to exclude air and moisture. Over all is a lead sheathing to protect the insulation from injury and from climatic conditions.

No matter how carefully the cables have been constructed this insulation is liable to give out at some time. There may be a slight injury to the lead sheathing which would admit moisture. There might be a slight imperfection in the insulating body during the process of manufacture. Deterioration is very apt to set in, and some day when the insulating qualities are sufficiently weakened an excessive current passes through the cable there will be a complete breakdown—the current will jump from the core of wires inside to the sheathing outside.

Every month the cables of the New York subway are tested by subjecting them to a current three times as great as they are normally adapted to carry, so that if there be a weak spot anywhere it will be discovered. Every effort is exerted to make the splices electrically much stronger than any of the rest of the line, but it is at such points that breakdowns are most apt to occur. The main enemy of insulation is moisture, and for this reason there are ventilating gratings in the doors opening from the subway into the splicing chambers.

Nature of the Short Circuit.

It was in the splicing chamber on the west side of Broadway at Fifty-third Street, where the cable lines connect with the Fifty-third Street substation, that the accident occurred. That what was the cause of the short circuit no one knows and no one ever will know. Short circuits may occur several times in a month and again not once in a year, but in such case the evidence is entirely consumed and one is left to guess at the probable cause for the breakdown.

In the opinion of the subway engineers it was probably one of the low tension cables that first gave way, because the arc produced by direct current is apt to be

more sustained. When this cable gave way, whichever one it was, it melted out adjacent cables. Those in turn were short-circuited and set fire to the rest of the cables successively. The system being thus electrically unbalanced apparently threw an excessive load into cables on the opposite side of the subway and they also were short-circuited. It was all a matter of a few minutes, but the insulation continued to burn and send off large volumes of smoke and gas which passed into the subway proper.

Automatic Circuit Breakers.

There is an automatic provision for cutting off the power in a cable system whenever there is an excessive flow of current. A relay circuit is acted upon inductively to energize an electromagnet. The armature of this magnet closes another circuit which operates a circuit breaker in the substation or power plant, thus automatically throwing off the power.

The object of these automatic circuit breakers is not so much to prevent a short circuit, for they could not do in the majority of cases, but to protect the apparatus at the substations. An enormous amount of current passes through the cables and in case of short circuit an arc could be maintained, which would do a great deal of damage without drawing enough current through the cables to operate the circuit breaker.

In each splicing chamber there is also an apparatus which may be operated by hand to throw off the power. Whether the power was cut off automatically or by hand is not clear at the present writing, but after a number of the cables had been short-circuited all the power of the entire subway system was cut off and the subway was plunged in darkness.

Subway Lighting System.

Although the subway is lighted by a separate transmission system from that of the third rail, the cables coming directly from the power plant and not from the substations, yet in this emergency, the lighting cables, being adjacent to the power cables, also gave way.

The cars themselves are provided with emergency lighting from batteries, floating on the line, so that they are normally kept charged with sufficient current to keep the lights burning for three hours. They are arranged to light the lamps automatically when the other lamps are extinguished, but for some reason, as yet not clearly determined, some of these lighting systems failed.

Fire Escapes and Emergency Exits.

To provide ventilation for the subway, there are blower fans at intervals situated in ventilating chambers. These also ceased operation as soon as the power was cut down. That there was an appalling death toll is attributable to the ventilation chamber at Fifty-fifth Street, whence there was an exit to the street by way of a ladder. Fire escapes of this sort are provided between all stations from City Hall to Columbus Circle except between the Grand Central and Thirty-third Street stations.

Conclusions.

As a result of all these conditions the following conclusions may be reached, although they are subject to modification when the investigations which are now being conducted have been pursued to their end:

First: There must be no communication between the splicing chambers and the subway proper, or of course the question of properly ventilating the chambers is involved. Many of them are not wide enough to be safely walked off from the subway, but would have to be enlarged or suitably reconstructed. In some places, for instance, the subway is far underground and a shaft 50 feet deep would be required to provide access to the splicing chambers. The mere provision of a door between the splicing chamber and the subway, even though there were no ventilation opening in it, would be inadequate, because the explosive effect of a burnout would burst them open.

Second: The subject of lighting. Panels cannot be arranged in a simple lighting. It has been hinted by the Public Service Commission that it might be advisable to light the subway from an entirely separate transmission line, possibly from the street lighting circuits, thus keeping the lighting cables far removed from the power cables and running them into the subway at frequent intervals, so that, in case of a failure at one point, at most only a small section of the subway would be darkened.

Third: The provision of fire escapes. In no public buildings, where such large numbers of people assemble as are to be found in a single subway train, are there such inadequate emergency exits. There should be fire escapes at more frequent intervals and these should consist of broad stairways rather than mere iron ladders wide enough for one person to ascend at a time. In the

new subways that are being planned the ventilating chambers situated between stations will be provided with stairways four feet wide to serve as emergency exits. In the case of the East River tubes these should at least be cross passages from one tube to the other.

Fourth: Ventilation. If it is necessary to provide a separate lighting system, it is equally necessary to provide separate circuits for the ventilating fans, for with the ventilation (which is not of the best at any time) cut off, the danger of asphyxiation is very great in a system where perfectly all the inflammable material is of a type to give off dense, choking fumes.

Fifth: Fireproof cars. We hesitate to think what horrible results might have attended the stalling of a wooden car within the reach of the blowout. We understand that the promise to eliminate all wooden subway cars very soon has already been given.

Sixth: Communication with stalled trains: It would not be a difficult matter to install a telephone system which could be tapped at any point by the conductor of a train, enabling him to get into touch with a dispatcher and obtain immediate and direct instructions in an emergency. Too much reliance is now placed in the individual judgment of the conductors and guards.

The Sun "Drawing Water"

WHEN beams are seen radiating from the sun, especially when they are directed toward the horizon, the sun is said to be "drawing water," and this phenomenon is popularly regarded as a sign of rain. Probably most children, and perhaps a few grown-ups, have fancied when looking at this pretty spectacle that the lines of light and shadow converging toward the sun were actually streams of vapor which the luminary was sucking up from the earth and which would presently condense into clouds and showers. This is not so, however; the result of the passage of sunlight between clouds already formed. The dark lines are cloud-shadows; the bright lines, sunbeams made visible by the presence of dust or drops of water in the air—like the sunbeams seen in a dusty room. The beams and shadows are really parallel, their apparent convergence or divergence being the effect of perspective. As a rule, the hazy condition of the air that renders the beams visible indicates an active condensation of moisture, and therefore has some value as a prognostic of rain, though, like other local signs, it often fails.

A phenomenon of similar origin is often seen when the sun is below the horizon. In this case a fan-like sheet of beams is seen spreading upwards. These of course alternate with the plink of the western sky at sunset, or the eastern sky at sunrise. The morning phenomenon gave rise to the classical description of the "roo-fingered dawn." The technical name of these fan-like beams is "crepuscular rays." A rarer phenomenon is that of "antiparallel rays," which appear to converge toward a point on the horizon opposite the sun. Crepuscular rays are sometimes called "diverging beams," and antiparallel rays "converging beams," though the expressions "diverging" and "converging" are necessarily relative terms.

One of the most picturesque legends connected with the solars beams is that told in the islands of the South Pacific, where the beams are known as "the ropes of Maui." It is related that in former times the sun-god, Ra, was not so regular in his habits as he is today. In fact, he caused the South Sea Islanders much annoyance by coming in the morning, or at noon, or at other inconvenient times, just when his light was needed for the daily tasks of mankind. The great hero Maui undertook to make him of this erratic habits, and the first step was to make the sun's journey across the sky more regular by laying a series of six sacred ropes of strong coconut fiber, along the sun's path in the sky. When the deity next rose from Aitika, or the land of ghosts, the first rope entangled him, but slipped down and only caught his feet; the second slipped too, but caught the sun-god's knees; the third caught around his hips. Still Ra proved so slow, scarcely hastened by these contrivances. The fourth rope tightened around his waist, the fifth under his arms, and finally the sixth and last caught him around the neck and almost strangled him. Then the sun-god confessed himself vanquished, and in fear of his life, promised Maui that he would in future adjust his daily journey more in accordance with the comfort and convenience of mankind. He was then allowed to proceed on his way, but Maui prudently declined to take off the ropes, which may still be seen hanging from the sun's path, and when he descends into the ocean at night. These are the legends say, when they behold the beams radiating from the sun, "Tie to Tere a Maui"—the ropes of Maui.

A New Whole Wheat Flour

By Charles Marzani

THE theory of modern flour-milling has been from the beginning to separate the flour substances contained in the wheat from the less easily digestible shell particles. It is interesting to ascertain the reason for this practice and why it is that the contents of the entire grain, as provided by nature, are not used for making flour and bread.

In this connection we have to consider first the prevailing idea that bran is unsuitable as food for human beings, and particularly for bread-making, because of the indigestible qualities of the bran. Moreover, there is the indubitable drawback that the public demands white bread. To meet the tendency in this respect, it has been necessary to "improve" the natural color of flour by artificial means, and, as a result, flour is often treated by chemical processes, such as bleaching. The facts referred to above are the principal reasons why bread made of white flour only is still on the market. But as soon as the bran is rendered as digestible as ordinary good flour I feel confident that the preposterous demand of the public for white flour will come to an end.

Hygienists and millers well know that the most nutritious substances of the wheat kernel are contained in the hulls and not in the four body. Therefore our main task is to render the nutrients of the bran digestible. Attempts have been repeatedly made in this direction and have resulted in the production of various kinds of bread which, however, are far from being wholly digestible. Consequently, the assertion of hygienists that bran is only a burden to the stomach still prevails. In consequence of this theory, the whole amount of bran has been put aside as unserviceable as food for human beings. This is all the more regrettable when we realize that this abandoned four contains more nutritive substances than all other portions of the grain. Bran is now used mainly as food for animals, but since there are many waste products from other sources which could be used for this purpose in place of bran, it would be much more important to make it thoroughly available for men.

This important subject, dealing with the chief food for human nourishment, has been under investigation and discussion for a long time in Europe by hygienists and chemists. Some time ago, Prof. Dr. Finkler of the University of Bonn, Germany, placed on the market his newly invented process which solved this problem in a most remarkable manner. Prof. Dr. Finkler ascertained that a perfect digestibility of the nitrogen in the bran could be attained if all the gluten cells of the bran were broken open and the albumen exposed. This effect could not be brought about by the ordinary comminuting processes, for, as mentioned above, even the most thorough grinding and pulverizing could not produce a complete breaking up of the gluten cells. Prof. Dr. Finkler's process for rendering the bran-flour as fully digestible as white flour is carried out by the application of special machines. However, as this bran-flour does not possess enough starch it has to be mixed with white flour, usually in the proportion of 25 per cent bran-flour and 75 per cent white flour, for making bread. It will be seen that in this bread all the substances of the grain are utilized and in their exact ratio.

An analysis of this bran-flour shows that it contains approximately

	Per Cent.
Albumen	18
Starch	45-55
Grode fiber	7-12
Fat	3
Ash	7

It will be seen from the above statement that this bran-flour is a very nutritive product because of its contents of albumen, fat and salts (ashes). This flour is, of course, almost identical to raw bran as regards the chemical characteristics, but there is, however, a great difference between albumen enveloped by the cell walls and liberated albumen, as to the digestibility and solubility. The true importance of Prof. Dr. Finkler's process lies in the fact that the albumen contained in this new flour is rendered as easily digestible as the ordinary white flour.

The reader will be interested in knowing something about the bread made with this flour. The bread is loose and contains no trace of particles that feel gritty between the teeth; it is therefore entirely dissimilar to the old-fashioned whole wheat breads. Since the bread itself no longer contains any coarse bran-particles it does not excite the taste, only a very small percentage of the particles of the outermost shell can be detected by means of a microscope after the consumption of the bread. Owing to its pleasant taste, I am sure that the bread will be eaten willingly.

The technical side of this invention has been so well explained that it will be no way interfere with the eating of bread-making systems. It will only be necessary to convert the mills, as it comes from the mills, to the wheat-machines used for carrying out this process in

order to realize a product as finely ground as the ordinary white flour. After mixing about 25 per cent of this bran-flour with 75 per cent white flour, and following the usual baking procedures, a bread furnishing more nutrients to the body and easier digestible than the bread made of ordinary white flour will be attained.

I earnestly hope that the people will realize why they should extend a hearty welcome to this new whole wheat bread which is particularly good and contains an especial nutritive value, because it is prepared from the entire grain, as God made it.

Hunger Strikes an Aid to Good Health

By Maude DeWitt Pearl

RECENT scientific experiments will come as a surprise to the skeptical individual who scoffs at the numerous dietetic fads which, within late years, have been exploited in various magazines and which demand, as a preliminary stage in the treatment, a period when no food is to be eaten.

Prof. Carlson of Chicago University, whose work upon the digestive system is so well known, may be regarded as having settled definitely any doubt as to the beneficial effects of abstaining from eating for a period of time and to have proved that this fasting is not due solely to enthusiasm for a cause, as many maintain. It must be said, however, that he and his co-workers did not go to the extreme, as is so often the case with the faddist, but endured starvation for only five consecutive days. Furthermore, they were both in good health when they began the experiment. Aside from the fact that they slept in the laboratory at night, in order to facilitate making the records, they lived their regular lives, teaching and lecturing throughout the five days.

The original experiment was to investigate the hunger contractions of the empty stomach. For the purpose

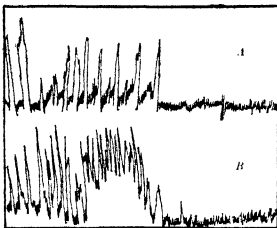


Diagram indicating the contractions of the empty stomach during the last ten minutes of a typical hunger period.

A, tracings made ten hours after a meal. B, tracings made after five days' starvation. Note the increase in the frequency and strength of the contractions in B.

of recording such contractions, Prof. Carlson used a rubber tube to which a rubber balloon was attached. The person upon whom the records were to be taken swallowed the balloon. A chloroform manometer, which was attached to the tubing at the other end, recorded the frequency and strength of the contractions. Previous experiments have shown that the normal stomach is never in a state of complete rest, but is, there will be a period of strong contractions, the hunger contractions, followed by a period when the contractions are very feeble. The starvation records showed that there was an increase in the strength of the stomach contractions as well as in the frequency of the hunger periods, as the fasting was prolonged. During the night both the strength and frequency of the contractions were more pronounced than during the daytime, the records showing that during practically half the time the stomach was begging for food.

The sensations of hunger which were experienced and the hunger contractions of the stomach did not accompany each other, for after the first day and up to the end of the third hunger was continuous and severe, but on the fourth and fifth days the desire for food became greatly diminished. In the case of Prof. Carlson, his appetite remained good, but he found it fairly easy to dismiss from his mind the thought of eating. His assistant, on the other hand, did not find the sight of food at all pleasurable, but experienced a feeling of nausea. As would be expected, both of the men felt somewhat weak and depressed mentally toward the end of the experiment, but much of this disappeared after the first meal and was entirely gone by the second or third day after normal eating was resumed.

While these results are of interest to all, yet of far greater general interest are the after effects of the starvation experiments. To quote Prof. Carlson: "The

writer felt as if he had had a month's vacation in the mountains. The mind was unusually clear and a greater amount of mental and physical work was accomplished without fatigue. In the writer's own case the five days' starvation period increased the vigor of the gastric hunger contractions to that of a young man of 20 to 25 (the age of the professor is about 38), and the empty stomach retained this increased vigor for at least three weeks after the hunger period, when observations were discontinued, owing to absence from the university. This improvement, or rejuvenation of the stomach, is not a matter of subjective opinion, but a matter of objective record on the tracings." While many centuries have passed since man has become a civilized being his physiological constitution is undoubtedly little altered from what it was in distant ages when, because of his primitive methods of living and his inability to cope with climatic conditions, he was forced to endure periods of hunger. Because of this he was undoubtedly in better health than his descendants.

Prof. Carlson does not maintain that starvation is a cure for ill health, although he believes that "there is more value in some of these measures than is ordinarily considered," but he does think that very possibly, in the case of adult healthy persons, not only would they experience a general feeling of invigoration if they underwent hunger strikes with their digestive systems, but that possibly their length of life might be also increased.

Drop Head, a New Ailment

By Dr. Leonard Keene Hirschberg

HAVE you ever heard of *Kubisagari*? Ask the next hundred or two doctors whom you meet, especially medical society physicians, what this word signifies, and you will be amazed to learn how few know about it. *Kubisagari* is an old disease discovered by new doctors. It is a malady which occurs in two small districts of North Japan and on the Franco-Swiss frontier.

A few instances of the disorder have been discovered in England and Canada, but no physician as yet in this country has found one example, although there are possibly hundreds of them in large cities in America.

Kubisagari means *drop head*. The dropping of the head forward, to the side and backward is one of the noteworthy symptoms.

A young Japanese doctor who had just settled in a country district in the north of Japan found one day at his door a peasant with his head bent forward on his breast.

"What do you desire?" asked the young doctor.

"I have drop-head," he replied.

"What is drop-head?" asked the doctor.

"Why, our whole village is filled with this trouble," he replied.

The doctor at once became interested and reported his studies to Dr. L. Couchoy, who gave them to the world, so that other physicians may know similar instances of the trouble in their country.

The important and striking symptoms of *Kubisagari* or drop-head are exhaustion and flaccidity of various muscles.

Muscles of different parts of the body lose their tone very suddenly. This takes place particularly when the body is brought into action and the muscles come into play. The eyelids also become affected and dizziness with vertigo occurs.

Milkmen and milkmaids, while milking the cattle, abruptly find their hands become numb and useless. The head falls forward against the cow, and the victim falls over against the cow or he rolls over on the ground. Dr. Gierler is the one to whom has fallen the honor of finding the first sufferers in France. He noted first that the muscles of the fingers relaxed rapidly. Each spell, he says, lasts ten minutes. Sometimes they last longer, and run into each other and fuse.

Fatigue and excessive muscular exertion seem to be responsible for the origin of the attacks. The afternoon and night seem to be the most susceptible periods. The whole illness lasts about five months. Those who work around cattle, poultry, cats, horses, and especially milk and stables, seem to be particularly associated with the affection.

Dr. Couchoy has gone even further than any of the other investigators. He has found the cause of drop-head or *Kubisagari* to be a little dot-shaped cocoon or larva. It is found in the spinal fluid. If this fluid is inoculated into the same disease comes into being. In brief, the cat eventually falls ill with this affliction.

They are now at work in an effort to find an anti-toxin or vaccine to cure and prevent the little-known trouble.

Commander E. R. G. Frane, R. N., who was second in command of Scott's Antarctic expedition, and who recently lectured on the expedition in the United States, has just been appointed to command the torpedo-boat destroyer "Viking."



The mines are planted below the warships by a diver, who makes his exit through the trap-door of the front compartment. They are so placed that at a given hour, in a certain state of the tide and current every ship will be above a mine-field. The firing cables are led to the submarine, which detonates the mines simultaneously.

Mine-planting by submarine.

Submarines That Are Strictly Invisible

A Type That Can Pass Through a Mine Field and Attack a Blockaded Fleet

By Simon Lake

IT has been well established that submarine boats should be divided into two classes, one, a torpedo boat with no high surface and submerged speed as it is possible to attain, with a large radius of action, capable, if possible, of exceeding battleship speed when on the surface so that it may intercept a battle fleet on the high seas and submerge in its path of approach before being discovered; the second class should consist of smaller, slower speed, mine-laying submarines, with torpedo and mining and counter-mining features. Such submarines are essentially defensive, but if they have sufficient radius of action to reach the enemy's harbors and to lie in wait off the entrance to such harbors, or to enter submerged the harbors themselves and there destroy the enemy's craft, they have become potent offensive weapons of the rolling fleet. For a European power it is relatively easy to give such boats the radius necessary for them to invade an enemy's ports.

I have not pushed the consideration of the submarine of the second class, with its anti mine features, because I have been kept busy trying to profitably meet the wishes of the various governments which demand constantly increasing speeds at a surface of some characteristics which I personally regard very highly. Most governments have been more attracted to vessels of the first class, as speed in all classes of vessels more than anything else seems to appeal to the imagination; but I think it may be the old story of the "Tortoise and the Hare" over again, and I refer to the recommendation of a special board, appointed in 1903, recommending the purchase of a number of Lake type boats for the defense of our own coast as a proof of this contention.

As regards the first class of submarines, the present submarine boats engaged in the continental war consist of vessels only a few of which have a surface speed exceeding 12 knots or a submerged speed exceeding 10 knots for one hour or 8 knots for three hours. There may be a few in commission that exceed these speeds but very few. Some are in course of construction that are expected to give a surface speed of 17 and 18 knots for forty hours and about 11 knots submerged for one hour at a slower speed for a greater number of hours.

Governments are asking for bids for submarines of greater speed, and some have been designed which are expected to make 20 knots on the surface. How-

Simon Lake, the inventor of the even-keel submergence submarine torpedo boat, which in its ship-shaped form with double hull and buoyant superstructure, a form covered by Mr. Lake's patents in the United States and adapted in principle by the United States, Russia, Austria, Germany, and Italy, is of the opinion that the full capabilities of the submarine boat have not even yet been fully realized. Mr. Lake has developed a great variety of submarine vessels for various commercial purposes, as well as for war, and he is well qualified, because of his great variety of submarine experience, to discuss the possibilities of the submarine in warfare.—EDITOR.

ever, none of them are in service as yet. One reason that higher surface speeds have not been reached is the difficulty of securing a perfectly satisfactory high power, heavy-oil, internal-combustion engine, suitable for submarine boat work. As soon as a proven satisfactory heavy-oil engine is turned out by the engine builders, capable of delivering 5,000 horse-power per shaft, submarine boats may be built capable of making up to 25 knots on the surface.

The largest heavy-oil engine so far built for submarine boat work develop about 1,300 horse-power per shaft, but rapid progress is being made, and I believe that 25-knot submarine boats will be laid down within the next two years. Even this high speed, however, will not fulfill the destiny of the submarine, which, in my opinion, is a weapon destined to promote peace

between maritime nations by making it impossible for one nation to invade or harass the coast line of another nation where submarines exist, and by making it impossible for the enemy to leave their own ports or harbors with an invading army or armed vessels.

The submarine, even at its present development, has shown its superiority over the battleship in coast operations; however, to intercept a battleship at sea, even a high speed submarine must lie in wait, perhaps for days or even weeks at a time, much like a gunner in a "blind" waiting for a flock of ducks to pass within gun shot. Because of its relatively slow speed, it would have to wait a long time, also, for a battleship or fleet to pass sufficiently near to be headed off, especially if the submarine were entirely submerged, because the moment the periscope appears above water the quarry will take to its heels. If it follows the latest ruling of the British Admiralty, "to steam away from the vicinity of submarines at full speed, even if it is necessary to abandon a torpedoed sister ship and its drowning crew to their own fate."

I believe that this apparently heartless order is justified by the loss of the "Aboukir," "Cressy," and "Hogue," the only flock of ducks, figuratively speaking, that has come within the shot of the submarine torpedo gunner.

The conclusion must be reached, therefore, that on the high seas the only advantage the costly dreadnought has over the plucky, cheap submarine, as at present constructed, lies in its ability to run away and to rule commerce far offshore on the high seas.

The principal means used in my mine-rading submarine are the bottom wheels and diving compartment, which were incorporated in my 1888 design, which also carried my pioneer features of lateral hydroplanes to get even keel submergence; high, watertight superstructure, which is indispensable for high-speed, ocean-going submarines; anchors, and diving and lowering instruments, etc. These mine-rading craft are able to enter the enemy's own territory with impunity and destroy his warships, ships and warships in their own harbors. The "Hague" was the first of this class.



When the submarine, traveling on the bottom, reaches the net, the latter is lifted by the projecting wheel and raises the smooth body of the boat.

Passing below protective netting.

submarine, which is reported to have passed through a mine-field. In 1912 a light ship "Protector" and fitted it with the above equipment.

In 1913, following the successful theft, then Secretary of War, organized a Board of Officers, consisting of Major (now Colonel) Arthur Murray, as president of the board, John Charles J. Walker, and Capt. Charles F. Fanning, who reported: "It will give the nearest approach to absolute protection now known to the board."

The boat can be for an indefinite time adjacent to the point to be defended in either cruising, watch, or submerged condition, by its anchors, or on the bottom ready for instant use, and practically independent of the state of the water, and in telephonic connection with the shore, or can patrol a mined or unmined channel, *possible to the enemy and able to discharge its torpedoes at all times*, and for the attack, "the boat shows great superiority over any existing means of attacking mine fields known to the board. First, it can be run by any field as at present installed, with but little danger from the explosion of any particular mine or from gun fire, during the few seconds it exposes the sighting hood for observation, and can attack at its pleasure the vessels in the harbor. Second and third, the board personally witnessed the ease with which cables can be grasped, raised and cut while the boat is maneuvering on the bottom; mine cables can be swept for, found, and cut or a diver can be sent out for that purpose."

Congress, however, failed to provide for the purchase of vessels of this type, although repeated recommendations were made by the general staff to do so; consequently, the "Protector" was sold to Russia, and is now at Vladivostok.

The necessity of such features as bottom wheels and diving compartment is now being brought out in the present war. I believe the mining and counter-mining features must be incorporated in one type before the submarine reaches its full development. The impotency of the great combined English and French fleets of battleships, cruisers, destroyers, and submarines must be galling to the people who have paid for them by the sweat of their brows. These fleets are impotent because the Germans will not come out from behind their mine and forts and wage an unequal battle against superior numbers, but prudently are sending out their submarines to destroy gradually the enemy that is trying to blockade the German ports.

Winston Churchill, the First Lord of the British Admiralty, expressed this impotency when he said, "If they don't come out and fight, we will go in after them and dig them out like rats"; however, the German mines and submarines stand in the way, and are themselves taking their toll of ships.

The mine-evading submarine can enter with comparative safety through a mine field, like a shuttle passing through the wool of cloth during the weaving process, and I take the opportunity to explain, for the first time, through the *Scientific American*, my method of passing safely through the mine field, which is accomplished, it is necessary to appreciate the almost insuperable difficulty of discovering an object like a submarine vessel when once sunk beneath the surface of the water. There are many ocean ships containing valuable treasures and cargoes that the enemy can see, and in most of the harbors of the world, there have been known to have sunk ships, but which have never been located. Some of these wrecks have been searched for the years and

have been found. Dozens of vessels have been sunk in the waters of the North and East rivers and never located. Perhaps the most noted case is that of the Pacific Mail steamer "Elle de Jauden," which sank in the entrance of San Francisco Bay, with treasure of a value of over \$500,000. This large vessel went down in a fog only a short distance from land, but she has never been found. Some of the British and French submarines have been lost in localities well known, but it has been impossible to locate them.

During several years of experimental work with submarines, investigating bottom conditions, I have traveled many miles in the Chesapeake and Sandy Hook bays, along the Atlantic Coast and Long Island Sound, and later in the Gulf of Finland and the Baltic Sea, and it is a fact that cannot successfully be disputed technically, by any one, that a submarine of the type recommended by the United States Army Board may be taken into any harbor in the world entirely unseen and remain there, if necessary, for a month at a time,

the reason that the vessel would pump up and down with the rise and fall of the sea. Neither could the vessel lie at rest on the bottom as the lift of the ground swell in bad weather was sufficient, even with a considerable negative buoyancy, to cause the vessel to pound so badly that the storage battery plates would be destroyed in a few minutes. I, therefore, suspended the wheels on swinging arms and applied a cushioning cylinder. The hull of the vessel was then free to move up and down, synchronizing with the lift of the ground swell, and at the same time the wheels of the vessel kept the submarine close to the bottom and able to keep her position while at rest or to be navigated over the bottom at any speed desired.

Most of our Atlantic Coast, Long Island, and Chesapeake Bay water-beds are comparatively uniform as to depths. In other countries I have navigated over rocky bottoms filled with giant boulders. A rough bottom limits the speed at which it is advisable to travel, but I have never seen a bottom so rough that it could not be readily navigated.

Lake boats, fitted with bottom wheels, have, in a competitive test abroad, entered land-locked and fortified harbors without discovery, where the entrance from the sea has been through a tortuous channel. All other vessels, except the one fitted with bottom wheels, were discovered long before reaching the outer fortifications, because it was necessary for them to show their periscopes to sight their way. They struck the sides of the dredged channel, which caused them to branch and be discovered, because they had to maintain a comparatively high speed to be kept under control. In tests carried out in Russia the boat fitted with bottom wheels simply wheeled along in the channel at slow speed and stopped and backed to change course at will. The revolutions of the bottom wheels gave the distant traveled, the manometer gave the depth, and the compass the proper direction, consequently, with a correct chart as to courses and depths, navigation on the bottom in entering harbors is very much easier than on the surface, unless the channels are well buoyed.

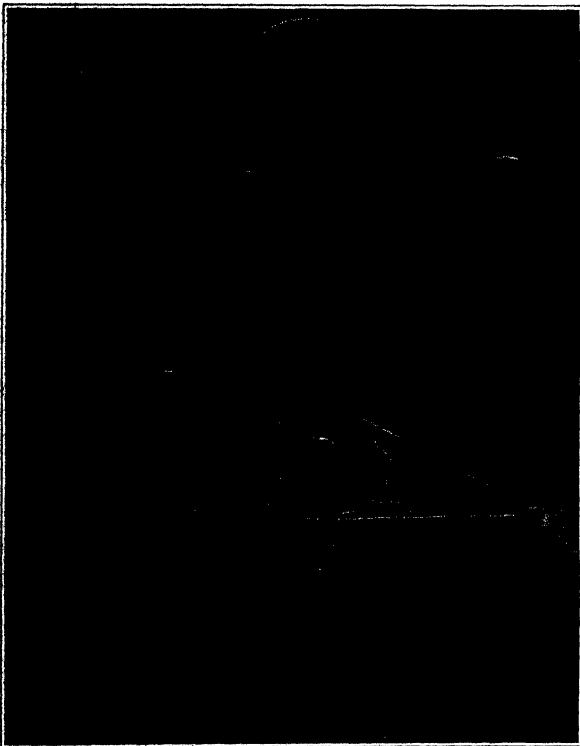
Most mines, as at present installed, are either of the observation or contact type, the observation mines are fired usually from shore stations when the enemy is seen to be over them, while the contact mine is anchored a few feet beneath the surface and is either exploded by contact with the surface of the vessel's bottom or by the agitation caused by the rush of water due to the swift

passing vessel. The observation mines are used to protect their capital ships from the submarines. The dread of these mines is holding the submarines outside of the mined areas and the mines are, therefore, effective. None of the British vessels are fitted with bottom wheels and diving compartments, and they must be navigated at such speed to keep submerged control that they would explode a contact mine if either the mine or its anchor rope was touched. This also applies to some of my later boats, as the bottom wheels have been omitted to meet the demand for greater speed on the surface and submerged.

I am inclined to the belief that this has been more or less of a mistake, because the bottom wheeled submarine can go to and "dig" the enemy out of its base, in addition to hunting the big surface craft of the enemy on the high seas.

With the bottom wheels, navigation can be conducted so carefully over the bottom that inspection of the

(Continued on page 74.)



A lake submarine traveling on the bottom can push the anchorage cables aside by means of the guards attached at the bow.

Passing through a mine-field.

and destroy shipping, docks, and war craft deliberately and leisurely, and defy discovery.

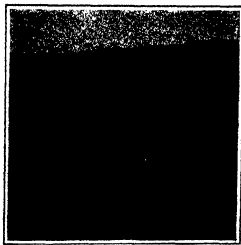
My method of entering harbors or through mine fields consists principally in providing submarine vessels with bottom wheels and other component undiscussed details. When submerged, the vessel is given sufficient negative buoyancy so that she will not be drifted off her course by the currents when resting on the bottom. The vessel is what might be termed a submarine automobile, and it may be navigated over the bottom as readily as an automobile on the surface of the earth. The submarine automobile has one great advantage over the surface type in its ability to mount steep grades or go over obstructions, because the vessel is so easily buoyant that she will mount any obstruction she can get her bow over.

My early experience proved to me that a submarine could not be satisfactorily navigated submerged in shallow, rough water by the same method of control as was found to be satisfactory in deeper water, for

European belligerents have put out contact mines to protect their capital ships from the submarines. The dread of these mines is holding the submarines outside of the mined areas and the mines are, therefore, effective. None of the British vessels are fitted with bottom wheels and diving compartments, and they must be navigated at such speed to keep submerged control that they would explode a contact mine if either the mine or its anchor rope was touched. This also applies to some of my later boats, as the bottom wheels have been omitted to meet the demand for greater speed on the surface and submerged.

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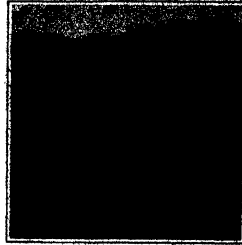


On the trail to the mine in the crater.

A Mine in a Meteor-Made Crater

Work of a 15,000-Centimeter Celestial Projectile

By Arthur Chapman



Anvil rock at the bottom of the crater.

UNIQUE mining operations have been carried on, until recently, in the crater of what is known as Meteor Mountain, near Canon Diablo, Arizona.

This is not a volcanic crater, but was formed by the fall of a tremendous meteor in some past age. Scientists who have examined the crater are of the opinion that the meteor which struck the earth there must have been of almost incalculable size and weight. In fact, there is no indication anywhere else of the slighting of a meteor approximating the size of this Arizona visitor.

Acting on the theory that the meteor was of such great weight that it sank into the ground to an extreme depth, a mining company expended much money in driving holes at the bottom of the crater in a search for the main body of the deposit. Five shafts have been sunk at the bottom of the crater, the longest being 125 feet deep. Quicksands and slits, encountered at that depth, prevented further sinking. From the bottom of the deepest shaft borings have been run down to solid formation, but no trace of the meteor has been found.

Several years ago a sheep herder discovered some of the meteoric fragments and this led to further investigation, and it was found that the large hill rising from the level desert, near the spot where the herder had made his discovery, was the rim of a great crater. More fragments were found near this crater, and soon it became the generally accepted theory that a meteor caused the strange formation in the desert, which at first had been ascribed to volcanic action.

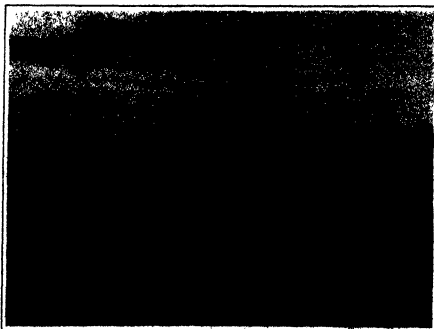
The hill itself does not deserve the term "mountain," as it rises hardly more than 150 feet from the level of the desert. The crater is three quarters of a mile across and is from 300 to 400 feet deep. There are 300 acres in the bottom of the crater, giving ample room for the mining operations which have been carried on.

So far as its shape is concerned the crater could have been formed equally as well by a blowout as by impact; but the character of a portion of the ejected material points strongly to an impact as the origin. The evidence afforded by other meteoric bodies, in regard to the results in impact and the disturbance of the surface of the earth, is very contradictory, and is of little assistance in deciphering the gigantic disturbance here found, for nothing equalling it in size has ever been discovered.

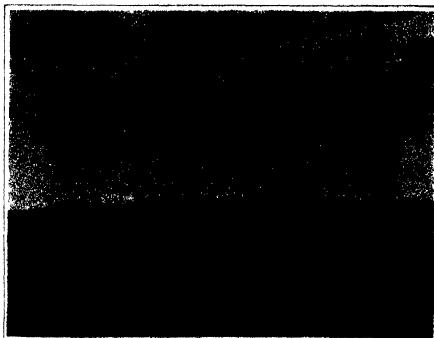
This Arizona meteor must, by the evidence at hand, have struck with sufficient force to crush a layer of limestone 300 feet thick, having an average crushing strength of 12,000 pounds per square inch, and, further, of a layer of sandstone 500 feet thick with a crushing strength of 6,500 pounds, and to meet these conditions the hypothetical case is conceived of a mass of meteorite from 500 feet in diameter and striking the earth at a speed of five miles a second. The superficial rocks are crushed and thrown back, to an amount greater than the bulk of the meteor, and as a projectile under similar conditions will create a crater eight to ten times its diameter the supposed 500-foot projectile could easily have formed the 1500-foot crater that exists in Arizona. As this huge projectile penetrated below the surface the upward escape of material around the mass would be impeded, and that directly in its path and also that on the sides would become greatly compacted. The heat generated by the rapid down-

ward passage of the body would produce fusion and probably also a partial volatilization and the effect of the impact would convert any moisture present into steam of great explosive power. The result would be that quantities of the surrounding material, together with portions of the meteor itself, would be ejected and thrown back over the rim of the crater and scattered over the surrounding plain. Such is a hypothetical reproduction of the event which would explain this curious crater and the conditions that surround it.

Meteor Mountain is ten miles from Volz's trading post at Canon Diablo, in the heart of the grim Southwestern desert, and is visited by few people. Yet it is one of the most interesting natural attractions of the Southwest. It is believed mining operations will be taken up again and that some way will be found to penetrate more deeply beneath the crater and ascertain whether the greatest of meteors is resting, as many believe, in a solid mass hundreds of feet below the level of the Arizona desert, or whether there is nothing left of the original body of the meteorite, but the scattered material now found upon the surface.



The enormous pit produced by the impact and explosion of a giant meteorite.



Meteor Mountain in the background at the right.

Slaughter in Mines Rivals War

BECAUSE war is a comparative novelty and its horrors are presented to us in appropriate descriptive settings are shuddered at its useless slaughter, entirely unimpressed by the fact that much more unjustifiable killing is going on daily in our midst as the result of the numerous accidents which some of our commercial enterprises are conducted.

The report of the Bureau of Mines, just issued, shows that during the year 1913, 3,651 men were killed in the mines and quarries of the United States, and the number injured during the same period is estimated at 100,000. This means that nearly three and one half men were killed for every thousand employed, while in the case of the United States, the number of deaths is to be "excessive and unnecessary and a discredit to the industry." Commenting further, he says:

"When we consider that this record is being repeated year after year, the very thought of it becomes appalling. In the last three years, as far back as the records of the Bureau covering certain branches of the industry go, the mines and quarries of the United States

have swallowed up 10,487 human lives and have incapacitated temporarily probably a quarter of a million men. And the saddest part of it all is that a great part of this death toll, and a still greater part of the injuries, are not necessary. I believe I am conservative when I say that half of the 3,651 men killed in the year 1913 might have been saved and three fourths of the 100,000 men injured in the same year might have escaped injury had all the various agencies involved, the operators, the miners, and the State and National Governments, done their full duty in the matter. Perhaps no one of these agencies has done its full duty. For the Bureau of Mines, as representing the Federal Government, I can say that, owing to a lack of adequate funds, this Bureau has fallen short of doing its full part in this great safety movement; and I therefore hesitate to criticize the needless shortcomings of any other agency."

These employments, from their nature, must always be hazardous; but the record of European countries of only one man per thousand killed in similar work shows that the above estimate of the yearly possible saving of life can and should be realized.

Marconi Company Wins Again

IN the suit of the Marconi Company against the DeForest Radio Company and the Standard Oil Company for infringement of certain Letters Patent, in which Judge Hough recently granted the Marconi Company a preliminary injunction, the Court has handed down another decision. It appears that subsequent to the former decision the defendants moved to suspend the injunction pending an appeal, in so far as it related to the bonus of the Standard Oil Company, and also another motion to vacate or modify the injunction with respect to both the defendants. Those motions were brought upon additional affidavits, but Judge Hough, in a decision, filed recently, denied all of the motions, thus refusing to suspend the injunction as to the Standard Oil Company, and to vacate or modify the injunction, as to both defendants.

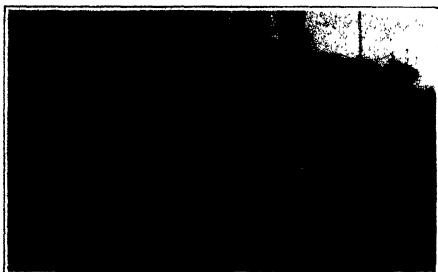
Unprecedented Accident to a Torpedo-boat Destroyer

THE two photographs herewith presented show the result of a boiler explosion which came very near sending one of our latest destroyers to the bottom. The destroyer concerned was the "Aylwin," one of the latest to be designed and built for the United States Navy. This fine vessel and those of her class are about 300 feet in length on the water-line, 30½ feet beam, and 8¼ feet draught. Their displacement is about one thousand tons and their speed 20 to 30 knots. The accident was not due to any defect in the vessel itself, but resulted entirely from a defect in the new type of boiler which had been installed on this vessel. The boilers are of the water-tube type, and it was the right-hand lower drum which gave way, the drum being blown off against the ship at about the turn of the bilge. The heavy blow thus struck, together with the pressure developed by the large amount of water which suddenly flashed into steam, served to tear open the starboard side of the boiler room and to produce the extraordinary rent which is shown in our view of the "Aylwin" when she was in drydock, for repairs. The accident occurred in the forward boiler room and to the forward boiler of two which occupied this compartment. The explosion caused a leakage in the after boiler room bulkhead, so that two compartments were filled, with the result that the draught increased from 8 feet 6 inches to 15 feet 6 inches. The serious nature of the accident was aggravated by the fact that there was a heavy head sea running off Cape Hatteras, where the explosion took place, and the working of the water within the ship caused a considerable working of the engine room bulkheads, which the officers and crew endeavored to correct by bracing the bulkheads with wood and the furniture of the ship.

The wounded were conveyed to another destroyer, which took them at 20 knots' speed to the nearest hospital. The "Aylwin" was taken in tow and, in spite of her seriously damaged condition, was brought safely to Newport and placed in drydock.



Destroyer "Aylwin," showing smokestacks displaced by explosion.



"Aylwin" in drydock, showing a strip of her side, 15 feet wide, blown outward by the boiler explosion.

rise and lift up the structure. Thereupon, it was successfully transported some distance down the river and finally landed on a neighboring bank.

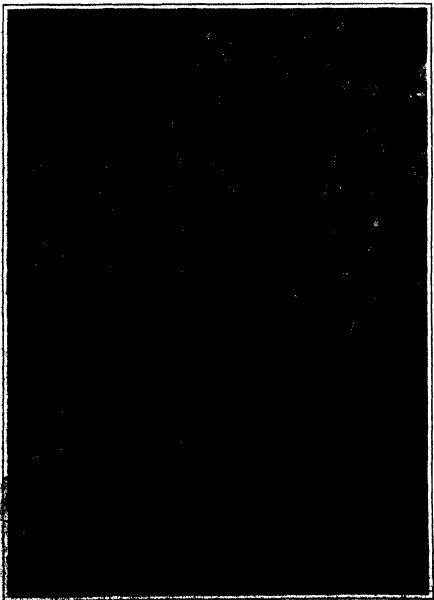
Here the floor of the bridge was further cut up into small parts by the use of the oxygen torch.

Cutting Up a Bridge With the Oxyhydrogen Torch

IT is well known that the oxyacetylene or oxyhydrogen torch is very useful in cutting up old structural iron work that has to be removed in sections, for it provides the easiest and quickest way of cutting through the material. Ordinarily the metal has to be "pre-heated" to the point of ignition when it is actually burned by combining with the oxygen. Ordinarily the "pre-heating" of the metal is continued during the entire process of cutting. However, there is a system in use in Germany, in which the work is merely started with the oxyhydrogen flame, and once the metal has reached the proper temperature the cutting is continued to the end by supplying it with oxygen alone.

This process is illustrated by heating a piece of iron wire in the flame of a Bunsen burner and then sending a stream of oxygen upon it, when the iron will be found to burn with brilliant sparks. A special form of blow pipe has been devised to carry out the same principle on a large scale. First, tubes lead in oxygen and hydrogen to produce the pre-heating flame, and then nozzles are provided for cutting off the hydrogen and permitting the oxygen alone to strike the glowing spot. This results in cutting the metal and cutting it rapidly.

The accompanying photograph shows the work of one of these torches in cutting up an old bridge over the Rhine at Cologne. The upper part of the structure was first cut up into short sections, which were removed, and after the other, leaving the lower structure intact. After that a part of the masonry was blasted under the floor and when the latter had been cut through a blow pipe water was pumped out of the columns, permitting them to



Cutting up an old bridge over the Rhine, at Cologne, with the oxyhydrogen torch.

Our Beginnings in Camphor

A DOZEN years ago the Government was distributing broadcast throughout Florida a bulletin of immense import, setting forth the excellent results of a prolonged series of experiments in camphor-raising in this mild climate, and urging that every citizen of the peninsula, whether rural or urban, should set out as many camphor trees as the ground around his home would allow. If all one's ground space should be taken up with food and fruit plants, the argument proceeded, still there were the walks and roadways to be lined. And what more beautiful, symmetrical or delightfully unobtrusive than the vividly green and gracefully branching camphor trees?

The realization had come home to our nation, about that time, with especial force and significance, that Japan had a monopoly of the camphor trade, hence, a monopoly of one of the most important sinews of war.

The propaganda waged at that time, both by bulletin, by experiment stations, and agents from the Bureau of Plant Industry, is at last showing fruitage. The camphor plantations at Natchez, Miss., began recently the distilling of the present year's "crop" and the yield promises to be enormous. This is the first and only bearing plantation of any size in the United States. Its initial effort at distillation was made last season over 10,000 pounds of crude gum being turned out. The present year's yield promises to be many times that amount. There are over 2,000 acres in trees, and it is expected that 500 additional will be set during this winter.

Other smaller plantations in different parts of the State will shortly come into bearing and many others will soon be set out. Besides this, countless small farmers and truck growers have a few rows of these valuable trees or a border of them around their fields, and, as the business progresses, the crops from these will either be regularly distilled at home or else hauled to community "stillies." The outlook now is that within another dozen years or less this trade of the United States will be revolutionized. The monopoly of Formosa will be a thing of the careless past.

Iceland's Railway

FOR years the people of Iceland have been planning to build a railway on their island and at last their hopes have been realized. The Althing, or Iceland Congress, has passed the bill, and at no very distant date the steel of steel will worm its way between the glaciers and among the hot springs of Iceland.

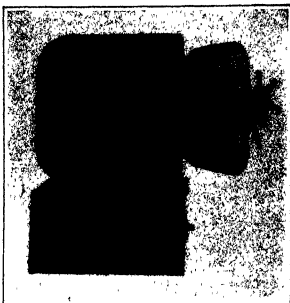
The main line of this railway will run from Reykjavik, the capital, to Thorshavn, here the road will divide, with one branch to the geysers and the other to Geitask. The total distance to be covered by rail is about 100 kilometers, or about 62 miles, and the system is to cost approximately \$1,000,000. At the present time the facilities for traffic and trade are still most primitive. Travelers are obliged to ride on any animal which may be available, while freight is moved in tubs or carts. The roads are for the most very bad and they are often made impassable by mountain torrents.

Early Use of Pilot Balloons

A NOTE in the *Monthly Weather Review* calls attention to the fact that the famous exploring expedition sent out by the French government under La Perouse in 1785 carried a few small balloons, some of paper and some of goldbeaters' skin, for use in studying the winds in the upper atmosphere, and that the instructions prepared for the expedition by the Academy of Sciences indicated the special importance of using these balloons in the trade-wind region in order to ascertain at what altitude the direction of the wind changes in that region. Thus the recent soundings of the trade winds carried out under the direction of Prof. Hergesell appear to have been anticipated by more than a century.

Explosive-proof Safe

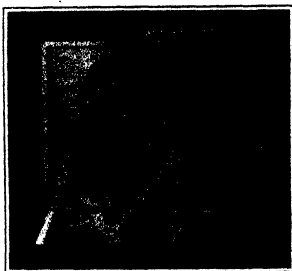
UNLESS he is provided with an oxyacetylene or oxyhydrogen torch, a burglar will find great difficulty in opening the safe shown in the accompanying photograph. Indeed, the task may be considered well-nigh impossible. The safe is constructed with three walls of manganese steel, the outer and middle walls being perforated, the inner walls solid. These walls are separated by air spaces. The perforations in the outer walls do not register with those in the middle wall so that it is impossible to work a drill through from the outside to the solid interior wall. There are three doors of manganese steel, one for each wall each with its own set of bolts, and all arranged to swing on a single hinge. The object of perforating the walls is to preclude the possibility of confining gases generated by explosives and thus thwart the bank robber who depends upon blowing open a safe with nitroglycerin. To prove the efficiency of this safe, a test safe was made of soft steel with its door held in place by 36-inch cup-screws in place of the regular bolts. Five and a half ounces of nitroglycerin were exploded behind the outer walls of the safe without doing any damage, and after the explosion the door opened freely.



Safe constructed with perforated outer walls to prevent confining of gases generated by explosives.

The Horse-power of a Man

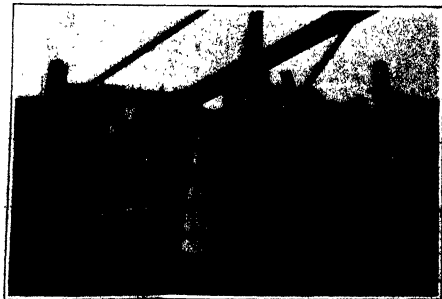
THE superintendent of a sanitarium in Battle Creek, Mich., has invented an apparatus for testing the strength of his patients and recording it in terms of horse-power. The machine consists of a bicycle with its front and rear wheels removed and its sprockets geared to a brake wheel. Straps run over the shoulders of the individual whose strength is to be tested and are attached to the floor. This enables him to use more power on the pedals. In the test he is required to keep the machine going at a predetermined rate. While he works the brake is gradually applied on the brake wheel, until the friction load is such that the rider is unable to "make the grade." The period at which he is forced to give up determines the horse-power he is able to develop. With this machine it has been shown that the average horse-power of a normal man is one-fifth and that of a woman one-tenth.



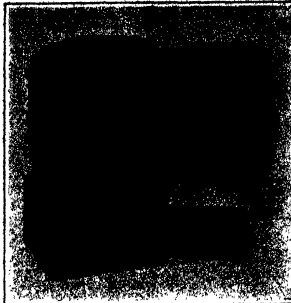
Testing the horse-power of a man.

Toothless Saws for Cutting Stone

IT may not be generally known that stone is cut with toothless saws which run in continual contact with the stone and with steel shot that is constantly being poured into the saw kerf by means of an automatic spreader. As a lubricant, lime is used. The steel shot consists of small balls, 1/32 inch in diameter. In the cutting of sand stone these toothless saws cut about three inches per hour, while in granite, which offers a great resistance, the action is very much slower. Some of the saws have pieces punched out of them every foot or so, to a depth of 2 inches, in order to carry the stone "sawdust" in the kerf to the end of the stroke. The accompanying photograph depicts a number of slabs of stone that have been cut with saws, and also a number of the saws, showing their warped condition after they have been used for a period of seven days. At the



Toothless saws for cutting stone.



Top is motor, fuel tank and fuel valve.

Auxiliary Motor Wheel for the Bicycle

A bicycle may be converted into a motorcycle in a few minutes by attaching the motor wheel illustrated in the accompanying photograph. It consists of a compact power plant mounted on a small wheel fitted with a heavy motorcycle tire. It furnishes enough power to carry the rider a hundred miles on a single gallon of gasoline. The motor is a one-cylinder four-cycle engine with high tension magnets and carburetor. The driving gear and gasoline tank are also carried on the motor wheel. The motor is controlled by a lever attached to the handlebars, and both bicycle and motor are therefore under perfect control of the rider. The device may be very quickly attached to the bicycle frame beside the rear wheel.

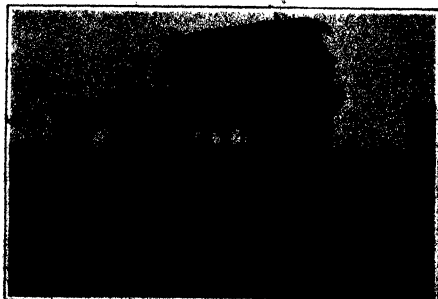
The motor wheel. The motor is controlled by a lever attached to the handlebars, and both bicycle and motor are therefore under perfect control of the rider. The device may be very quickly attached to the bicycle frame beside the rear wheel.

A Gasoline Switching Locomotive

IN some places it is considered a luxury to use a switching locomotive because of the expense of maintenance and the consumption of fuel while the locomotive is not in service. Hence, unless there is enough work for the locomotive to do the twenty-four hours of the day the work of switching is done by the engines of freight trains. In order to provide a suitable locomotive for such conditions, in which there will be a minimum of expense for operation and no expense during the idle hours of the locomotive, a gasoline switching engine has been designed and is now in use at Matador, Texas. A photograph of this locomotive is shown herewith. It has a 300 horse-power engine and exercises a tractive effort of 12,000 pounds, at six miles per hour. The engine is of six-cylinder type, with cylinders 11 by 16 inches. The power transmission, which is pneumatically operated, is effected by means of a sprocket on the crankshaft connected by chain to a sleeve working free on the rear driving axle and is then transferred under multiple disk friction-clutch to the forward driving axle, where, by an octaroon clutch, the power is either magnified by a series of gears to produce heavy tractive effort and high torque for starting purposes, or is delivered direct to the driving wheels. Once the locomotive is in motion the gears are cut out, and it is operated by the direct connection.

Holding Tacks for Driving

IT is usually found difficult to hold a small tack in place for driving, and this is especially true for round-headed tacks or small nails. M. Rene Engel of Paris uses an ingenious holder which anyone can make. Take a strip of sheet metal and cut a narrow slot in one end just large enough to allow a small nail to pass in easily, then fold the strip at the middle so that it takes the shape of a pair of pliers. The tack is placed in the slot so that the head can be gripped by the pliers, and the tack thus held firmly can be placed at the desired point in the wood. Striking the top with the hammer drives in the tack, then the piece is removed and the tack driven home.



A 300 horse-power gasoline switching locomotive.

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NIGHT ATTACK BY GERMAN ARMORED MOTOR BOATS IN A FLOODED SECTION OF FLANDERS

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The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

Militarism

MUCH of the muddled-headedness which characterizes the discussion of our public affairs is due to a lack of clear definition of terms. When the most important word in a subject of debate means half-a-dozen different things to half-a-dozen different people, there is little hope of arriving at a common and correct conclusion.

How true this is, in its effect upon the question of the military preparedness of the United States! Here we are confronted with the amazing spectacle of the richest republic in the world in such a state of defenselessness that if its territory should be invaded by any one of the leading military nations, the United States would be powerless to offer any effective resistance.

To what is this perilous condition to be charged? To many causes, but mainly to the confusion which has resulted from the constant reiteration both in Congress and outside of it, of that scarecrow word "militarism," by people who have no clear sense of its true meaning.

Whenever the experts of our army and navy have urged Congress to make reasonable provision for defending our shores from invasion and crushing the enemy should he effect a landing, they have been met by the cry that this is militarism—something opposed to the constitution, traditions, spirit, wishes, etc., etc., of the United States.

Now what about militarism? Militarism does not consist in the mere possession of an army, big or small. The United States, with a population of about one hundred million people, has within its borders some 30,000 troops or one to every 3,333 inhabitants. Therefore, to lay a claim to the title of a militarist on the ground of the size of its army would be manifestly ridiculous, and indeed on the mere question of numbers it is evident that a considerable increase of our military forces could be made without rendering this country liable to such an imputation. So far as the possession of an army is concerned, we are no more militarist than England and Prussia, and we are no less so than Russia and Japan, and regarding the State and its army, we are no more militarist than Switzerland, with only 3,300,000 inhabitants, can put in the field nearly 300,000 trained soldiers. Yet no one has ever made a charge of militarism against that country: the fact that we recognize that, because of her important strategic situation and the fact that she is a great power, we are bound to maintain our territory, and that we are bound to guard our borders, is no more a reason for regarding her as a militarist than Switzerland is fully justified in arming her citizens to protect her neutrality.

What, then, is militarism? For an answer to this question, so clear and convincing that he who runs may read, we direct attention to an article in the *New York Times* on January 12th 1915 by Prof. Frank Jewett Mather, Jr. of Princeton University, who starts his analysis with a quotation from the *New English Dictionary*, to the effect that militarism is "the political condition characterized by the predominance of the military class in government or administration; the tendency to regard military efficiency as the paramount interest of the State."

This is an exact definition of the essence of militarism, which, according to Prof. Mather, is simply that the military establishment is not subordinate, but superior to the civic powers. The issue is merely, who

rules—soldier or statesman? England, according to this authority, is no more militaristic to-day than she was six months ago with only a tinge of that number, and this for the reason that since the passage of the Bill of Rights, Parliament has always controlled the army and navy France had her era of militarism under the first Napoleon and under the third; and twice since then, in the Boulangier episode and the Dreyfus affair, she moved in a militaristic direction, but promptly and resolutely retraced her steps toward democratic control.

But when, "at every stage of the delicate negotiations" preceding and inaugurating a war "the military rulers dictate the decision of the civil rulers," the predominance of the military class in government is manifest, and militarism in its extreme form is rampant.

[illegible]

Now if we apply the above incontrovertible definition of militarism to conditions in the United States, it will be recognized by every American who understands the attitude of our army and navy toward the civil authority and toward the civil population, that militarism has never existed in the United States, has never threatened to intrude on our national life, and is the very last enmity that could befall us.

In no country in the world is there a body of naval and military men, from commander-in-chief down to lieutenant which is so easy of approach and so courteous in its bearing toward the civilian population as that of the United States. Indeed, the loyal recognition of the pre-eminence of the civil authority is one of the unique characteristics of the military situation in our country. Of all things which we have to fear in America, militarism as described above by Prof. Mathen, is the very least.

It follows, then, that to brand as militarism the present nation-wide demand that the neglect of the past be made good by increasing our military forces to the modest strength that will give adequate protection against attack of any power, is not only supremely ridiculous, but is in the highest degree unpatriotic. It is to obscure a vital issue by beclouding it with a term that is not merely misleading but is positively vicious in its effect.

Science and Lexicography

"IN learning the meaning of scientific terms, the history of science is our dictionary; the steps of scientific induction are our definitions."

Everybody who writes much on scientific subjects must realise the truth of this aphorism of William Whewell: yet few of us can quite free ourselves from our childhood's faith in the dictionary as a source of last resort, the tribunal without appeal. The present writer recalls the dismay of one of his scientific associates when he found that the word "insolation" was not in the dictionary on learning that he had repeatedly used therein the word "insolation" in a sense not at that time recommended by any dictionary of the English language, i. e., as the equivalent of "solar radiation" or "sunshine". The word is logically even less of any other meaning in meteorological usage. The word "insolation" is not in the dictionary, and its logical derivation from all the English Dictionaries—accident to which one might still find thousands of parallels—caused our colleague to consider seriously the advisability of substituting another term in his book. It is true that the author in question had given little thought to terminological questions—but one might say as much of at least ninety-nine scientific men in every hundred.

In view of the immense importance of accurate and consistent terminology as an aid, first, to clear thinking, and, second, to the transmission of knowledge, it is a startling fact that very little attention has been paid either to formulating the principles of scientific terminology or to applying these principles to the task of regulating the scientific vocabulary. One must go back more than half a century, to Whewell's almost forgotten "Novum Organon Renovatum," for a sane and comprehensive treatise on this subject.

A hopeful sign, as far as it goes, is the fact that the editors of all the recent great dictionaries published in America have enlisted the aid of specialists in defining scientific terms. The astronomical definitions are written by an astronomer; the chemical definitions by a chemist; and so on. As a result of this plan, technical terms and the technical senses of general terms have

received a far rougher measure of appreciation from the dictionaries than was ever before bestowed upon a single author, the definition of those terms was almost unanimously approving. It is, unfortunately, a curious paradox that an able astronomer is necessarily better qualified than anybody else to write on the history of astronomy. Doubtless the ideal history of astronomy, if he exists, will be found in the *Sketches of the Astronomer*; but he will be the exceptional astronomer whose general scholarship and whose familiarity with the history and the literature of his science actually qualify him for lexicographical undertakings. His work in this direction will be, more or less, that of a pioneer; and it is to be hoped that the history of the science of astronomy themselves, in a state of great confusion, he must know thoroughly the astronomical literature of other languages than his own, since in no language—not even German—is the vocabulary of astronomy free from foreign influences; in short, his scholarship will be tested to the utmost to ascertain the contents of large groups among like collections, as German as any other, and the definition of the fundamental terms of the public at large. See *REVIEWS OF BOOKS* other volumes.

The lexicographer of science should, we believe, be a lexicographer first and a scientist second; but he must be both. Until persons possessing this dual training are more numerous than they are at present, our general dictionaries will continue to be more or less at sea in their scientific definitions—often grotesquely so.

The Cost of Health-seeking

A "CHANGE of climate" is apt to be looked upon as a panacea for the ills of the South, but one that is often difficult or impossible of realization for financial reasons. Nevertheless, we daily hear of cases in which families have achieved the impossible, by dint of heroic labor and sacrifice, in sending invalid members to health resorts to which distance lends the enchantment of hope—sometimes destined to prove altogether illusory. Whether or not the long-sought-for cure is ultimately effected, climatic treatment is, in the average case, so expensive that it is implied that it should be the privilege of the few, rather than the luxury of the many. It is understood by the invalid and his friends before he leaves home, and it is obviously desirable that all physicians should be able to enlighten their patients on this subject.

Dr. Thompson Fraser of Asheville has contributed to the U. S. Public Health Reports a paper, entitled "Tuberculosis: the Financial Aspect of the Risk Taken in Home Isolation in a Subtropical Climate," in which he calls attention to the fact that tuberculosis patients too often fail to realize the futility of visiting a health resort unless provided with sufficient funds to insure suitable living conditions while there and a stay long enough to be beneficial. He says, "A large proportion of people, including the medical profession, seem to be uninformed on this most important phase of the (tuberculosis situation)"; and he gives some valuable figures as the fruit of his own experience and observation at the well-known North Carolina resort.

whereas most North American "tuberculous" are dying of the disease of the lungs. An extraordinary "epidemic" of "tuberculosis" is the vast majority of the sufferers being those who live from hand to mouth and who can do so ill afford a suspension of their daily labor that the disease usually reaches an advanced stage—demanding a correspondingly long period of treatment—before they seek a cure that entails inactivity. It is, too, pre-eminently a disease of the earlier years of productive life, with a maximum mortality between the ages of 20 and 80, i. e., it strikes down the wage-earner who has not yet had time to make much, if any, provision for such an emergency.

In estimating the expense of treatment in a health resort several facts are commonly overlooked. In the first place, a short stay is generally unavailing. Many patients arrive at Asheville nearly inviolent, expecting to be cured in a few weeks, when at least ten months' residence is necessary. The money spent in the first few travelling expenses could be used to reach the health resort in time to become treatment. Again, climate is, according to Dr. Fraser, the least important of all the factors that can make for improvement in tuberculosis, "and unless supported by the essentials—fresh air, good food, vigorous exercise—the most perfect climate must prove valueless." The essentials are the most important, and the climate is the least. The essentials may defeat the object of the climate. Thus, while it may be possible to get a room on the third floor of an Asheville boarding-house, with board, for \$6 a week, while a first-floor room costs \$10 or \$12, the expense of climbing stairs may be more than the patient's ability to safely undertake. There are various "traps" of this kind in the Asheville enterprise. The expense of the arrival at Asheville is a pitifully small sum of \$20 for a 24-hour stay.

In view of the number of people to whom such an expense is either absolutely prohibitive or remains to be a crushing burden upon their families, the American figure appears to be a powerful argument for the absence of health insurance even where the expense is less than that with which Great Britain is now struggling.

Electricity

Air-Rail Electric Work.—At a recent meeting of the representatives of leading electrical manufacturers, electric engineers, jobbers, contractors, dealers and trade associations, plans were laid for a great national work to be held sometime later this year in the United States and Canada. It is expected to arouse a great interest in matters electrical, stirring up the public on questions of better lighting, heating, stores, houses, schools and homes and promoting the sale of electrical appliances.

Air-Rail Telephone.—At a recent exhibiting of the Royal Society, London, Dr. P. de Lange, of Utrecht, exhibited a telephone in the form of a small cylinder of about the diameter of a pencil and half an inch long. A very fine wire of platinum is carefully heated by the passage of talking currents through it, producing expansions and contractions of the surrounding air and hence throwing out corresponding sound waves. The receiver is small enough to be inserted in the ear and acts as a seal to exclude extraneous sounds.

Electricity v. Steam in Railroad Practice.—According to the *Railroad World*, a New Haven Railroad official is quoted as saying: "Upkeep of electric engines is on the order of 5 cents to 7 cents per locomotive mile per 100 tons of weight. Steam-locomotive maintenance runs anywhere from 8 cents to 25 cents, depending upon nature of the coal and water used—an average figure of 11 cents would not be bad. With regard to pounds of coal burned for electric engines, the average is about a pound of coal burned under the boilers of a central electric station for such traffic will develop twice the power as that would be developed if the same pound of coal was burned in the firebox of the steam locomotive."

Spark Gap Electrodes.—In order to determine the effect of certain metals on electric sparks, Prof. Daniel M. Rich, of the University of Michigan, has been conducting some very interesting experiments. He has found, by photographic records, that on producing a spark with an alternating current, between a copper electrode and a zinc electrode, a certain number of sparks were given off from the copper electrode, during one half cycle, while in the following half cycle, when the current was reversed, more sparks were given off from the zinc electrode. Prof. Rich believes that the cause of this is that the potential must reach a higher value before it will jump from the copper. Very curiously there was always an even number of sparks from one electrode and an odd number from the other, also the last spark always occurred from the electrode of the higher potential value. This surprising effect may be due to the ionizing of the air, Prof. Rich believes.

Increasing Self-Induction in Cables.—It is well known that the carrying power of a telephone cable for underground or submarine use is much smaller than that of an overhead line; in other words, a less distance can be covered with clear sound of the voice than for overhead line, this being due to the preponderance of the capacity of the cable over the self-induction, and the sound of the voice is altered or weakened. An increase in the section of the cable would be expensive, so that other means have been sought in order to reduce the damping effect by an artificial increase in the self-induction. The Danish engineer Krapp makes use of a very successful method which consists in increasing the magnetic permeability in the neighborhood of the conductor by wrapping it about with a very fine soft iron wire, and this has the effect of increasing the self-induction considerably. In this way the carrying power of a cable is generally doubled by the use of the Krapp method. To obtain the same result without the iron wire wrapping, or by simply increasing the section of the copper, four times the section is needed. The Krapp method is a rival of the well-known Pupin system for obtaining the same result.

French Interurban Network.—The extensive interurban network of electric power lines in the region of Nancy is of interest not only from a technical standpoint but also from the fact that this part of France lies in the center of the present war frontlines. The large town of Nancy is in that situated not 15 miles from the frontier of Lorraine. An operating company already assured the electric service for the city, and more recently decided to lay out an important interurban system for covering the region lying to the east, south and west of this center. Power comes in part from the city of Metz, but there will be several steam plant facilities, and it will be situated on the Meuse near Vinéy in the Vosges region. Current used is 3-phase at a frequency of 50 cycles, and tension of the interurban network is 35,000 volts standard. At present the output of the city station is about 30,000 kilowatts, while the Vinéy plant is to furnish 15,000 kilowatts during the first period of operation, and will then be increased to 45,000 kilowatts in the second period. Current coming from the central plants at 11,000 volts per governor line is received in four transformer plants spaced at various points in the region, and from there comes over the high tension 35,000-volt lines of distribution.

Science

A Geological Survey of Panama is in progress under the joint auspices of the Isthmian Canal Commission, the U. S. Geological Survey, and the Smithsonian Institution. The plan includes a systematic study of the geology, stratigraphy and structural geology, geologic history, geologic correlation, mineral resources (including coal, oil, and other fields), petrography, and paleontology of the Canal Zone, and as much of the adjacent areas of the Isthmian region as it may be feasible to explore.

Moles are generally regarded as agricultural pests in this country, and it is therefore interesting to learn that farmers may turn a curse into a blessing by trapping these animals for their skins. At present the mole skins used for making fur garments in the United States are nearly all imported from Europe. The Biological Survey reports that the skin of the common mole of the eastern United States is actually superior to the foreign product. Whether this is also true of the larger species inhabiting the northwestern coast region is the subject of investigations now in progress. The last species is very abundant, as many as a hundred individuals to the acre being found in some localities.

Mercury as a Plant Germicide.—A new method of destroying plant and household pests and for fungus diseases has been devised by Mr. Franz X. Kodel of Kufstein in the Tyrol, according to a recent number of the *Chemiker-Zeitung*. In isolated spaces the mercury is employed in the form of vapor. In other cases it is injected in metallic form directly into the circulating fluids of the plant. The growth of the plant is not only not disturbed, but is in most cases actually assisted. When a tree is treated the process is as follows: With a stout 3-millimeter auger hole are bored in the lower branches—from 5 to 7—in an oblique direction and passing through the pith. These holes are then filled with mercury by means of an ordinary "dropper," after which they are made air-tight with "tree-wax" or some similar substance. From 2 to 7 grammes of mercury are required for an incision. The effect is quickly observable and continues for a year or more.

The Phytopathological Observatory at Turin, Italy, has just been reorganized, and it therefore seems timely to call attention to this useful institution, which is one of the prominent agencies in the world-wide campaign now being waged against the spread of plant diseases. The observatory was founded in 1908, replacing a phytopathological laboratory established in 1884. According to a royal decree of last May the observatory is now charged with the tasks of (1) following carefully any condition of disease in cultivated plants and studying its cause and remedies; (2) spreading information concerning plant diseases and their treatment among farmers; (3) co-operating with farmers in actual work of suppressing such diseases; (4) phytopathological work in the public parks and avenues of Turin; (5) examination of doubtful mushrooms and other fungi; (6) maintaining a museum of plant pathology; (7) seed inspection; (8) keeping watch for new plant diseases and taking measures to control them throughout Piedmont.

Stunt Fires in Threshing Separators.—A remarkable series of mysterious and disastrous fires, or so-called explosions, occurred in threshing separators in the great wheat-growing region of eastern Washington last summer. These increased in frequency as the threshing season got under way, until it was no uncommon thing to hear of six or eight fires a day, the total number during the season amounting to at least 300. As each fire necessitated the immediate purchase of a new separator, at a cost of from \$1,200 to \$1,500, the total loss was very serious, probably half a million dollars, including incidental damages. The fires usually appeared to originate at or just back of the cylinder of the separator, and within two or three seconds the entire separator would be a mass of flames, so hot that it prevented the approach of workmen and very soon destroyed the machine, besides spreading in most cases to the straw pile, the shocks of grain and even the uncultivated grain in the surrounding fields. In several cases workmen were seriously injured by these explosive fires. Although fires in separators had not been previously unknown, they had rarely numbered more than a dozen in a season in the whole wheat region of Washington, Oregon and Idaho, hence the fires of last summer were altogether anomalous, and most probably due to technical causes. A thorough investigation of the matter was made by experts from the State College of Washington, and its results have just been published. The fires were undoubtedly due to smut, which is exceedingly inflammable. The amount of smut in threshing during the season in question was much above that of previous years. Moreover, the season was unusually dry; hence the grain and straw had a low content of moisture and was very friable, besides which an unusual amount of static electricity was developed by the cylinders and other parts of the machinery. The report (Bulletin 117 of the Washington Agricultural Experiment Station) suggests various precautions to be taken against such disasters in the future.

Aeronautics

Aerial Mail Service.—Somewhat less space is devoted to this subject in the current annual report of the Postmaster-General than in the report of last year, but it is stated that during the past fiscal year permission was given in eight instances for experimental aerial mail service. An item of \$50,000 has been included in the estimates for 1911 for experimental service in this line.

Accidents to War Aviators.—An interesting statement is made by a French publication that the number of deaths of aviators in the war service by accident was very small as compared with the records in time of peace, and the explanation is made that in this service only the most skilled men are engaged, and moreover they do not indulge in the sensational exhibition stunts that have brought disaster to many. It may be noted that it is this same sensational exhibition business that has given the general public many erroneous and misleading ideas about flying machines that will sooner or later prove an injury to aviation.

Army Aviator Perishes.—A report from Los Angeles, dated December 21st, tells of a misfortune that overtook two U. S. army officers and resulted in the drowning of one of them. Six machines carrying pilots and observers left San Diego for Los Angeles to compete for the Mackay trophy, scouting for troops on the march near San Diego. The Curtiss aeroplane, driven by Capt. Mueller and carrying Lieut. Gerstner as observer, struck heavy gale at Ocean View, and in the confusion fell into the ocean. Although carrying a motor capable of driving at the rate of 75 miles an hour, the Curtiss was dashed into the ocean. Lieut. Gerstner was caught in the up-right wires of the machine and carried down to his death. Capt. Mueller clung to the aeroplane, though often drawn under water, and was finally hauled up about a rock by Capt. William L. Patterson, observer on a Burgess tractor, who, with his pilot, Lieut. T. D. Milling, had landed near Ocean Side.

Gunning for the Air-man.—The *Foto de Paris* reports an interview with one of the military aviators in which he tells an interesting story of his experience with the sharpshooters of the enemy. "Generally speaking," he said, "when we fly over the enemy's line we run fewer risks than a sharpshooter who leaves his trenches. However, our job has become somewhat more dangerous during the last weeks, for the Germans, whether it be that their shooting has improved or that they now possess a new aeroplane gun, are firing shrapnel which bursts at a height of 2,300 meters. In the early days their shells were ineffective beyond 1,800 meters. Now, at 2,300 meters we are too high to see clearly, so if we want to bring in any useful information we must descend into the zone of fire. Even then our risks do not appear to be very serious, for a day or two ago I found on landing that my machine had been struck by no fewer than fifteen projectiles, but neither I nor my observer were a penny the worse for it."

Russia has Many Aeroplanes.—A French authority, who is in touch with the subject, states that, while there are not many private aviators in Russia the military authorities of that country have within the last two years trained a very large number of men, and as a result have many more skilled aviators in its service than any other nation. It is also stated that the number has been greatly increased since the war began. "One talks and reads of the heroic age and how the hero has degenerated. But, indeed, this is the hero's age suddenly come again. No legendary feats of the past, no battle with dragons or monstrous beasts, no quest or feat that man has hitherto attempted, can compare with this adventure—this urgently necessary adventure—in terror, danger, and splendor."

Of course one great difficulty stands in the way, and that is the expense, for it is well known that the expense of taking a time in England are so great as to make it impossible except for a very rich man and aviator are not of such. But Mr. Wells meets this difficulty with the suggestion, "It is not a time when honors may again become honorable."

Aeroplanes for Postal Service.—At a recent dinner in New York the Second Assistant Postmaster General stated that the United States Post Office Department was considering, and desired to establish postal service by aeroplanes. The district in which this means of carrying the mails would be of special value would be in the Rocky Mountain region, where some towns only a short distance apart by the air line now require a trip of some hundreds of miles by the only available surface routes. Another feature wherein aeroplane service has advantages over other methods is that the going is as good in winter as in summer, a fact that holds good in any part of the country, and the present-day aeroplane can be operated in any but the most boisterous weather. Another consideration would be that in time of war the government would have a large body of splendidly trained men to draw from in the postal aviators, and these men would be not only skilled in handling their machines, but would also have a knowledge of the geography of this country, if their services were needed in home territory.

Steamship Terminal in the Bronx

Docking Facilities for Freighters Reaching New York by Way of Long Island Sound. Engineering Difficulties Involved in Damming a Vast Sea of Mud



Pile-driver for driving batter piles.

WERE it not for the menace of Hell Gate, Long Island Sound would long since have become a favored highway for transatlantic as well as coastwise shipping to and from New York. It forms a wonderful harbor, with plenty of deep water for swift navigation, and with its mouth a hundred miles nearer European ports than that of lower New York harbor. Yet steamers from abroad, and even from our own coast, pass by the mouth of the sound, ignoring its sheltered waters, because, before the main docks of New York could be reached, they would have to thread their way through a difficult channel where the East River is almost strangled by Ward's Island. Although the treacherous rocks at this point were long since blasted away, conflicting tides produce cross currents that make navigation well-nigh impossible for large unwieldy vessels.

It is idle to dream of bettering conditions there. Not without dislodging Ward's Island itself from the throat of the East River would it be possible for transatlantic vessels to enter New York freely by way of Long Island Sound. Even were such a thing possible it would hardly be advisable to crowd the East River with any more traffic than it now carries. The only thing to do is to provide docking facilities above the obstructed point. It must be apparent that the natural outlet for further development of shipping in New York is to be found along the shores of the Bronx, far here railroad connection can be had readily with the network of New England lines and also with lines running through New York State and to the West, while the connecting railroad which is now being built over Hell Gate to connect New England with Long Island, and then, by tunnel under the East and North Rivers, with lines running south and west, makes this a strategic point for freight traffic with every part of the country.

Hitherto developments in the Bronx have been retarded by an unfavorable shore line, consisting of a vaguely defined region of salt marshes, with a vast and deep mudbank stretching out for hundreds of feet to the channel. Now, however, despite the engineering difficulties presented by the mud, work is under way to provide a large terminal at Hunt's Point. This is just above Hell Gate, and close to the imaginary line dividing the East River from Long Island Sound. The accompanying map indicates the position of the point

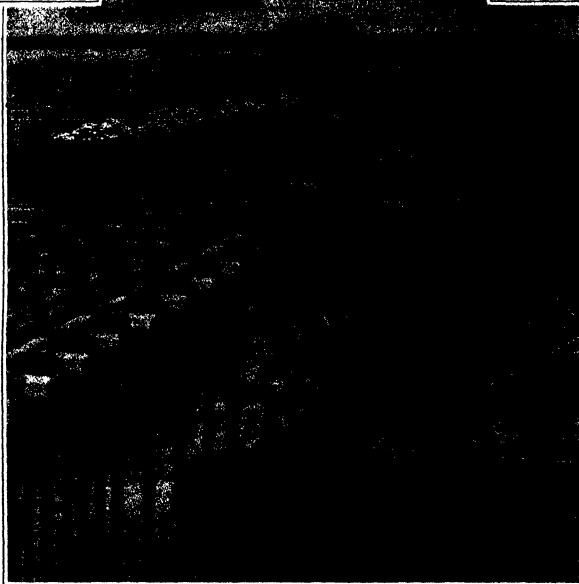
with respect to Manhattan Island, and the property acquired by the terminal company is delineated in the enlarged map of the region.

Hunt's Point proper is a rocky projection reaching out well toward the channel. On either side of it and

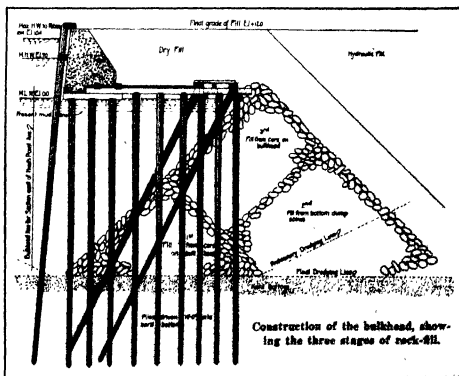
the marshy meadows were inclosed with dikes made of sod and surface material, and within these confining dikes the mud was deposited by a hydraulic dredge.

On the east side of the Point the mud varies from twenty to forty-five feet below low water, and on the west as much as sixty-five feet in some places. Curiously enough, after the mud had been dredged out, the hard bottom proved to be at a higher elevation than before; that is, if a sounding had shown a depth of forty feet, after the excavation it was found to be thirty-seven feet. This curious condition was due to the boulders which apparently were actually floating in the mud. As they were not removed by the hydraulic dredge, they collected in a layer on the bottom.

After the preliminary channel had been dredged, piles were driven to the hard bottom through these boulders. The piles were driven in rows of ten with a pair of batter piles to each row to take the thrust of the fill back of the bulkheads. The batter piles were driven by means of a pile driver with swinging leads. A photograph of this pile driver is reproduced herewith. Owing to the layer of rock on the bottom, the piles presented a very disordered jumble at the top. They had to be marked and sorted out to bring them into proper alignment to be capped.



Composite view illustrating various steps in the building of the bulkhead.



Capping the bulkhead piles.

also from the Point itself, the mud stretches out toward the channel with a very gradual gradient. Two bulkheads are being built, one at each side of the Point, well within the pierhead line, and dikes of rocks are being laid from the ends of these bulkheads along the boundaries of the property back to the mainland. The entire property will be filled up to a level of about twelve feet above mean low water, while the mud between the bulkheads and the channel is to be dredged out.

It is no simple task to confine a large and deep body of mud of such fluid consistency as is encountered at this point. The construction of the bulkheads called for a special method, which is illustrated in our wash drawing and also in one of the line drawings. First a preliminary channel was dredged along the line of the bulkhead down to hard bottom. This involved the removal of an enormous amount of mud owing to the flat angle of repose of the thin fluid mud. So fluid was the mud that it could not be removed with the ordinary bucket dredge, but had to be excavated with a hydraulic dredge. In a

June 10, 1911

After they had been dumped rock was deposited about them in the position indicated in our drawing. The rock was deposited in three piles, the first pile being dumped from cars running on the bulkheads. After this had settled a second pile was deposited from bottom-dump cars and allowed to settle to hard bottom. Finally, the third pile was dumped from cars on the bulkheads, filling the space between the first and second pile and reaching to the top of the bulkheads.

At the present writing the work on the east bulkhead has been completed up to the point of building the concrete quay-wall on the deck carried by the piles. Barges of city refuse are being towed in behind the bulkhead and the material is being deposited upon the rock fill to seal up all the crevices through which the mud might filter. After the dry fill has been completed mud will be excavated from before the bulkheads and deposited behind them, until the level has been raised to the final grade indicated on the drawing.

The work on the dikes stretching from the land out to the bulkheads, along the margins of the company's property is rather interesting. Trestles were built by driving piles down to hard bottom, and, on these trestles are of rock excavated from the new subway work in the vicinity, were run out and dumped into the mud. At first the rock would be held in suspension in the mud, but as more was added, it would eventually sink to the bottom. In doing so, however, it produced mud waves which were constantly wrecking the trestle.

Frequently a large part of the trestle would disappear with the pile of rock that had been dumped from it. As the rock settled to the bottom there would be subsidence in the surface of the mud at that point which would be compensated by an elevation at some other point. The action was very similar to that of a wave of water, but infinitely slower. As the mud was pushed up by the rock that displaced it, it would curl over slowly like a breaker. One of our photographs shows this interesting phenomenon. All that could be done was to continue depositing new material and rebuilding the trestle until eventually a pile of rock was established from the solid bottom below to a level above that of the surrounding mud-flats.

The bulkheads are well within the pierhead line. On the west side there will be room enough to build a thousand feet long. The channel provides a depth of thirty feet below mean low water, so that large vessels may be accommodated. The terminal should not only attract new traffic through Long Island Sound, but should divert to itself much of the shipping that now is obliged to pass on down the narrow congested East River. It should do much for the development of the upper part of greater New York, which is the logical outlet for further expansion of this great city. We are indebted to the Foundation Company which is building the bulkheads for the photographs here reproduced.

the Tutuila Naval Station, and commander of the station ship. The report comprises a history of the islands; a description of their physical geography, flora, and fauna; a summary of the laws and other political features; and general statistics. Among the more novel and striking facts set forth in this publication are the following:

The islands have no regular laws, but are subject to "regulations" issued by the governor. The political status of the islands and their inhabitants is peculiar.

of the territory have been fixed chiefly by decisions of certain departments of our Government. Thus Samoans are not citizens of the United States, but they owe allegiance to the flag; vessels owned by Samoans are not entitled to registry, but are nevertheless entitled to fly the flag; while goods imported from the United States pay the same customs duties as those from foreign countries.

Pago Pago, the only port of entry, has the best and safest harbor in the South Sea, formed in the crater of an immense volcano, the south side of which is broken away and open to the sea.

A monthly newspaper, *O le Fatafata*, is the government gazette, containing all new regulations and instructions, besides information of general interest.

The leading product and only export of the islands is copra, all of which is marketed for the natives by the government. Blank bills are sent to copra buyers in all parts of the world, the bills received being opened the first of March. The contract is awarded to the highest bidder, if approved by the governor, the contract covering the product of all plantations of Tutuila and Manua for the calendar year. Native taxes are also paid in copra.

All the natives are Christians and intensely religious. They all go to church, and there are family prayers morning and evening in every Samoan home, while Sunday is scrupulously observed as a day of rest. Practically all the missionaries in the colony are under the direction of the missionaries, and are conducted by the native pastors of the various denominations. The textbooks are printed in the Samoan language. A number of young Samoans have been sent to Hawaii for higher study, under pledge to return to Samoa and become instructors of their own people.

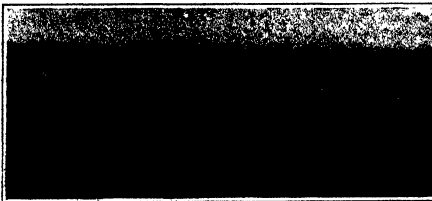
Although American naval officers hold the principal offices at the seat of government, the provincial and local offices are held by native chiefs. Village chiefs are elected annually. Delegates from all parts of the island are sent annually to a general assembly, the "fono," at which the public affairs of the colony are discussed, though the meeting has no authority to make laws. As to native customs, tattooing is universally practiced on men, and frequently on women, despite the efforts of the missionaries and authorities to discourage it. The operation is painful, and the subject is usually laid up for several days following the tattooing, which itself takes three or four days.

The population has decidedly increased under the American régime, and was 7,251 in 1912.

Agriculture in Porto Rico is undergoing important changes, under the direction of the United States experiment station, whose changes lie in the lines of (1) diversification, and (2) adjustment to changed economic conditions. Much of the capital formerly invested in extensive sugar plantations has now been diverted to fruit growing, which in a dozen years has increased in exports from a few thousand dollars to several million. The experiment station is conducting a survey of the island to determine which sections are best adapted to fruit growing, and experiments for improving the fruit industry in every way are being carried on. Special attention is also given to the growing of the coconut and other tropical nuts and improved varieties of mango.



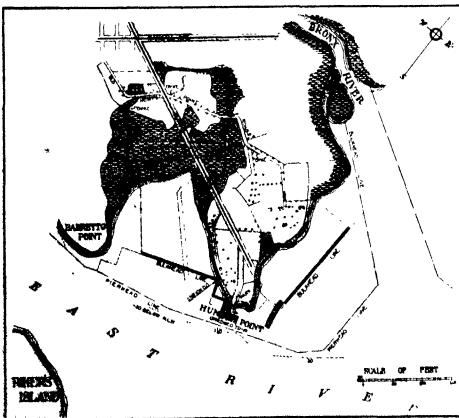
A mud-wave slowly curling over like a breaker.



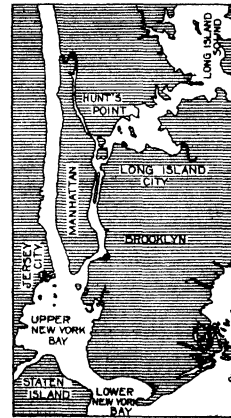
Sod dike for retaining the hydraulic fill.

Although, after much diplomatic see-sawing, England and Germany renounced all claim to the portion of the Samoan group now constituting American Samoa, and the rest of the group is now a German crown colony (or was, prior to the recent raids by Australian cruisers), the United States did not, by virtue of the International agreement, acquire sovereignty over the islands, the independence of which had previously been recognized by the three powers. The chiefs of Tutuila formally ceded their island to the United States in 1900, and in 1904 the authority of this country was recognized by the chiefs of Manua, but although these cessions were accepted by the President, they have never been acted upon by Congress. The political relations

American Samoa
THE Navy Department has recently published a pamphlet entitled "American Samoa; General Report of the Governor," which constitutes a unique reference book concerning this small and heretofore little-known American possession in the South Seas. The author is Commander W. M. Croze, U. S. N., who formerly occupied the triple post of governor of the colony, commander of



Map of the terminal site, showing the positions of the bulkheads.



Map showing position of the Hunt's Point terminal.

Morning and Evening Stars for 1915

Annual Progress of the Planets in Their Orbits

By Prof. Frederic R. Honey, Trinity College

THE year 1915 presents to the observer of "morning and evening stars" the most peculiar features of interest in planetary current events. Among the most conspicuous of these is Saturn's favorable position for observation, the planet reaching perihelion on February 21st. Jupiter's approach to perihelion steadily increases his brilliancy, while Mars, the war god, draws constantly nearer to us until he reaches his maximum proximity early in 1916.

The Sun

The Sun is a star of continuous magnitude as compared with the planets whose motions it controls. Its diameter (861,337 miles) is more than 100 times the Earth's diameter and 1,300,000 times its volume. Its axis, which is directed to a point in the heavens midway between Vega and Polaris, is inclined at an angle of 87.75 degrees to the plane of the Equator, 1° to the angle of inclination of the Equator is 7.25 degrees. The Sun's rotation in 25½ days is proved by the periodic appearance and disappearance of sun spots, which, in the months of June and December when the Earth is in the plane of the Sun's Equator, appear to move in straight paths. In March and September their apparent motions are in curved paths. On account of the Earth's movement in its orbit in the same direction as the Sun's rotation, shown by the arrows in the accompanying plots, the Sun appears to rotate in 27¼ days, the synodic period.

The Planets.

The volumes of the planets are very unevenly distributed. Jupiter and Saturn absorb nearly 94 per cent, and Uranus and Neptune together about 6 per cent of the whole, leaving a fraction of 1 per cent for the Terrestrial Planets. In plots of these dimensions the projection of an orbit on the plane of the Equator practically represents its true form. The table gives the mean distance from each planet to the Sun in terms of the Earth's mean distance (1,495,978,707 miles). Its period in years, its velocity in miles per second, the eccentricity of the orbit and the inclination of the orbit to the plane of the Equator. The intersection of the plane of a planet's orbit passing through the Sun is the line of nodes. It is shown in Mercury's orbit, but in order to avoid confusion only a small part of it is represented in each of the orbits of the other planets.

This page may be regarded as the plane of the Equator, and the point A where the planet passes from one side of the Equator to the other side, is the ascending node; V is the descending node, and P is perihelion or point of nearest approach to the Sun. The positions of the Terrestrial Planets are shown at intervals of four days, and on account of Mercury's very rapid change in velocity, the positions are given at intervals of two days. In the plots of the orbits of the Terrestrial Planets the positions of Uranus and Neptune are indicated at the dates of opposition and conjunction, and those of Jupiter and Saturn at intervals of 45 and 90 days, respectively. In the plot of the orbits of the Major Planets the positions are given for January 2nd and December 28th. A comparison of the orbit of Mars in the drawings will show the great difference of the scales of the drawings. Together they exhibit the continuity of the Solar System.

TABLE I
SOME ELEMENTS OF THE PLANETARY ORBITS

Planet	Mean Distance	Period Years	Velocity miles per Second	Known Velocity	Inclination to Equator
Mercury	0.387	0.241	28.5	0.209	7.00°
Venus	0.723	0.615	21.9	0.097	3.39°
Earth	1.000	1.000	18.5	0.017	0.00°
Mars	1.524	1.881	15.0	0.093	1.85°
Jupiter	5.203	11.862	8.1	0.048	1.31°
Saturn	9.539	29.458	6.0	0.036	2.49°
Uranus	19.191	84.013	4.2	0.047	0.77°
Neptune	30.071	164.788	3.4	0.050	1.78°

The Earth.

Our planet is an oblate spheroid whose equatorial diameter is 7,926.68 miles and polar diameter very nearly 7,900 miles. The Earth's axis, which is directed to a point in the heavens about 1¼ degrees from Polaris, is inclined at an angle of 66.55 degrees to the plane of the Equator, 1° to the inclination of the Equator is 23.45 degrees. The Earth rotates in the direction of the arrow shown at the date January 2nd in the plot of the orbits of the Terrestrial Planets. Each day the Earth moves a distance of nearly 1,900,000 miles; this movement on the orbit subtends at the Sun an angle on the average of a little less than one degree ($\frac{360^\circ}{365.25}$). Since the eccentricity is 1/60 the distance from the Sun to C, the center of the orbit (—C) is a

little over one and a half million miles, i. e., the Earth is more than three million miles nearer the Sun in January than in July.

Mercury.

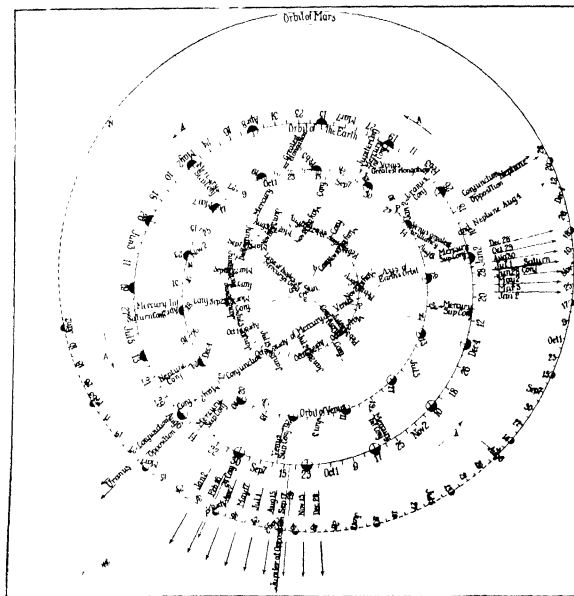
Mercury's diameter is 8,008.5 miles, and his volume is one eighteenth that of the Earth. On account of the great eccentricity of the orbit whose center is at A, the planet's velocity varies between 25 miles per second at perihelion and 23 miles at aphelion during his period of nearly eighty-eight days. Since Mercury makes more than four revolutions in the year, four dates are attached to each position. The date of greatest elongation will be March 26th (Fig. 1), when Mercury will be morning star and near aphelion. Other dates of great elongation are February 5th (evening star), May 21st (evening star), July 18th (morning star), September 27th (evening star), and November 6th (morning star). By an inspection of the plot the reader will easily decide upon the dates when Mercury will be seen to best advantage, i. e., when the planet will be farthest from the Sun. Mercury will be nearest the Earth on June 25th (visible) and farthest from the Earth on December 14th. Fig. 1 illustrates the variations in the apparent diameter of the planet during the year.

Venus.

The diameter of the planet is 7,793 miles and his volume is more than nine tenths the Earth's volume. Owing to the small eccentricity of the orbit, its center can scarcely be distinguished from the Sun in a plot of these dimensions. The period of the planet is 224.7 days, which means that Venus makes more than one and a half revolutions in the year. The dates for the first revolution are affixed without the orbit; those for the second revolution within the orbit. Fig. 2 (January 2nd) shows Venus at the date of greatest brilliancy—the beautiful crescent phase, which occurs five weeks before and after inferior conjunction. February 6th is the date of greatest elongation and September 12th that of superior conjunction. The drawing gives the apparent diameter at the date of conjunction, if the Sun were out of the way.

Mars.

Mars's diameter is 4,540 miles and his volume is one fifth the volume of the Earth. While the eccentricity of Mercury's orbit is greater than that of any of the



Orbit of the terrestrial planets for 1915.

Fig. 1. Mercury

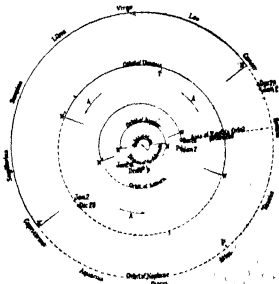
March 20 June 25 Nov. 14
Variations in the apparent diameter of Mercury.

Fig. 2. Venus

Jan 2 Feb 6 Sept. 12
Venus at greatest brilliancy.

Fig. 3. Mars

Jan 2 July 1 Dec. 28
Increase in apparent diameter of Mars as it approaches the Earth.
[These three diagrams are drawn to scale.]



Orbit of the major planets for 1915.

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

Directed Fog Signals

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

The letter from Mr. R. F. Blake in your issue of December 10th recalls an old idea of mine. I have often wondered at its not being used by all vessels having steam whistles. It is to have a brass megaphone over the whistle so that the sound would go directly forward. Of course the sound would go farther and in a more direct line. When a number of vessels are in a fog, as it is now, the sound waves going out in circles from each whistle, makes it difficult to tell in what direction the vessel is moving. The megaphone, to my mind, would be very inexpensive and of much service in determining the approach of a ship.

Wm. Bradley Abbot

Bradlee Farm, Sharon, Mass.

Left-hand v. Right-hand Drive

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

The writer, who has been one of your interested readers and subscribers for a great number of years, was most interested in an article under the heading of "Automobile Notes" in your issue of November 28th, in which you stated that there was noticed recently a tendency to "hog the road" by the drivers of motorcars having a left-hand drive, and it recalled to my mind that this same statement was made to me by a salesman of a car still using right-hand drive at a recent automobile show, so that it is evident that such a notion has been so ingrained by the sales force of these cars that it is being spread to the ordinary driver in their continued use of the out-of-date right-hand drive, and it seems odd that you should be misled by such a specious argument.

The writer has driven right-hand drive cars for a great number of years and more recently left-hand drive altogether; and since the statement as quoted above was made to him some two months ago, he has made note on the road of the disposition of both right and left-hand drive car operators to find out whether or not there was any basis for such an argument, and under this observation he is convinced that this situation exists solely in the minds of certain salesmen as a selling argument in favor of an acknowledged out-of-date driving position.

As has been noticed there is much, if not more, disposition of left-hand drive car operators to give you half or more of the road than right-hand drive car operators, and I feel sure that it is due entirely to the fact that the driver on the left-hand side can judge very much better exactly how much room he is giving the other driver coming toward him because of his much better position on the passing side of his car, and from my driving experience in the last two years with a left-hand drive car I can frankly say that it is the equal in every way of the right drive position on any of the roads that I have encountered in some twenty to twenty-five thousand miles driving during this time.

Dayton, Ohio, C. C. BLACKMORE.

C. C. BLACKMORE.

The Mississippi River Problem

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Capt. Beaugard Roberts, a man of much experience on our local rivers, said to me the other day that he believed the way to handle the Mississippi River problem was to pump the sand bars out of the river. He said that the present pumps were not strong enough to pump up the current from eroding banks was carried to the next eddy and deposited, eventually forming a sandbar. The sandbar deflected the current, making the river narrower and causing a faster current. The current at Mobile was slower since the dredging out of the river in front of the city, he said, and while in the Gulf of Mexico the current was so strong that it was trouble in towing, now they had no trouble whatever. Loss in rate would sometimes stand on end, showing in this manner the peculiar character of the current caused by the uneven character of the bottom of the river. It seems to me that Capt Roberts is correct in this analysis. It is true that the current is not confined to the present channel does not occur out the river in its bed and take the mud out into the Gulf between New Orleans, but the silt and alluvial soil from above form bars along its course and raise the bed, the constantly increasing deposits must be removed by artificial means, unless the levee system is abandoned and the river left to flood and deposit its silt on the shore's.

As it is improbable that the levee system will be abandoned at its present stage, it seems to me that it would be a wise idea to use the released centrifugal

dragdges recently used in dredging the Panama Canal on the Mississippi River, working up from New Orleans, and gradually removing the sandbars and creating a uniform flow of the water across the whole bed of the river, the river rising rapidly to the pressure from the flood above. The sandbars are removed by the dredges, raised above the front or back of the levees, making an impenetrable rampart to withstand the pressure of the water in the river when it reached the levees. The removal of the sandbars at the same time would prevent any further damage to the levees, and the current against the banks and save them from caving. The bends themselves, which in some measure are responsible for the deflection of the currents, could eventually be removed, the centrifugal dredge acting through the soft mud rapids, making a small canal, and the current would be straightened out. The bends are responsible to a large measure for these bends, the current going around them and the bars constantly building out. The deflection of a current by any means on one side of the river will cause the bank to cave on the opposite side, and the current will be deflected to the eddy being deposited and forming a sandbar. As the building of a levee by a centrifugal dredge certainly would be far less expensive than the mule shod system, the river being dredged out at the same time it seems to me that the levee boards along the Mississippi River could be removed, the current straightened out, saving the expenses of operating the dredges.

Mobile, Ala.

GEORGE B. CLEVELAND, JR.

Light from Electricians' Black Tape

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Unfamiliar facts about very familiar things are constantly being discovered. In the writer's experience, a case of this kind which seems to have heretofore escaped observation, or at least publication, is that of the light sometimes emitted from ordinary electrician's black tape or tire tape. If the tape be quickly stripped off a wire, a bright light is seen at the point where the tape leaves the roll. This light is of sufficient intensity to be seen when the eyes are accustomed to mild diffused daylight. If the tape be rolled up again very tightly and allowed to remain thus for some time a less intense light may sometimes be observed on again stripping off the tape, though this second development of light cannot be depended upon. Significant as this fact seems, it is not similar, though the light is not so bright.

The cause of the phenomenon is as yet unknown. static electricity, chemiluminescence and triboluminescence have all been suggested the last appearing to be somewhat the more probable.

Pittsburgh, Pa.

F. ALEX. MCDERMOTT

Loss of the "Bulwark"

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Your article of December 12th 1914, on the loss of the pre dreadnought "Rutwick"

This ship had four 18-inch torpedo tubes. Is it not more likely that some fumbling with the war-head of a torpedo blew her up, rather than an accident with the ordinary ammunition? M. J. MERRILL

M. J. Meehan 12

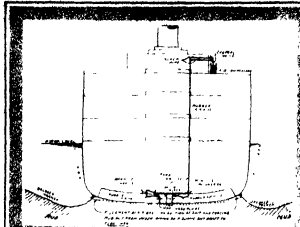
London, England

A Safety Code for Abrasive Wheels

KNOWING that the majority of the accidents that occur in the use of grinding machines are the result of ignorance of some of the factors essential to safety, and that this lack of appreciation and understanding of proper conditions extends to insurance executives, State factory inspectors, and officials of labor organizations, the American Society of Safety has appointed a committee to draw up a code for the safe use and care of abrasive wheels and the parts of grinding machines relating thereto. This code had in view not only the supplying to users of grinding machinery and abrasive wheels with complete information and instructions for the safe operation of this class of tools, and the securing of uniformity of practice, but also intended to be used as the basis for a campaign for uniform State laws and uniform insurance rules.

This code covers every detail relating to the operating of grinding machinery, including specifications of the proper sizes of wheels and spindles to be used, proper running speeds, sizes and kinds of fittings, and the correct manner of fitting wheels, protection hoods, testing wheels, and all technical details necessary for their safe operation. It is hardly necessary to add that a carefully prepared code of instructions, prepared by competent experts, such as this, is of economical value to all users of this class of machines, as it enables them to secure increased efficiency and avoid delays.

The code prepared by the committee above referred to has been subscribed to and adopted by almost every manufacturer of abrasive wheels in this country and Canada, and it has also been approved by the National Machine Tool Builders' Association.



When the "Zeeland" went ashore during a fog she ran into the mud nearly three feet above her usual light load line. A channel was dredged, but the mud beneath her could not be reached. The salvors loosened the ship by forcing compressed air beneath the bottom.

Floating a Stranded Ship on Air

Refloating the Steamship "Zeeland"

By Robert G. Skerrett

THE famous prophecies of Mother Shipton included, among other things, that the day would come when ships would float upon air, and she probably foretold the giant Zeppelin. Recently, however, a liner of more than 11,000 tons has been supported by a mere film of air! In fact, this old English prophetic has thus been many times outdone.

On Friday, the 13th of November last, the steamship "Zeeland," bound up the St. Lawrence for Montreal went ashore during a fog. She was running so fast that she forced herself upon the mud nearly three feet above her usual light load line. The liner was trying to make haste to take on cargo and be off for England with the least possible delay. As navigation generally closes somewhere about the 22nd of November in those waters, the ship had but little time to spare. The question was how to get her off the mud and back into the channel expeditiously. The thing immediately needful was to dredge a channel for her, and this was done, including removing the mud from both sides of her. This left the vessel, however, supported upon a mound beneath her that could not be removed by the dredges, nor could a fleet of tugs and the "Zeeland's" own engines, of more than 12,000 horse-power, dislodge the stranded liner. The grip or suction of the mud was too tenacious.

The salvors hit upon what they thought was a happy expedient. They advised cutting the rivets of a number of plates in the ship's bottom so as to let these go, and then to charge the double bottom space and certain of the neighboring compartments with compressed air, the air to leak out through the holes so made, and, in working its way surfaceward, to break the seal between the craft's skin and the adhering mud. This probably would have done well enough, but it would have obliged the ship to go into drydock and to have the plates replaced—work that would have taken a day or two and at a time when every hour counted.

Mr. W. W. Wotherpoon, representing the Yankee Salvage Company of New York city, was called into consultation and proposed a novel substitute to which the contract salvors and the underwriters agreed. Mr. Wotherpoon sent his men down into the double bottom

of the "Zeeland" where they tapped two holes in the inner ends of fourteen brass drainage-plugs already in the liner's bottom plating, which had been placed there from the outside when the ship was built. Keel wrenches were fitted into these newly drilled holes and the drainage plugs released by unscrewing them outward and allowing them to sink into the mud.

Immediately afterward, threaded pipe connections were screwed into the holes and rubber hose attached thereto. This hose was then joined up to mains leading from a working air compressor which was installed for the purpose. This air compressor had a capacity of 1,000 cubic feet of free air per minute, and the fourteen holes were widely distributed along the ship's underbody.

This done, a stout wire hawser was looped around the bow of the liner, and each end led to a securely moored dredge, where it was passed around the drums of powerful winches. Lines were led to five tandem teams of tugs, representing a total horse-power of 14,000. Besides this, the ship's boats were put overboard to lighten her, some other weights removed for the same purpose, and nearly 1,700 tons of water ballast drained from her bottom tanks. The ship's engines were alternately worked forward and backward at full power, helping to shake the craft violently. Then the compressed air was blown through the bottom outlets, the seal with the mud was thus broken, and inside of ten minutes from the starting of the tugs and the dredges, which previously had been unable to dislodge the "Zeeland," the liner floated and was promptly towed off into deep water. Under her own steam she sailed at once for Montreal, where she was loaded, and a little later left for England before lee interfered. Screw plugs, inserted from within the ship, replaced the original drainage plugs when the compressed air connections were withdrawn. The substitution was a simple matter quickly effected.

Mr. Wotherpoon had an earlier example for his inspiration, but his employment of compressed air was novel. When the old battleship "Maine" was ready for redocking from the bed of Havana harbor, water jets were used around outside of her at the mud line and through holes drilled in the bottom of the hull. In this

fashion the seal between the ship's plating and the mud was broken, and when the cofferdam space was ultimately filled the "Maine" floated easily away from her long resting place. The searching and buoyant character of compressed air made Mr. Wotherpoon's method a more certain one, and the rising streams of bubbles spread out and actually provided a supporting film for the big liner.

The Current Supplement

IN the issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT for January 23rd, No. 2088, there is an interesting abstract of a lecture delivered by Sir Ronald Ross at Charing Cross Hospital on Malaria and the Transmission of Disease that gives an outline of the history of the theories and the part played by parasites. There is also an account of various investigations by the author that verify modern theories. Applied Electric Science in 1914, by Prof. A. E. Kennelly, of Harvard University, gives a comprehensive survey of the year in this field. An article on the Great Toothed Divers of America, by Dr. R. W. Shufeldt, discloses a remarkable class of prehistoric birds, with illustrations. Our Berlin correspondent sends a timely account of a lecture by a celebrated German surgeon giving his experience on the battlefield during the present war, with comments and explanations of various injuries. A Great Railway Electrification Project tells of plans that are being carried out that will have a decided influence on the future application of electricity for hauling trains, for it includes the handling of both passenger and freight traffic through some of the heaviest sections of our Western mountain country. Excellent illustrations accompany the article. Arithmetical Machines covers the history of these devices, which are much older than most people suppose, and the fundamental theories and principles are set forth clearly and practically. The valuable treatise on Suction Between Floating Ships, that began in the first issue of this year, is completed in the present number with a valuable summary of cases. An article on Fluorescence of Petroleum Distillates sets forth various theories on the subject, and tells of a number of experiments.

A Submarine for the Austro-Hungarian Navy

The Latest Krupp Design in Underwater Terrors

By Frederick C. Coleman

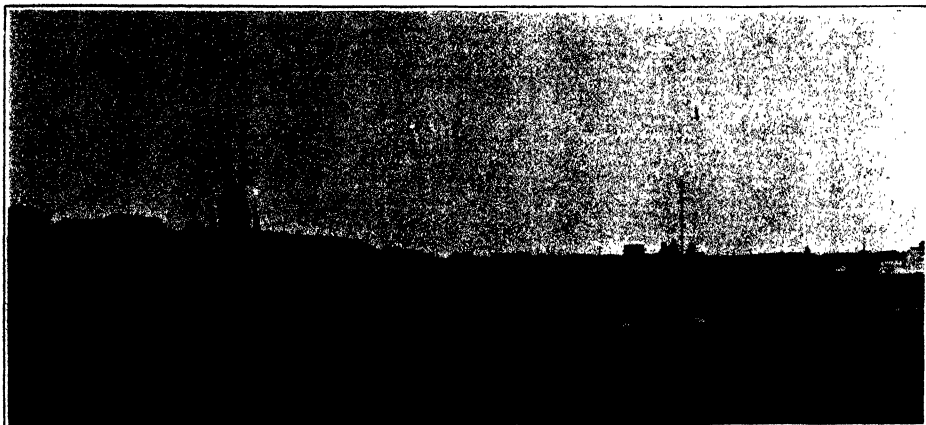
Two latest additions to the submersible craft of the Austro-Hungarian navy are represented in the two boats, "U-1" and "U-2," built at the Germania yard, Kiel, of Messrs. Fried. Krupp, Ltd. These boats, illustrated in the accompanying two photographs, have an extreme length of 142 feet, a breadth of 12 feet 4 inches, and a draught (surface) of 9 feet 8 inches. They have an under-water displacement of 800 tons and a surface displacement of 235 tons. The vessels have a double hull, the inside hull being a cigar-shaped watertight body having a structural strength calculated to resist the hydraulic pressure corresponding to a depth of 195 feet. This inner hull is shown, and a view of the first of these two boats taken shortly after launching is also given. The watertight hull is formed of nine

circular welded sections, three of which, amidships, are cylindrical, the others, fore and aft, being conical. The hull is subdivided, by means of bulkheads, into several watertight compartments. The bow section contains the torpedo armament and accessories; the next section is occupied by the crew and store room for electrical batteries, and contains also a galley, with electrical cooking range, and lavatory accommodation. The inner ballast tanks are situated amidships, and just below the conning tower is placed the steering gear for the two pairs of diving rudders. The engine room contains internal combustion machinery and electric motors, while the last watertight compartment aft is reserved for another battery of accumulators.

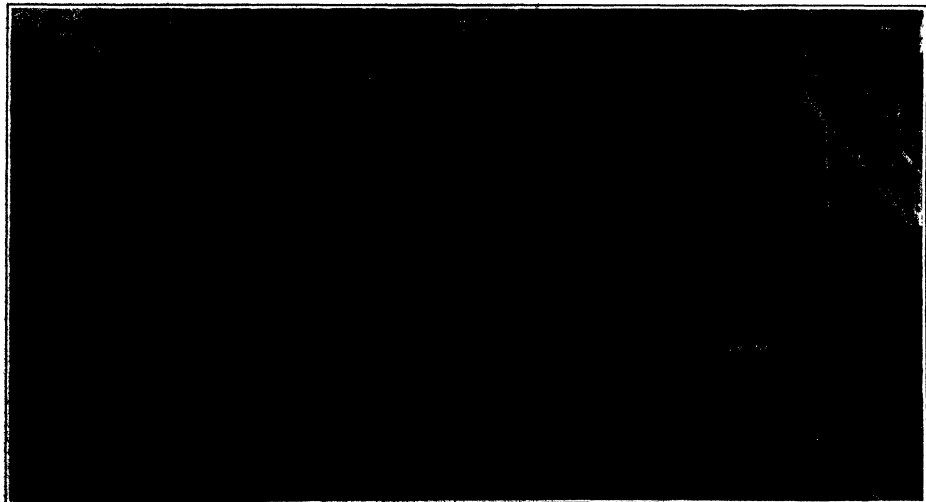
The outside hull does not differ much in shape from

that of an ordinary torpedo boat, and is so designed in order to give the boat good sea-going qualities. A weather deck extends throughout almost the whole length of the ship and can accommodate the crew when the boat is traveling on the surface. Between the deck platform and the inside hull the kerosene and most of the water-ballast pipes are fitted. The conning tower, situated amidships, is framed of strong nickel-steel plates capable of resisting the attack of small guns. It is fitted with two periscopes and all the appliances necessary to control the ship in action. The only opening which gives access to the vessel is placed immediately above the conning tower. Communication between the conning turret and the steering gear below is effected

(Continued on page 89)



Length, 142 feet. Breadth, 12 feet 4 inches. Draught, at Surface, 9 feet 8 inches. Displacement: Surface, 235 tons; submerged, 800 tons. Speed: Surface, 12 knots; submerged, 8.6 knots.
One of two German-built submarines for the Austrian navy.



This hull consists of nine circular welded sections. Upon this is built the lighter outside hull of surface torpedo-boat form.

The inner cylindrical section of the latest submarines for the Austrian navy.



Fig. 1.—Weighing out the formin.

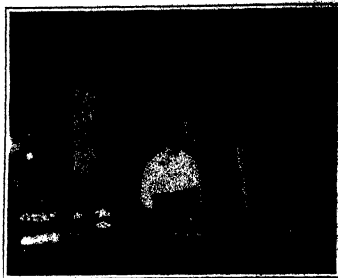


Fig. 2.—Melting the formin and carbolic acid.

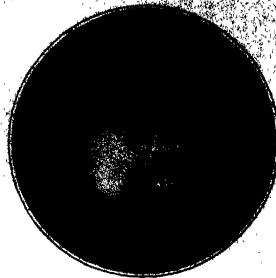


Fig. 3.—Filling the molds.

Synthetic Resins

Non-inflammable Substitutes for Celluloid and Rubber

NEW synthetic resins have been discovered recently and are appearing on the market under many trade names. The resins are used in the production of materials such as artificial ivory, pipe-stems, tooth-brush handles, beads transparent jewelry, buttons of all sizes, mold work, knife handles, fountain pens, etc., and take the place of bone horn, ivory, celluloid, amber, casein (zallolith), ebony, and hard rubber.

These artificial resins in their final conditions do not melt or even soften appreciably at all temperatures, and do not burn like rubber or celluloid. When heated in the air to temperatures well above 500 deg. Fahr. the resins char and burn slowly without a flame. They are quite insoluble in all ordinary solvents, such as gasoline, alcohol, ammonia, washing soda, and acids.

Recent discoveries made in the Industrial Department of Kansas State University have produced artificial resins, both in the synthetic resins themselves and the method of producing the same. These discoveries have revolutionized the method of producing synthetic resins and indeed very great changes and differences are brought about in the resins themselves.

By the old or wet process, the resins are produced very simply by boiling together carbolic acid and formaldehyde in the presence of a third substance, a condensing agent which serves to hasten the formation of the resins. When formaldehyde and a condensing agent are used the resins are produced in the presence of water and the resins must be separated from the layer of water, washed free of the condensing agent and dried. They are then further heated or molded in whatever way is desirable and the final hard resin is produced by heating, generally under pressure, at temperatures upward of 175 deg. Cent.

In the new dry or anhydrous process, phenol, i. e., carbolic acid, is heated together, in a dry condition, with formin. No water is present during the formation of the resins and no condensing agent is needed which at times is so troublesome and which must later be removed from the resin by careful washing.

This dry reaction in one simple operation produces the resins, which are at first beautiful golden yellow colored liquids which are entirely free from any substance such as water or condensing agent which must be removed at considerable expense when the resins are produced by the old or wet process. And these dry liquid resins pass under suitable treatment into solid masses which present very closely the appearance of genuine amber.

Formin, the material used to convert the phenol in its dry condition into the anhydrous resin, is a white transparent substance, of sweetish hot taste, in appearance like table salt and having the color of salt. It is known to the organic chemist under the formidable name of hexamethylenetramine.

The operator in Fig. 1 is shown weighing out the white salt-like formin. The weighed materials are transferred into a flask shown at Fig. 2, fitted with an air condenser of glass, and are heated carefully. The carbolic acid and formin soon melt to a golden liquid, and after sufficient boiling the liquid is poured while still quite hot, into molds, Fig. 3, of desired shape and the filled molds are transferred to an open oven without pressure, where they are further heated for the final hardening. This method of forming the resins has the very great advantage that there is no water or condensing agent from which the resins must be separated and dried. A further great advantage consists in being able to produce these resins rapidly without the use of the counter pressure which is so desirable

or even necessary when the volatile formaldehyde is used.

After the liquid resin has been heated in the molds for twenty-four hours, it has solidified and has set into the exact shape of the mold. It is then removed from the molds and returned to the oven for further heating. The resin, as it first comes from the mold, is quite soft and can be bent or twisted into any shape very easily and sets permanently in whatever shape it is held for the final heating. The operator in Fig. 4, is shown bending between his fingers two soft plastic pipe-stems, which have just been removed from the molds. The soft pieces are replaced in the oven, and heated at a very low temperature for several days, at the end of this heating a beautiful transparent yellow material is produced which is harder than silver, gold, or nickel, marble or ivory. Its tensile strength varies from 5,000 to 6,000 pounds per square inch and even higher. It is very interesting and novel to one unacquainted with the great strength of the material to see three tons of iron

suspended from a rod of the resin one inch in diameter. The luster is higher than that of amber or any of the natural resins and its refractive index (1.646) is greater than that of crown glass.

The transparent goods are remarkably permanent as regards color. Indeed, one of the great advantages possessed by the dry anhydrous resins over those produced by the wet process is their inertness to color changes caused by direct sunlight. The dry resins do not redden rapidly when exposed to direct sun rays.

After the resin has received its final hardening it is shaped and polished on flat horizontal wheels, with fine emery, carborundum, or tripoli. The final polishing is done with oiled buffing wheels. If the molding has been done with sufficient care, the grinding and polishing is quite unnecessary except where a perfect surface and a very high gloss is desired.

These resins can be produced at a cost which can compete for cheapness with the natural resins, such as amber, or with jet, hard rubber, etc. They may be dyed any color, from a pale yellow or ruby red, to a transparent black of great depth and brilliancy. When made into jewelry, such as beads, their high refractive index gives a brilliancy and transparency surpassing the finest amber.

The resins are also used as binders of glass, and since they are incombustible and do not melt they are of the greatest value as a glue for making hot-water pump valves, valve disks which withstand 650 deg. Fahr. in dry steam, steam pipe gaskets and valves for acid pumps, and pump packing of all kinds. Lists of articles which may be made from these resins when properly combined with suitable fillers are indeed legion. Light pulleys, very uniform in weight, artificial board from sawdust and wood fiber, frictionless bearings for use in machinery for cotton, wool, and silk industries where the machinery cannot be oiled or for bearings under water, ebonite and compoundboard, switchboards, heat and electric insulating materials, and heat and electric insulating parts of every conceivable kind are produced at prices which compete readily with the less satisfactory articles which have been on the market up to the present time. Very beautiful transparent and opaque handles are being produced for chaffin dishes, coffee percolators, samovars, etc., whose strength and beauty must be combined with good heat insulating qualities.

Paints, varnishes, and lacquers are also produced from these resins by dissolving in suitable solvents such as alcohol, acetone, and benzine oil, the resins when they are in the initial or soft state. These coatings, after heating, are almost indestructible by fumes, acids, solvents, salts, or chemicals which corrode metals. Brassware, such as bolts, nuts, washers, chandeliers and auto lamps, when lacquered with these resins do not tarnish, as the lacquer film is transparent and indestructible. Varnished surfaces may be set up, cold or even boiling water without fear that the water, or the paints, when made with the proper fillers, are the best possible protection for water surfaces exposed to corrosive agencies. The ordinary paint under accelerated electrolytic tests back fires in less than twelve hours; coatings made from synthetic resins are unaffected in any way in one hundred hours.

These varnishes and lacquers make very fine dielectric impregnating liquids for electric purposes. The dry films have a dielectric strength of 30,000 volts per millimeter and a resistance of 20 to 30 ohms per square centimeter. Paper cartons coated with this substance become impervious not only to liquid fats and oils, but also to kerosene and gasoline.

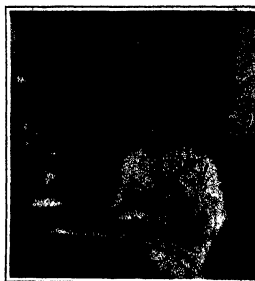


Fig. 4.—Bending pipe bits while gelatinous.

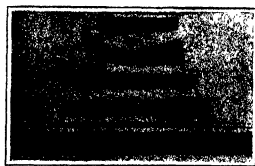


Fig. 5.—Transparent rods and pipe-stems.



Fig. 6.—Polishing the resins.

Curiosities of Bygone Ages

Relics from New Mexico and from Bible Lands

Relics of an Ancient People in New Mexico.

BY E. E. WILSON.

AZTEC, New Mexico, is located in the northwest corner of the State and in the midst of the ruins of a prehistoric men that at one time was thickly watered throughout the region. Irrigated farms now line the valley of the Rio de Las Animas River, where once the roughly built stone dwellings of the ancient people stood. No writings of any kind remain to tell who the builders of those pueblos were or where they went. The Navajo Indian occupied the region when the first white men entered this mountain recess over thirty years ago. The Navajo traditions are unreliable as to the vanished race. One of them is that the Navajo chased the ancient people into the river and they all were turned into fish.

In excavating one of these ancient dwellings that might have been inhabited as late as 1,500 years ago, Mrs. Orren Randall, living on a farm about a mile west of the modern Aztec, uncovered a curiosity that is one of the most interesting of relics. It is an image or idol, formed of the clay like the pottery that is found so plentifully here. The image is perhaps 16 inches high and is perfect with the exception of one missing leg. It was found with its back against the back of a human skeleton. At the side was found a large bowl with handsome decorations as well as several smaller bowls and mugs.

Archaeologists have viewed the ruins near where this relic was found, and they estimate that it is 1,500 years since the ruins were inhabited. Arrow points, bone needles, stone ax heads, rocks for grinding grain, corn cobs, bowls of all sizes, mugs, vases, beads, pumpkin rinds and many other things are found by digging into the dilapidated dwellings.

Another Remarkable Discovery in Babylonia.

BY EDGAR J. BANKS.

IN THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN not long since there appeared a translation of a long inscription upon a large clay cylinder of Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylonia from 604 to 561 B. C. The cylinder was found in the walls of the temple at Marad, south of Babylon, where Nebuchadnezzar buried it for future generations to read. Near the end of the long inscription is an account of the restoration of the temple at Marad in these words:

"At that time in the temple of Lugul-Maradda, my lord, in Marad, whose foundation no former king had seen since ancient days, I sought and found the ancient foundation stone, and upon the base of Naram-Sin, my ancient ancestor, I fixed its foundation. I wrote an inscription and my name and placed it therein."

No tale in fiction is more marvelous than the tale that the archaeologist may now tell. The foundation stone of Naram-Sin, the same inscribed stone which Nebuchadnezzar says "no former king had seen since ancient days" has been discovered. A photograph of the inscription upon it is here reproduced.

Who was Naram-Sin, this ancient ancestor of Nebuchadnezzar? Not long ago, when his name first appeared, he was regarded as one of the mythical characters with which prehistoric times was supposed to be peopled. Some years ago in the North Babylonian ruin Abu Habis, the ancient Sippar of the Bible, there was found an inscribed cylinder of Nebuchadnezzar, the last king of Babylonia, 555-538 B. C., and the father of the Biblical Belshazzar. In the inscription Nebuchadnezzar says that, while restoring the temple of the moon-god, he dug to the foundation and saw the foundation stone of Naram-Sin, the son of Sargon, which his former king had seen for 3,200 years. Nebuchadnezzar was amazed at the statement, and at the long period of time which was mentioned. If Naram-Sin lived 3,200 years before the age of Nebuchadnezzar, or before 555 B. C., his date was 3755 B. C. Though he was regarded as a mythical being, inscriptions from both him and his father, Sargon, began to appear. On a clay tablet was the story of the birth of Sargon, very similar to that of the birth of Moses. Finally on a tablet in the mountains of Armenia a sculptured figure representing Naram-Sin was discovered. Then in several of the Babylonian ruins large square bricks bearing the name of Sargon, and Naram-Sin were found



Relics dug from ancient ruins near Aztec, New Mexico.

tain that Naram-Sin lived as long before the time of Nebuchadnezzar as Nebuchadnezzar lived before our time.

The foundation stone of Naram-Sin is in the form commonly called a door-socket. The Babylonians seem to have been unacquainted with hinges for their doors. At one side of the doorway was placed a large flat stone with a cup-shaped hollow in its center. Into the hollow was fitted the wooden door post, which revolved as the door was opened and shut. Similar door posts and door sockets are still to be seen in houses of modern Babylonia. The stone door socket corresponded to our corner stone or foundation stone. It is sometimes bore about the hollow, where it might easily be seen the inscription of the royal builder.

The inscription of Naram-Sin seen by Nebuchadnezzar and recently found by the Arabs, is on a round yellowish calcite stone about twenty inches in diameter. The unscribed part of the stone has been cut away. The inscription in its two columns contains thirty-eight short lines. Its characters are of a very archaic form. Its translation reads:

"Naram-Sin, the mighty king of the four quarters of the earth, who subdued nine armies in one year. When he overcame those armies he made them three kings captive, and brought them before the god Enlil. On that day Enlil-Il, his son, the governor of Marad, built the temple of Lugul-Maradda, Marad."

"May the gods Shamash and Lugul-Maradda destroy the estate and exterminate the seed of him who alters this inscribed stone."

The inscription is of historical importance. It positively identifies the very ancient Marad with the ruin mounds of Wana-Sudum and thus another long lost city may be restored to the map of Babylonia. It mentions a son of Naram-Sin, Enlil-Il, hitherto unknown and speaks of him as the governor of Marad. Another god, Lugul-Maradda, is added to the Babylonian pantheon, and what is no less interesting is that the accuracy of Nebuchadnezzar's statement is established. The very inscription which two thousand years ago he said he saw at the foundation of the temple, and which even then had already lain there for perhaps three thousand years, has been discovered.

A Quadrilingual Inscription From Queen Esther's Husband.

The prize for which the excavator among the buried cities of the ancient civilizations of the Orient is always searching is a bilingual inscription. If one of the two languages of the inscription he hopes to find has not yet been deciphered he thus has a key to a long-lost tongue. With that key he hopes to unlock the secrets of some ancient kingdom and restore to the world history and literature which has long been forgotten. The most famous of the trilingual inscriptions is the famous Rosetta Stone in the hieroglyphic and demotic languages of ancient Egypt, and in Greek. Arabs discovered it at Rosetta in 1799, and it enabled Champollion to translate the inscriptions on the monuments of ancient Egypt. Another trilingual inscription of equal importance was found among the ruins of the palace of the Persian king, Darius, at Persepolis. Two of its three languages were Persian and Babylonian. By means of it Grotefend deciphered the cuneiform language of Babylonia and restored to the world the vast

(Continued on page 88)

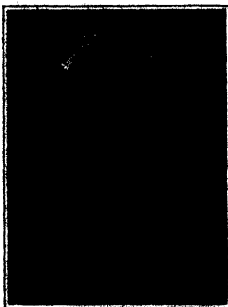
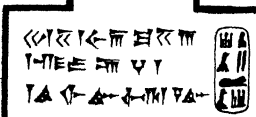
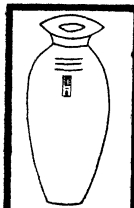


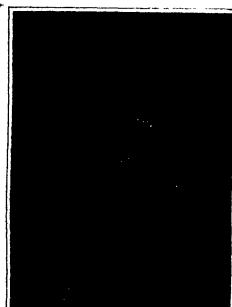
Image of clay discovered in the New Mexico ruins.



"Xerxes the Great King" in four languages.



Inscription of Naram-Sin, King of Babylonia, 3755 B. C., which Nebuchadnezzar says that he saw.



Fragments of the vase of Ahazuerus in the New York Public Library.

Inventions New and Interesting

Simple Patent Law : Patent Office News : Notes on Trademarks

Cleaning A City's Water Mains

By J. F. Springer

PEOPLE in general have no realization of the effect of sedimentation and incrustation upon the operation of a city's water system. Indeed, it is probable that, because of the gradual character of the changes, many municipal governments have only a very imperfect knowledge of what is really transpiring. The de-



Fig. 1.—This indicates the pressure and flow of water in a street main that is obstructed by sediment and incrustation.

posits have two effects. First, they cause friction from the irregularity of surface produced. It is reliably stated that nodules projecting no more than $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch may seriously affect the flow of water through pipes, even though they are separated from one another by appreciable distances and involve only a small fraction of the interior area. It is even said that the variations in smoothness of the interior coating of a new pipe may make a difference in delivery amounting to as much as 25 per cent. An illustration of the retarding effects of irregularities is seen in the necessity of

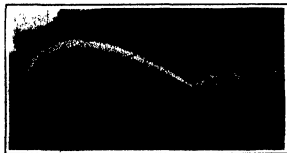


Fig. 2.—A test of the main shown in Fig. 1 after it had been partially cleaned.

cleaning a ship's bottom fouled with incrustation no thicker than $\frac{1}{4}$ inch. The second effect of deposits consists in the reduction of the effective diameter of the pipe. The combined effects of the two may become very serious. An 8-inch water main in the city of Camden, N. J., had become so obstructed from the accumulations of half a century that instead of delivering over 1,000,000 gallons of water per twenty-four hour day, it had a capacity of only 225,000 gallons. Another illustration may be derived from the experience of Belle



Fig. 3.—This shows the pressure made available by fully cleaning the water main.

Plaine, Iowa. Here a cast iron water pipe nearly a mile long and 6 inches in diameter had a capacity when clean of 335 gallons per minute, with a pressure of 60 pounds. This pipe became so choked that a pressure of 125 pounds was necessary in order to deliver 245 gallons per minute.

Not long ago the city of Hartford, Conn., came to the realization that its system of water mains would soon be inadequate to supply the demand. There are three

mains, two of them having a diameter of 30 inches, and one a diameter of 36 inches. There were two methods of meeting conditions, either of which promised success. First, a new supply pipe, 36 inches in diameter and 6½ miles in length, could be laid at an estimated cost of \$270,000. In five years the compound interest at 5 per cent would amount to \$74,500. The alternative solution of the problem was to clean the pipes already laid, and thus bring them back to their original capacity. It was estimated that this method of handling the matter would enable the city to defer the laying of a new main for five years. Accordingly, it was a question of the cost of the cleaning. This was found to be only a fraction of the \$74,500. Consequently, it was decided to clean out the pipe, and two thirds of the total of nine miles was cleaned.

There are several mechanical methods of cleaning. At Hartford a curious appliance, not unlike some huge caterpillar, was passed through a long length of pipe. This appliance cut away incrustations and scraped away loose material. During the application of this mechanical device a flow of water was maintained in the pipe. In this way the debris was flushed out. The whole apparatus was a little less than 9 feet long, and consisted of a number of parts secured to a central shaft which was jointed or hinged at a number of points. This jointing of the shaft makes the 3-foot apparatus quite flexible, so that corners can be readily rounded. The first part of the cleaner consists of three spiders arranged on the central shaft like vertebrae on the spinal cord. These spiders are provided with saw-tooth blades projecting perpendicularly to the shaft, which cut and tear away the incrustation and scale adhering to the pipe wall. Behind these forward spiders are two others, provided with smooth scrapers. The work of the scrapers is less violent than that of the saw teeth, and they clear away material left by the latter. Next are two pistons which fit the pipe wall closely by means of leather gaskets pressed out against the pipe by steel springs. Valves are arranged in the pistons to provide for a regulated passage of water, so that when the apparatus is in operation a stream of water is kept flowing through the pistons, and on ahead of the whole appliance, to wash the loosened material forward, and, in fact, to carry it ultimately out into the open. Back of the pistons are two "vertebrae" which carry other scrapers, arranged in the form of right and left-hand screws, and hardened guide rollers are so arranged as to allow these latter scrapers just to touch the surface of the pipe. On each of the five spiders are arranged three deflecting disks, to throw a current of water out from the center through the cleaning blades and against the walls of the pipe in order to assist in the cleaning and to keep the various scrapers clear.

The methods of getting cleaning apparatus through the pipe are interesting. In accordance with one, the apparatus is dragged through a pipe by means of a rope and winch. Another procedure makes use of the force of the stream of water, but a considerable pressure is necessary. This was the method employed at Hartford, and the machine was carried through by means of the two pistons which provided resisting surfaces to the water current. The valves referred to above allowed the water a restricted opportunity to pass through and ahead and thus maintain a continuous flushing stream. It is estimated that 1,655,000 gallons of water were employed in cleaning 33,063 feet of water main in Hartford, which was about 20 per cent of a day's supply for the city.

The suggestion had been made that the cleaning of cast iron pipe is frequently followed by pitting at a more rapid rate, and it is possible that this may sometimes be the case, but experience has shown that no harm is done to the interior of the pipe by this process.

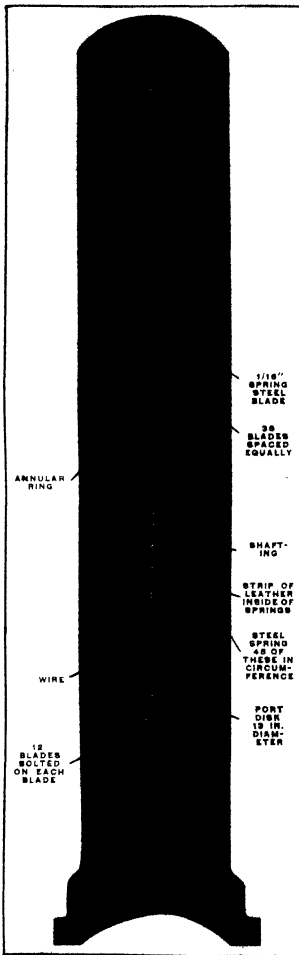
Selling Patent Rights

OFTEN we are asked to recommend some individual or company supposed to be in a position to sell a patent on an invention; but it is impossible to give definite information because no agency exists that can render such a service for patentees generally.

Machinery gives the following advice on the subject: Selling patents is very different from selling machines or real estate. The range of things covered by patents is almost unlimited, and capitalists, manufacturers, and others interested in promoting inventions for profit are widely distributed in enterprises of every description or attached to none at all. The work calls for innumerable experts. A person qualified to sell patents on shoe machinery would hardly be able to handle machine tool improvements or agricultural implements successfully.

The technical side of a patent selling business would alone require encyclopedic knowledge in a person qualified to sell all kinds of patents, and the commercial side would demand a practical acquaintance with commercial conditions in almost every trade.

An inventor with ability enough to work out a practical and valuable invention should be able to apply his powers with equal energy to effecting such relations with others as will result in making his invention profit-



A machine which is passed through a water main to remove incrustation.

able. That such a combination of the inventive and commercial faculty rarely exists is not equivalent to saying that it cannot be developed. It can be; and a man who finds himself in possession of the inventive faculty should carefully study the commercial prospects and conditions and learn how to secure financial co-operation for his ventures. To merely invent is not sufficient; the inventor should be able to produce the children of his brain in shape for others to enjoy.

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A Submarine for the Austro-Hungarian Navy

(Continued from page 84.)

by valve pipes. Aft of the conning tower is a conning platform for surface navigation. The tower is inclosed in a structure, designed on ship-shaped lines, intended to diminish the resistance met when traveling under water. These two submersibles are propelled by two two-cycle heavy oil engines, aggregating 600 horse-power for surface navigation. Two electric motors, designed to develop 520 horse-power, are used for propulsion when the boat is submerged. The motors operate two reversible screws. The engine-room outfit comprises two main and one auxiliary motor-driven bilge pumps, two hand-worked bilge pumps for exhausting bilge and ballast water, air compressors and all accessories. A particular feature of German submarine naval policy is the provision for salving appliances. These, in a way, have preceded the construction of submarine craft. This feature is also emphasized in these boats. They carry a safety keel weighing 5 tons, which can be detached by working a very simple gear, merely by the movement of a handle. By emptying the ballast tanks the boat can be floated in 1½ minutes. Several appliances have been fitted to purify vitiated air, and thus prolong the stay under water, so that the liability to accident is greatly minimized. Air connections are fitted on the outside plating, which, under certain conditions, would allow communication to be made with the atmosphere. A hoist carried on deck can be unfused from the inside of the hull in order that a telephone connection can be established with a rescuing crew. Each boat is fitted with two 18-inch Whitehead torpedo tubes and carries a supply of three torpedoes. The surface speed at trials was 12 knots, but it is anticipated that it will be surpassed in deep water trials; the submerged speed is 8 knots. At an economic speed of 10 knots the radius of action is given as 1,200 miles above water and 60 miles submerged, the speed in the latter case being 6 knots.

Curiosities of Bygone Ages

(Continued from page 87.)

literature of ancient Mesopotamian civilization. The language of the mysterious Hittites is still undeciphered, yet several scholars, confident that they have found its key, have published attempted translations, only to find that their labor has been in vain. Men have long been searching for a bilingual inscription, one of whose languages is Hittite, and one such inscription has been found. It is a little silver object about the size of half an orange, now in the British Museum. It bears the words "Turkennome King of Erme" in the cuneiform language of Babylonians, and also some Hittite hieroglyphs which probably mean the same thing, but the hieroglyphs are too few to be of service.

Recently there has been presented to the New York Public Library three fragments of a large onyx base bearing upon its side a quadrangular inscription. As far as I know this is the only quadrangular inscription yet discovered. As all of its four languages have been deciphered, it is no longer valuable as a key to a lost tongue, yet it is of no less interesting. It sheds new light upon ancient customs, and is evidence of the great intercourse among the nations of the early world.

The onyx vase, when perfect, stood 18 inches high. It had a wide lip, a short neck, and its sides curved gracefully down to its small base. The marks upon the interior walls show that the stone was turned upon a lathe. On the outer wall, just beneath the neck, are three lines of cuneiform writing. The first is in Persian, the second in Elamite, and the third is in Babylonian. Beneath the three cuneiform lines is a vertical line of writing in Egyptian hieroglyphs. The upper of the hieroglyphs are inclosed in a cartouche, showing that they spell a royal name. The inscription is very short, for in each of the four languages it merely

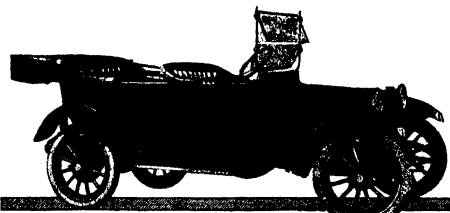
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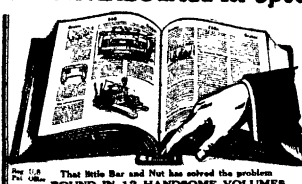
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YOU hear much, these days, of national defense, of our paucity of soldiers and war material. What are the facts? Can we defend ourselves from invasion by a foreign power? How does our Army, how does our Navy compare with the military and naval forces of other powers?

The United States—A Third Class Power

In the next magazine number of the Scientific American, to be published on February 6, 1915, these important questions will be taken up. Do you know that there are not enough regular troops in the United States Army to defend New York City? Do you know that we would have to give up the Pacific coast practically without striking a blow, if we were invaded from that side? Do you know that our State Militia is, on the whole, rather badly organized and inefficient—that it will prove anything but the second line of reserve which European powers can summon in emergency? Do you know that we are a third-class naval power?

These questions vitally concern every American citizen. They will be exhaustively discussed in the February magazine number of the Scientific American. There you will be told impartially how many ships we have and how many we need; you will be told what is our actual military strength and what it ought to be; you will be told how woefully deficient we are in munitions of war.

More Interesting War Articles

Although the subject of national defense will be the most important that will be taken up in the February magazine number, the technical aspects of the present European conflict will also receive

popular treatment. To say that there has never been a conflict like this is trite but true. Each day reveals some new artifice, scientific in character, of which the public knows nothing. It is the peculiar province of the Scientific American to describe and illustrate these developments in the art of warfare.

We hear much these days of bomb-dropping, for example. What are the difficulties of bomb-dropping? What are the dangers incurred by the bomb dropper? Mr. Carl Dienstbach's article, "Aircraft, Artillery and Bomb-Dropping," will take up these questions critically.

Detailed Pictures of Machine Guns

There will be detailed drawings of the Maxim machine gun, which is playing such a great part in this war, and also of the Lewis gun, this latter being an American weapon which has found its first application in the present European war.

"The Motorcycle in War" is the title of an article which will reveal the part that a very recent improvement in locomotion is playing in battle.

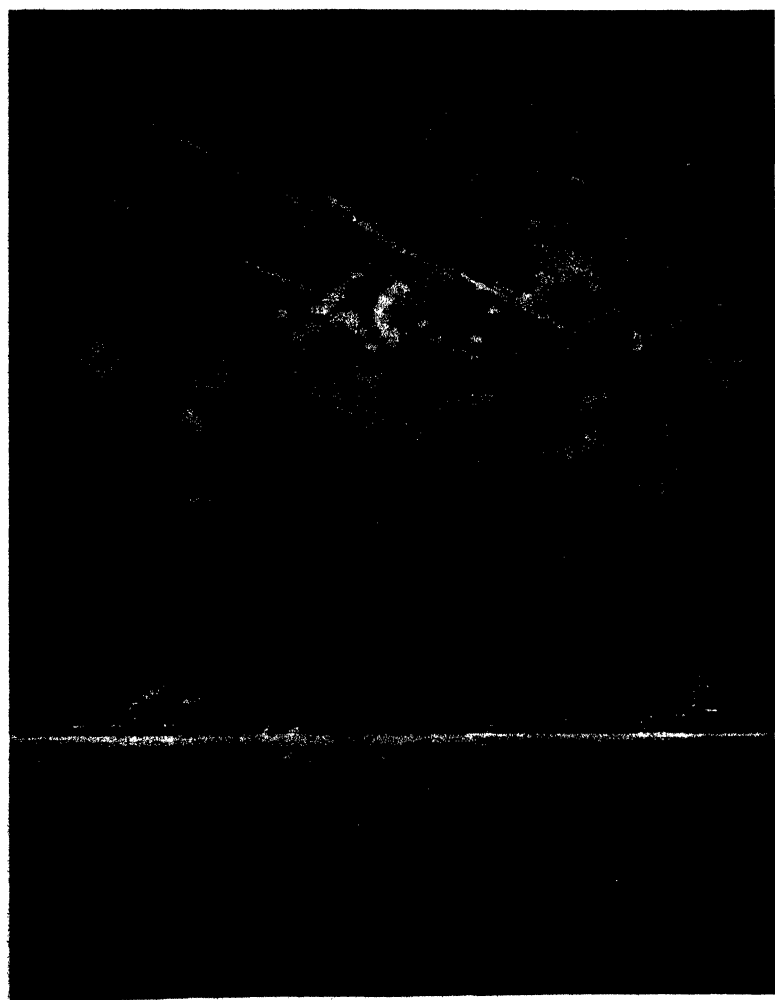
Besides these articles there will also be many pictures from the front—all of them of both popular and technical interest.

There will also be material of a generally interesting scientific character for those who wish to keep abreast of the scientific times.

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrations of articles on subjects of technical interest. If the illustrations are sharp the articles short and the facts definite, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular rates.

The purpose of this journal is to stand accurately, simply and interestingly the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

The Military Value of Airships

THE recent fall of German aircraft on England and the dropping of bombs on English coast towns confirm the view which military engineers of all nationalities long ago expressed when they discussed the efficacy of large dirigibles in technical journals. Although twenty or more bombs were cast upon the Norfolk coast towns the damage to property and the loss of life was nothing but what we had been led to expect from the terrible accounts of a Zeppelin's destruction with which we were regaled in the daily press before the war. Even the moral effect of such attacks must be slight, if they are often repeated. If Rheims went more or less placidly about its business despite steady bombardment as we are told, it is not likely that the English will be very much intimidated by exploits such as those of Antwerp and Yarmouth. Indeed, whatever moral effect there may be is more likely to redound to the disadvantage of the attacker. After the bombardment of Scarborough and Hartlepool the English recruiting offices were thronged with an eager volunteers. A similar result will undoubtedly follow the attack from the air upon the Norfolk coast towns.

If, then, the giant airship has not lived up to popular expectations, what is the good of it at all? It must have its uses. The Germans have not without reason persevered in the face of disaster after disaster in bringing their airships to a pitch of perfection which has aroused the admiration of aeronautical engineers in all countries. To us it seems that while the Zeppelins and other dirigibles have not been conspicuously successful in military operations they have a useful function to fulfill at sea. A vessel which can stay in the air for thirty-six hours, which can travel at an average speed of from forty to sixty miles an hour, which is equipped with wireless apparatus of considerable range, which can hover over a single spot for hours, if need be, may obviously perform a very useful service in locating that fleet of diabolical machines which is Great Britain's chief bulwark of safety. We have not the slightest doubt that the location of the submarine British ships is accurately known to the Germans thanks to their fleet dirigibles. Of the director's view in regard to their use we had ample proof when the "Hoguen" dirigible, the "Cress" were sunk, three British ships which were sighted by a Schutte-Lanz airship, whose commander witnessed their location in his base with the result that a German submarine was able to find them and sink them in a fraction of the time which would have been required had ordinary surface vessels been hovering over the scene.

The enormous size of the rigid dirigible has been the chief reason why it has proven so ineffective upon the field of battle. Let us not forget that land-searing can hardly be effectively conducted at heights greater than five thousand feet. Then anti-aircraft guns have a range of fully twenty thousand feet, and that an airship as big as the average ocean steamer is a mark for more easily found at five thousand feet than a small aerodrome. At sea it is otherwise. Battleships can be sighted and located from great distances far out of gun range. An area of several hundred square miles can be safely explored from a height of four

thousand to five thousand feet. By means of its powerful wireless plant the airship is in constant communication with its base. Who knows but the naval raid upon Scarborough and Hartlepool was undertaken only after a very careful reconnaissance, which revealed the positions, and which enabled the German naval officers to time their operations so that they might carry out their purpose unimpeded by a fleet in the vicinity?

And this brings us to the consideration that, if the proper sphere of the Zeppelin is that of naval scouting, it is a prostitution of those wonderful ships of the air to use them for the slightest ending of unoffended towns and villages. Not alone do these raids, as we have shown, stimulate the military ardor of the British, but they serve to arouse a widespread indignation, on the ground that such raids are contrary to humanitarian principles as embodied in the findings of the Hague convention. The Hague principles demand that war shall be waged with the least possible injury to non-combatants, and, to this end the convention prohibits the bombardment of undefended towns, and demands that where bombardment is undertaken due notice shall be given so as to enable the non-combatants to withdraw.

The Shipping Bill Fallacy

ALTHOUGH the question of the upbuilding of our merchant marine and the scope and character of the governmental assistance which should be given to assist in its reconstruction is full of complexities, there is one fundamental fact in the situation which is clearly understood by the shipping man, the private citizen, and even by Congress itself.

We refer to the fact that, because of the better food, better accommodations, higher pay, and other advantages conferred upon the American seamen by the navigation laws of the United States, the cost of running an American ocean-going steamship is so much greater than the cost of running a ship under a foreign flag, that successful competition in the deep-sea trade is an absolute impossibility.

Thus was it, when it cost very much more to build a ship in American yards than it did in foreign yards, but the margin of that difference has been gradually reduced, until now it is comparatively negligible in comparison with the vast difference in the cost of the operation of ships.

Everybody knows that we have failed to build up a modern merchant marine, and everybody knows just why we have failed. Today the Government, with the strong backing of the President, recognizing the failure of private enterprise, wishes to go into the shipping business itself and its flag over a fleet of Government-owned ships, hoping thereby to bring in American merchant marine and promoting what the new venture is fully established to withdraw in favor of private operation and ownership.

We wish to put ourselves on record as stating, first that the whole scheme beris with fallacies; secondly, that the latest trade returns show that a Government-owned fleet is unnecessary; thirdly, that it will injure the private owners of ocean-going ships, and, last and most important of all, that this shipping bill may well prove to be a snare which will sooner or later entangle us in the great European war.

In the first place, the Government is violating one of the fundamental, if unwritten, principles upon which government is based if it enters into a business enterprise in competition with the private interests of its citizens. Such action would be wrong in any case, and it is particularly vicious when the interests against which the Government will compete are already having the greatest difficulty in keeping their heads above water. It should be the policy of the Government to assist our struggling merchant marine, not to drive it from the seven seas.

Furthermore, the plan of the President that the war has so disorganized the carrying trade that there are not enough ships to handle our imports and exports, has been completely demolished by the recent trade returns, which show an increase of exports for December, 1914, over those of December, 1913, of over \$10,000,000. As we stand at the outset, facts are what we should keep our eyes upon, not theories. And if ever cold, hard facts demolished a plausible theory, those trade returns for December have swept away the one plausible plea that has been made for this ill-conceived Government ownership scheme.

Be it remembered, also, that in the very nature of things an enterprise which private capital and the best brains of the country have failed to make profitable can never be run at a profit if handled by the Government. Our humanitarian civilization laws render it certain that Government-owned fleets will be run at a loss. That loss must be made good from the Treasury, and to this extent the proposed Government-owned fleet will become a tax upon the people—a manifest injustice.

The last end, surely, the most important object of all against this fatuous bill is the grave and ever-present

danger which it will introduce to the international situation. The right of search on the high seas exists and is recognized; contraband of war is liable to be found its way into the bottom of our steamships flag flies; and a situation is conceivable in which the right of search might be exercised on a ship that was sailing under the Government flag.

In the Presidential hand which wrote the so-called "Declaration of Neutrality" prepared to sign a measure which might easily upset, in a single day, the neutral attitude which the President's proclamation has thus far so successfully assumed?

The Real Cause of the Italian Disaster

BURIED away in the many columns of news published during the past few days on the subject of the dreadful Italian earthquake is the following paragraph:

"Here and there throughout the devastated districts one sees houses standing and apparently undamaged, although surrounded by the ruins of houses that were shaken into a mass of debris by the earthquake. These houses that remain standing are modern structures built of reinforced concrete, and in the districts where the full force of the convulsion was felt they were the only ones able to resist the disintegrating effects of the earthquake. The others, even when solidly built of stone, collapsed like so many houses of cards."

This paragraph, together with the fact, not stated but readily inferable from the above, that the occupants of these undamaged buildings suffered no injury from the earthquake, is quite the most significant thing that has been published about the disaster. It requires, however, some comment, because, standing alone, it might suggest the idea that reinforced concrete is the only building material that insures safety from the effects of earthquakes, whereas, in fact, the mode of construction is a much more important factor of safety than the material.

An earthquake which, occurring in a region notoriously subject to seismic shocks, takes toll of thousands of lives and millions of dollars' worth of property is, at the present day, a stupendous anachronism. That earthquake disasters in such regions are almost wholly preventable is no new idea, yet so little is this fact taken to heart that again and again we are called upon to extend unqualified sympathy to a nation which is really suffering from the stupidity or indifference of the persons who control its destinies rather than from the malignant disposition of Mother Nature.

The art of earthquake-proof construction is no longer in its infancy. For more than fifty years it has occupied the attention of seismologists, architects, and engineers—in Japan, Italy, Austria, the United States and elsewhere. We have not space here to present a résumé of this subject, but it is timely to quote a recent assertion of M. Montessus de Ballore—the foremost French seismologist—that the art has now reached such a degree of perfection that only a few minor details are still a subject for study. Briefly stated, the secret of making a building safe from earthquake is to use sound materials in its construction and tie them together securely. According to the authority just quoted, at least four fifths of the damage wrought by earthquakes is due to the neglect of the ordinary requirements of sound construction—leaving the special dangers of earthquakes out of the question—while the remaining one fifth could be largely eliminated by an intelligent location of buildings with regard to known conditions of stability in the ground. The possibility of constructing buildings capable of withstanding even the most violent earthquake shocks is happily illustrated by the same writer in his comparison of an earthquake-proof building to a ship. Marine architecture takes account of ship construction, and the same analogies to those occurring in an earthquake. A ship's dry land would not be injured by an earthquake, nor would her crew suffer any worse inconvenience than a possible leveling of the hull, such as may occur in a heavy sea.

After visiting the scene of the great Meowla-Beglio earthquake in 1908, Prof. Onofri expressed the opinion that out of every thousand persons killed in the case of earthquake disasters, 908 must be regarded as victims of the faulty construction of houses. This opinion was based upon a comparison of the earthquake in question with that which visited the city of Nagoya, Japan, in 1891. The intensity of earthquake motion at Meowla was slightly less than that at Nagoya; yet while only 190 people were killed at the latter city of 105,330 in the Japanese city, there were 75,000 deaths at Meowla, with a population of about 100,000. The Japanese buildings were designed to withstand earthquake shocks, while the Italians were not.

After the Meowla earthquake regulations were laid down to insure a proper method of reconstructing the buildings, but it is to be feared that these regulations have not been adhered to, and hence that the Italian disaster is likely to be the scene of another great disaster.

Science

The Calles-Bog South American Expedition left this country at the end of December for a journey across South America by way of La Paz, Cochabamba, and the Amazon, Madras, and Amazon Rivers. Besides exploring, this party will make extensive zoological collections for the Field Museum, of Chicago, and the American Museum of Natural History in New York.

A New Capital for Nigeria.—A recent change in the map of Africa was the amalgamation of the former colonies of Northern and Southern Nigeria into the single colony of Nigeria. It is now announced that a capital of the newly constituted colony is to be built at Yaba, far in the interior, and at an elevation of over 2,000 feet. Although Yaba is not shown on any map to which we have access, it is evidently in the immediate vicinity of Zungeru, the present capital of Northern Nigeria, as it is described as being near the point where the railway crosses the Kaduna River. The climate is said to be dry, with comparatively cool nights during the greater part of the year.

Breeds of Fishes from Overlooked Lands.—One of the many interesting activities of the Bureau of Fisheries is the rescue of fishes from the temporary tanks and pools formed when the Mississippi River and its tributaries subside after the annual freshets. During the fiscal year 1914 about 2,600,000 fish of all species were saved, this number being almost three times the number of the previous year. All of these fishes would have perished from the drying or freezing of the ponds. Most of them were returned to the main streams, but certain species were used for pond-cultural operations and for stocking waters in other parts of the country.

Valuable Gifts to Public Institutions.—The will of Mr. Henry Draper, widow of the noted astronomer and formerly professor of astronomy at Harvard College, which has recently been proved, has bequeathed a number of public institutions. To Harvard University is given \$180,000, to be called the Henry Draper Memorial Fund, the income of which is to be used in connection with the photographic work of the Draper Memorial. The university also gets all of the scientific apparatus that belonged to Professor or Mrs. Draper, and all of their photographic plates and all astronomical subjects. The New York Public Library receives a bequest of \$400,000, with a residuary bequest of \$200,000 additional, and many articles of artistic, historical and scientific value are divided between the library, the American Museum of Natural History and the Metropolitan Museum. Bequests of \$25,000 each are given to the Smithsonian Institution, the National Academy of Sciences, the Surgical Research Hospital of the New York University and a number of other institutions.

Swimming Doves.—A curious instance is reported by a correspondent of the excellent Dutch natural history magazine *De Levende Natuur*, of doves acquiring the alien art of swimming. The birds in question were ordinary domestic blue pigeons living in a dovecote beside his dwelling house near the water. "A few months ago," he says, "during a fight, a dove fell into the water and was rescued by human hands with some difficulty. Since that the doves are more familiar with the water, and yesterday I saw two sailing around on it like gulls. Tempted, apparently, by pieces of bread lying in the water, they had learned the art of swimming. When they had had enough of their bath they flew quietly out of the water." The writer, Mr. Noorduyk, insists there was no possibility of mistake as the birds were only 12 meters distant and his wife and daughter saw them also, while sitting at an open window, adding that he can tell a dove from a gull at 50 meters distance when sitting still and at 200 meters when flying.

Sleeping Sickness.—Previous tentative statements in scientific literature as to the important differences between the so-called sickness of Nyangandi and Rhodesia on the one hand and that of Uganda on the other are fully confirmed by a recent report of the committee appointed by the British government to consider various questions connected with trypanosome infection and especially the advisability of destroying wild animals on a large scale as a means of checking the disease of this class. The sleeping sickness of Nyangandi and Rhodesia is due to *Trypanosoma rhodesiense*, which is carried by the species of tsetse fly called *Glossina morsitans*; this disease is relatively uncommon among the native population and is not increasing, and there is no likelihood of its becoming epidemic. On the other hand, the form of sleeping sickness which has caused an enormous loss of life among the native of Uganda is due to infection by *Trypanosoma gambiense*, introduced from the west coast of Africa by way of the Congo. It is transmitted by the tsetse fly known as *Glossina palpalis*. In this case the main focus of the most important reservoir for the disease, and wild animals apparently play a very small part in spreading it, though they may become infected. Domestic animals are a *Trypanosoma* safe agency for spreading infection. "The committee believe that game destruction in Uganda would probably have little effect on the disease, and that efforts should be concentrated on the extermination of the fly."

Automobile

New Cadillac Has Five-cylinder Rotary Motor.—Rotary motors have not been very successful in the automobile field, although they have proved efficient in aeroplanes. An exceedingly interesting motor of the rotary type is to form the power plant of a new cyclecar to be shown at the forthcoming Chicago automobile exhibition. The motor has 5 cylinders, and develops 12 horse-power at 1,400 revolutions per minute. It is said to be practically vibrationless, a demonstrating model being held on the knee of a workman while running at top speed.

Carl Benz Celebrates 70th Birthday.—Carl Benz, who with Gottlieb Daimler is usually considered the pioneer of the gasoline automobile, has just celebrated his 70th birthday. The marvelous growth of the automobile industry and the splendid work performed by the motor car in the present war were due in no small degree to Benz and his earliest "contraptions." His first car ran in 1885, while he filed a patent on it in January of 1886. Daimler invented independently a motor bicycle, which he completed in the fall of 1885. Neither of the two men knew of the other's work.

Does Weight Increase Tire Pressure?—That the pressure in an automobile tire fully pumped up remains practically the same whether the car is resting on the tires or is jacked up is the discovery made by one of the large rubber companies in an endeavor to solve some questions of "oaring for tires while the car is laid up." It was found by means of special gauges that in an ordinary sedan, which shows a pressure of 80 pounds while the car is jacked up, it will show 80.4 pounds with the weight of the car resting on the tires. The cubic contents are compressed by "flattening" from 900 cubic inches to 890 cubic inches.

More Eight-cylinder Motors Announced.—A veritable craze for 8-cylinder motors appears to have struck the public, if one would judge from the avalanche of 8-cylinder cars already announced and known to be "in the works." No less than fourteen were shown at the Chicago Automobile Show and several more manufacturers of motors have announced their intention of entering the field. There are grave doubts in the minds of many people in the industry whether or not this 8-cylinder "craze" will last. The ignition difficulties, especially in case of an interruption of current to the spark plugs, require expert diagnosis when baffling a complicated 8-cylinder machine with its multiplication of wiring.

Twelve-cylinder Cars Coming.—Although no definite announcements have been made as yet, and probably will not be made for a few weeks, it is well known that several makers contemplate bringing out a 12-cylinder model next year. The significant hint was given at an automobile dealers' dinner recently, in which it was stated that "if the public demanded a 12-cylinder car, this company was prepared to furnish it." The flexibility obtained with a many-cylindered motor is an inducement to many motorists to put up with many of its drawbacks and complications. At the present time there is but a single 12-cylinder car made, the racing model of the "Sunbeam," a British make, which took part in the last Decoration Day races at Indianapolis.

California Has New Horse-power Formula.—California motorists are up in arms over the new horse-power formula that is to be used in determining the power of their cars, for registration fees. The present so-called A. L. A. M. formula, in which the base of the cylinder alone is taken into consideration, is of little practical value at the present time of long-stroke, small bore, high speed engines, and a motor rated at 18 or 20 according to this formula, would in reality develop more nearly 40 horse-power. The new California formula is as follows: $HP = 0.224 \pi D (D + L)$, in which π is the number of cylinders, D the bore and L the stroke in inches. In connection with this raising of the horse-power, for higher license fees, it may be stated here that not one motorist out of a thousand gets the actual maximum horse-power out of his car in ordinary driving; the low A. L. A. M. formula represents about the power actually produced by the motor of an ordinary car on ordinary roads in the hands of the average driver.

Portable Engine Slopes for the War.—So many motor vehicles are being utilized in the conduct of the war, and the service is so arduous, that it has been found necessary to provide some means for quick repairs, without the necessity of sending the car a long distance to some base far in the rear. To meet this demand several manufacturers in England have turned out traveling repair shops that can work right up to the front and handle some most valuable work in repairing trucks that have met with some slight accident which temporarily put them out of action, and which in many cases would have resulted in their abandonment. A typical shop of this kind has a 3 horse-power gasoline engine which drives a dynamo that supplies lights for working at night, and also for cranking and portable drill. It also furnishes power for a 6-inch lathe that is provided with milling and other attachments, as well as screw cutting. The outfit includes a bench with a good vice, an anvil, forge and extensive assortment of tools, supplies and materials.

Astronomy

A Belgian Astronomical Journal.—The *Gazette astronomique*, heretofore published monthly in Antwerp by the Société d'Astronomie d'Anvers, will be published in London during the rest of the war, if efforts now being made to secure the necessary funds should prove successful.

Proposed Solar Observatory in Kashmir.—The government of India, which already owns a solar physics observatory at Kohakulak, near Madras, is now considering the plan of establishing one in the lofty valley of Kashmir. Mr. J. Evershed, director of the present observatory, spent several months in Kashmir, beginning April, 1914, and made a thorough test of the conditions for both visual and photographic observations. The results appear to show that Kashmir is a remarkably favorable location for solar observations, the atmospheric conditions being much better than at Kohakulak.

The Total Light of the Stars.—Many estimates have been published on this subject. Newcomb estimated the light of all the stars down to the 9.2 magnitude to be equal to that of 240 first magnitude stars, while Young estimated that the light from the stars of all magnitudes in both hemispheres might equal that of 100 first magnitude stars. The latest estimate, recently published by S. Chapman, is based upon the counts of stars on photographic plates, and is stated to be the equivalent of 600 stars of the first magnitude, according to the photographic standard, or from 900 to 1,000 first magnitude stars on the visual scale.

The Observer's Handbook of the Royal Astronomical Society of Canada has recently been issued for 1915, which is its seventh year of publication. This useful little manual is especially suited to the needs of amateur astronomers and is not so well known as it should be in the United States. Besides the ordinary ephemerides and almanac features, there are popularly written accounts of the astronomical events of the coming year, a series of outline star maps, descriptions of the constellations, with lists of celestial objects of interest to the owners of small telescopes, a section on meteors, and a variety of astronomical statistics, which are always kept well up to date. The society has its headquarters at 198 College Street, Toronto.

Small Grants for Astronomical Research. "What use would you make of a grant for astronomical research of \$1,000 a year for 5 years?" Prof. Edward C. Pickering has put this question to twelve prominent American astronomers, with the intention, after determining what needs can be met by such modest grants, of making an effort to secure the money. The answers to his question are summarized in Science, and it is interesting to find that it would take very little money—less, in fact, than the value of the ammunition used by a big siege-gun in the course of a day's firing—to put through several astronomical undertakings of great importance. Most of the astronomers questioned state that they would use all or a large part of the proposed grant in hiring assistants.

A Brilliant Fireball.—In Nature an interesting letter from Mr. W. F. Dunning is published, describing one on November 11th, at 11:14 P. M., a magnificent meteor was seen from near Purley, Surrey, Stowmarket, Hoxsey and other places. It looked like an unusually large ball from a Roman candle firework, and moved very slowly in the northeast sky, occupying about 5 seconds in an extended course. It was not a Leonid, but apparently from a radiant near γ Lyrae in the northwest. The meteor illumined the sky vividly for several seconds, and was evidently rather near the earth's surface. From a preliminary discussion of the few descriptions already to hand it appears that the object fell from a height of 50 to 32 miles, and its velocity was about 11 miles a second. There was no known shower near Vega at the middle of November, but certain showers appear to be isolated. Some of the observers supposed it to have been one of the regular November meteors, but its direction was different and its speed altogether too slow for it to have been a Leonid.

Colors of Stars.—Prof. Barnard has investigated the colors of the stars forming the cluster M 13 in Hercules. When stars are too faint to be examined spectroscopically, an idea of their type can be obtained by observing them through their observed color. In cases where the stars are so faint that they exhibit no color at all the photographic plate is called in. In the case of star clusters it is of great value to know whether the component stars are of all one spectral type or whether they show representatives of all types. In Prof. Barnard's investigation on the above-mentioned cluster the stars are practically divided into two color classes, blue stars and yellow stars, and this has been done by comparing two photographs of the same cluster taken under two conditions. One photograph, taken at the Potsdam Observatories, was taken in such optical conditions that the blue stars were relatively brighter than the yellow stars, while another photograph, taken at the same place, was taken in such conditions that the reverse should be the case. Prof. Barnard concludes that in this cluster there exist stars of extremely different type, and hence by inference, that there are stars of all the different spectral types.

The Periscope—How It Is Constructed and Manipulated

The Searching Eye of the Submarine

THE mysterious and sensational performances of the foreign submarines have excited much wonderment in regard to how this stealthy scourge of the sea finds its way about under water, and locates its prey with such deadly certainty, and although pictures of this vessel, with its must-like spying tube, the periscope, extending up from below to just above the surface of the water, are familiar to few, realize the vital importance of this contrivance in the slow development that it has passed through, before becoming the efficient piece of apparatus that it is today and which is so essential to the successful prosecution of underwater attack. The power of the submarine is vested in its invisibility, but while the submarine is hidden from the enemy it must itself be able to see everything that is going on in order to solve its problems of defense and escape.

Something of the history of the periscope was told recently in the year book of the *Schiffbau-technischen Gesellschaft* by Dr. Weichert, director of the Goetz optical works, from which publication the following facts are obtained. It is stated that the oldest known device for viewing objects from a concealed position was by means of a telescope with a doubly bent tube, which device was invented by Heliodorus in the seventeenth century and this may be regarded as the progenitor of the periscope. It may be noted that at long range this instrument gave a field almost too small for practical purposes.

The simplest sighting apparatus for submarines was invented in 1854, for it must be remembered that the work of experimenting on submarine vessels has been going on for a hundred and fifty years or more. This apparatus consisted only of a vertical tube that had a plane mirror set at each end at an inclination of 45 degrees from the perpendicular and it contained the fundamental principle involved. In 1872 totally reflecting prisms were substituted for the reflecting mirrors, but in both of these forms it was necessary to use very short and wide tubes in order to cover a sufficiently wide field of view for working purposes.

The next step in the evolution of the periscope was to employ a system of lenses in connection with the prisms, and this construction is shown in the illustration which, however, is of a later and much improved pattern. Following out the optical development of the instrument at this point, the question of the reversal of the image is provided for now by means of an "erecting prism," which is located near the lower end of the apparatus. As shown in the picture the part of the instrument tube that carries this erecting prism is connected by means of gears with the rotating top of the instrument, that carries the upper prism and the objective, in such a manner that the erecting prism turns with half the

angular velocity of the top, which compensates for the difference of azimuth between the rotating upper prism and the lower fixed prism. As its name indicates this erecting prism reverses the image as it is projected through the instrument, and presents it to the observer

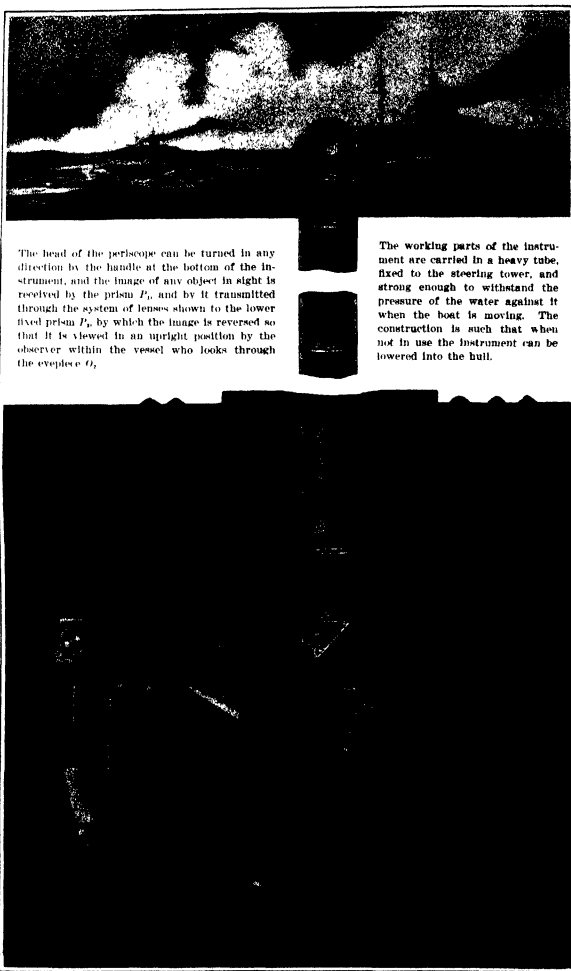
a heavier fixed protecting tube or sheath within which the periscope turned. Further improvements resulted in a construction in which only the head of the instrument, carrying the upper prism, is revolved, the connection with the erecting prism below being retained.

To enable the vessel to be steered by the observations made by the periscope the officer in charge must have some means of knowing the exact relation of the line of sight of the instrument with the axis of the craft, and various devices have been employed for the purpose. In the earlier models this was accomplished by a mark on the tube and a graduated circle inscribed on the deck, and also by a second graduated circle and index inside the tube, and visible to the observer. A later system, adopted when the lower part of the tube is fixed, and the upper part movable, makes use of two glass plates within the tube. One of these plates is inscribed with a graduated circle and is attached to the fixed lower part of the tube, while the other plate bears an index mark and turns with the upper part of the tube.

The magnifying power usually found in these instruments is 15, but by the employment of a special device a power of from 5 to 60 magnifications can be secured temporarily. A more recent instrument contains a novel and valuable improvement that gives a sharp magnified image of the object slightly surrounded by a view of the entire horizon on a smaller scale. This is accomplished by means of an annular lens that is located over the objective. Lenses of this sort were first employed in topographical work by Col. Mauguin of the French army. Long continued observation with a periscope, using but a single eye, becomes fatiguing, and considerable relief can be secured by adjusting the instrument to throw the image onto a ground glass screen, where it can be viewed comfortably; but this plan can only be adopted in very clear weather, and even then the grain of the glass screen is liable to obscure distant objects.

The very latest designs have a compass, and a telemeter scale, by means of which the distance of the object can be determined, ingeniously combined with the periscope.

The development of the periscope has made the submarine practical, and indeed it is this very question of directing the movements of the vessel when under water that has been responsible for much of the delay that has occurred in the successful development of the submarine. That the problem has been quite successfully solved is apparent from recent performances in foreign waters, for it has been demonstrated that by the aid of the latest directional instruments the boat can dive below the surface when beyond the sight of an enemy, and easily find its way into the midst of hostile fleets, or into crowded harbors.

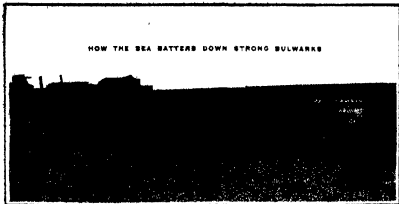


The head of the periscope can be turned in any direction by the handle at the bottom of the instrument, and the image of any object in sight is received by the prism P_1 and by it transmitted through the system of lenses shown to the lower fixed prism P_2 by which the image is reversed so that it is viewed in an upright position by the observer within the vessel who looks through the eyepiece O_2 .

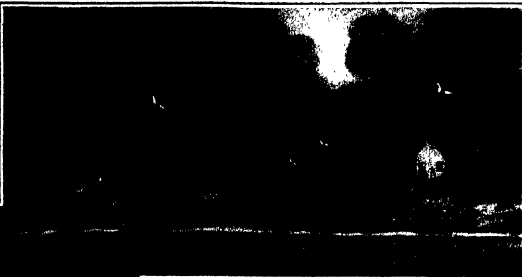
The working parts of the instrument are carried in a heavy tube, fixed to the steering tower, and strong enough to withstand the pressure of the water against it when the boat is moving. The construction is such that when not in use the instrument can be lowered into the hull.

The periscope. The eye of the submarine.

In its natural position. In the earlier forms the instrument was in the form of a single long tube, and in order to allow it to be raised and lowered, and also turned in different directions, it was fitted in a watertight stuffing box in the top of the steering tower; but it was found that the pressure of the water against the tube, when the vessel was moving, bent the tube backward to some extent and caused it to bind so tightly in the stuffing box that it was very difficult to turn it in order to make observations through any considerable angle, so an improved construction was devised in which the periscope tube proper was contained within



HOW THE SEA BATTERS DOWN STRONG BULWARKS



STRONG BULWARKS MUST BE BUILT TO PREVENT THE WEARING AWAY OF BEACHES



By running a pipe out from the beach and blowing compressed air through it, wave action can be broken up and beaches saved.

Fighting the Sea With Compressed Air

By Robert G. Skerrett

SOME parts of our Atlantic sea coast are in grave danger because of the erosive action of storm-tossed seas. The beaches of New Jersey have suffered especially in this way, and the Federal Government is now studying the situation with an eye to evolving some sort of effective defense for the most exposed stretches of that littoral.

Wooden jetties and wooden bulkheads have been swept away time after time, and many thousands of dollars have been sacrificed in the building of ineffectual barriers. This situation inspired Mr. Philip Brasher, an engineer by profession, to devise a decidedly novel method of battling with the storm seas. In his invention again we see compressed air in a new service, for such is the medium that Mr. Brasher utilizes. He has aimed to sap the billows of their strength by assaulting them from below and from a point where his apparatus need not fear retaliation.

The surging sea is a grave menace only when it is about to curl over and break. At that moment, it undergoes a metamorphosis, "the oscillatory wave—one whose particles merely oscillate—becomes one whose particles travel along in a certain direction." Then it is that the entire mass, possibly representing many tons, instead of vibrating, advances bodily with the destructive momentum represented by such a bulk moving with speed. The shifting shore interferes with the vibratory translation and changes the rolling billows of the deep into the violent breakers that sweep up upon the slanting beach. As Mr. Brasher has reasoned it out, it would be possible to destroy the breakers by the theoretically simple procedure of disturbing the rhythm of the vibrating particles of water which transmit from one to the other the wave-making impulse. In other words, he would blanket or arrest this action by setting in motion a flow of particles directly across the path of the oncoming undulations, and thus interpose a barrier to further transmission of wave motion. Indeed, it might be better expressed as a gap of air bubbles supplanting the water particles normally present—a gap that would effectively bar further rhythmic oscillations.

In proof of this, it has been remarked in a well-known work on physics, that compressed air escaping to the surface of the river, during tunneling operations under the Hudson, created "a complete elevation of the water directly above the escaping columns and a tremendous disturbance of irregular bubbles. Waves which impinged on this disturbed area, collapsed like balloons which had been

pricked with pins." Mr. Brasher has sought to improve upon this accidental action by distributing and controlling scientifically his flow of air. Forming, as he calls it, an "air breakwater."

To this end, he lays a long line of perforated 4-inch pipe on the water bed of the area to be protected and places this main at right angles to the sweep of the oncoming waves. A connecting branch, giving the system a T-shape, reaches shoreward, where it meets an air compressor of suitable capacity. According to Mr. Brasher, his air breakwater will make possible a number of marine operations which would either be seriously hampered or completely halted otherwise. "Dredgers can be kept working in the most exposed places during the roughest weather. The erection of permanent breakwaters, piers, lighthouses, and dams may be continued steadily, no matter what the weather conditions. Half-completed structures may be protected until completed. Lightships can ride out the roughest gale in an artificial lagoon of calm sea. Stranded vessels can be protected from the pounding of the waves until refloated." And, logically, exposed shore fronts can be similarly safeguarded against the sweep of stormy seas.

In view of what most of us know about the damaging and the well-nigh irresistible energy of tempest-bred waves, skepticism is not unpardonable, but those interested in this ingenious system desire that "the worth of the Brasher air breakwater is not a matter of conjecture. It has been proved practical and immensely valuable by actual tests. Mr. Moon, superintendent of the quarry at Crutch Island, Maine, where a trial plant was located, reports that on the day of the trial waves

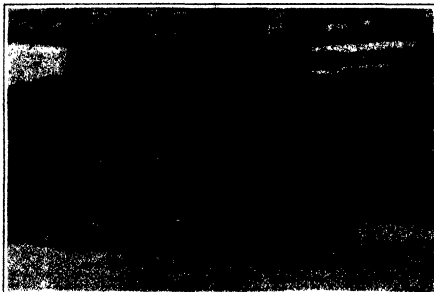
were rolling in so high that the spray was flying over the tops of the trees along the shore. Fifteen minutes after he turned on the air, Mr. Moon said he could paddle around in a canoe in the smooth water that the air breakwater furnished."

The question is, can Mr. Brasher's invention be applied to the New Jersey coast upon a scale ample enough to shield the areas that now suffer the most when a southeast storm blows? Will it be possible to furnish such a defense at a reasonable cost? To be effective there must be an abundance of air available, and air compressors of sufficient capacity to provide the needed supply would unquestionably demand a very heavy outlay. Finally, we ask, can the scale of the experimental plant at Crutch Island be taken as a guide for the application of this system to the more extended and possibly the more exacting situation to be met on the New Jersey coast? If it can, Mr. Brasher has opened the way for notable work in a number of coastal and salvage problems.

Using Volcanic Steam for the Production of Electrical Energy

THE little city of Volterra, in northern Tuscany, is celebrated for its great salt works. From Volterra a 90 minutes' automobile journey through a picturesque mountain region brings the traveler to Lardarolo, the headquarters of the Società Ricerche di Lardarolo. The houses and the factory buildings are half hidden by clouds of sulphurous vapors, and the air smells strongly of hydrogen sulphide for miles around the village. This volcanic region contains many hot springs, *bruzzi*, and numerous jets of steam, *soffioni*, which issue from holes and crevices at pressures up to 3.5 atmospheres and temperatures up to 400 deg. Cent. (752 deg. Fahr.). Both the springs and the *soffioni* are impregnated with boric acid, which has been extracted from them, very easily and profitably, for a hundred years. It appears probable, however, that the heat contained in the *soffioni* will soon become more valuable than the boric acid.

The production of boric acid from the seventy natural springs and over 200 *soffioni* operated by the company is still carried on in a very simple manner. The water is conducted into large reservoirs, lined with masonry where it is heated by injecting steam from the *soffioni*. The boric acid in the steam is thus added to that of the spring water. After 24 hours' heating and evaporation the water contains 1/2 per cent of boric acid. The steam is then cut off the water is allowed to



By courtesy of Princeton.

Fig. 1.—Steam boiler heated by volcanic steam.

settles and is then allowed to flow out slowly through a series of shallow leaden pans, which form a flight of steps about 2 feet wide and 400 feet long. The pans are heated below by *soft* steam—the only source of heat known in *Lardarello*. They are sheltered from rain by a primitive roof, but, as the air has free access at the sides, evaporation is so rapid that the solution leaves the last pan in crystalline condition. After this solution has deposited its sediment in a steam heated clarifying basin it is drawn off into lead-lined wooden vats, so as to cool and form crystals.

The boric acid thus obtained is not chemically pure. It contains ammonium sulphate and other impurities. Some of it is shipped in the crude state to borax factories. The remainder is purified by dissolving in hot water, adding nitric acid expressing the mother liquor from the crystals formed on cooling, redissolving and recrystallizing. The pure crystals are dried, ground, sifted, and packed in boxes and casks, which are carried on Tuscan carts to the railway station at Volterra.

The steam from the *soft* source serves not only as a source of boric acid and a source of heat for evaporating the spring water and drying the crystals, but also as a source of power for all the machinery. It is employed to operate low pressure cylinder engines which drive the grinding mills, lifting machines, conveyers and hoists, the woodworking machinery for making boxes and casks, and a machine for rolling steel lead, chiefly from old material. Another engine drives a dynamo which furnishes electric light for the factory buildings, the houses of the officials, and workingmen, and the engine of the *Coast of Lardarello*. Finally the natural steam is used exclusively for heating and cooking in *Lardarello*, which imports no coal or other fuel.

According to an article in *Prometheus* from which we glean our facts the steam is employed in a very wasteful fashion in the small non-condensing engines, some of which are so constructed and look at them according to the attention of the mineral parties which the steam carries with it from the earth. But the steam costs nothing, and as it has been flowing in ever-increasing volume for a century, there is no fear of the supply's falling. When we need steam we thrust a cane into the ground, the author of *Prometheus*' article was told. The problem is not quite so simple as this, but a copious outflow of steam can always be obtained by boring to a depth of 30 or 40 feet.

This inexhaustible supply of steam has recently led the company to utilize it on a larger scale for the production of electric energy, for which there is an extensive market in the nearby cities of Volterra, Siena and Livorno (*Leghorn*). For this purpose the low-pressure turbine, which has been developed so successfully in the past few years, seemed peculiarly appropriate. The natural steam, however, contains, in addition to boric acid and ammonia, from 4 to 5 per cent of carbon dioxide and smaller quantities of hydrogen and hydrogen sulphide. A low-pressure turbine using this steam would work with a poor vacuum and, therefore, very uneconomically, and it would also be rapidly destroyed by grit and other impurities. It was decided, therefore, to employ the natural steam as a source of heat for the production of pure steam for the turbines.

In order to test the feasibility of this plan the inclined water-tube boiler shown in Fig. 1 was constructed. A longitudinal vertical section of one of the four parts is shown in Fig. 2. The *soft* steam, entering at *A*, flows downward between the water tubes, outward at *B*, and through the pipe *C* to the next section of the boiler. The water condensed from the natural steam escapes through an outlet at the lowest part of the bundle of tubes, while the gaseous impurities accompany the steam through the four sections of the boiler and are discharged into the atmosphere from the fourth section, with the uncondensed remnant of the steam, which has given up a large part of its heat to the pure water in the tubes. The feed water is pumped into the tubes through the inlet *F* and is kept at the level *G* by the regulator *E*. The water in the tubes is vaporized very rapidly and the mixture of steam and water is expelled violently from the upper ends of the tubes into the chamber *H*. The impact of the mixture upon the front wall of this chamber separates the steam from the water. The steam rises into the tubular steam chest *M*, which crosses all four sections of the boiler, while the water flows back through the return pipe below and returns to the circulation in the tubes and water separator. As the steam still contains some water it is not allowed to enter the turbine directly from the steam chest *M* but is passed through a drying chamber (*Fig. 1*) very similar in construction to a boiler section, where the remaining water is vaporized by the heat of natural steam.

The boiler has a total heating surface of nearly 1,100 square feet. It uses about 4,000 pounds of natural steam at 3.5 atmospheres pressure, and produces about 5,500 pounds of pure steam at 4 atmospheres (total) pressure per hour. The pure steam drives a 194-horsepower low-pressure turbine, and is then condensed and returned, as feed water, to the boiler.

The results obtained with this experimental plant were so satisfactory that the company, after securing extensive contracts for furnishing current, decided to install three low-pressure turbines of 3,000 kilowatts power and 3,000 revolutions per minute. These turbines and the boilers required to operate them are now in process of construction, and a large area about *Lardarello* will soon be supplied with electric energy obtained from volcanic steam.

Do You See the Point?

By Dr. Leonard Keene Hinshberg, A.B., M.A., M.D.
(Johns Hopkins)

YOUR friend walks across the street. He slips upon a banana peel. He does not fall, but wobbles about pertly, juggling his top hat with one wild hand and the air with his other. You and everybody who witnesses his awkward embarrassment laugh about it. Why? Have you ever stopped to consider it? Frank Thum, the great black-face comedian, and Julius Tannen, the side-splitting comedian, appear before the footlights, the one in absurdly informal regalia, the other in a dignified dinner jacket. The whole audience sets its face in a smile or guffaws noisily before either has said a word. Do you know why?

A solemn wedding ceremony is in the process of being performed. The congregation are as silent as a desert. The turning of the page of the Bible by the clergyman sounds like cannoning by an 18-inch gun. Suddenly the officiating minister lays his hands upon the kneeling couple and absent-mindedly reads, "O Lord, forgive them, for they know not what they do." A veritable pandemonium of half-suppressed merriment follows. Yet why is this pathetic mistake funny? It is Christmas Eve. The snow falls and shoppers all hurry through the biting cold. Only a half-starved, half-naked ragamuffin lingers yearningly in the Arctic outdoors before a frosty bow-window in which are toys

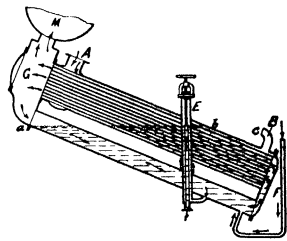


Fig. 2.—Longitudinal section of one of the boiler sections.

and Santa Claus. You see the longing and the poverty in his wan face. You do not know whether to cry or to smile. You may easily remind yourself of many other situations which have occurred to you that brought forth tears of laughter or tears of sympathy, you are not certain which.

Prof. Sigmond Freud, Prof. Henri Bergson, and Prof. John B. Watson of the Johns Hopkins University, as well as a number of other observers and experimenters, believe now, at last, that they "see the point" in the mysterious manifestations of merriment which all healthy persons enjoy. Everybody in every land boasts of his sense of humor, and no Englishman will admit that a modern major operation by Dr. Harry Cushing, the brain surgeon, is necessary to get a joke into his head. Yet most Britons will tell you seriously that "some statements in George Bernard Shaw and Rabelais are incredible."

Such skepticism as Dr. Knight Dunlap, associate professor of experimental psychology at Johns Hopkins, say shily that the men who have solved the *modus operandi* of human laughter perpetuated a perennial joke in their writings. Indeed, it is only owing to a lack of humor in philosophers that they take the works of Bergson, Lovejoy, Descartes, Kant, Hume, Hegel, and even Aristotle seriously.

It is according to the latest researches that abrupt discovery by one person, or rather the sudden feeling of vanity, of a sense of moral superiority, asymmetry, and superiority in themselves over the individual or situation that is amusing, that causes the comedy. By habits, customs, superstitions, and prejudices most people have a standard of comparison to which all activities, behavior, and conduct must conform.

Any deviation from this normal form, if made slowly, gradually, and by things and persons that are honored and respected will pass muster without a smile. Even if a bit of behavior is done by one who is expected to

do that particular thing, it will be witnessed and studied with attention. Thus, if a dancing master waltzes forth in an isolated position and performs a few strange gyrations, others round about will applaud and try to imitate him. If, however, a Methodist minister were to do exactly the same thing, not necessarily in his pulpit, but even in a dance hall, risible laughter would be his lot, just desserts.

A humorist always tries to destroy the logical sequence of words, events, and human behavior. The more the puritan loves symmetry, the more your merry Andrew hates it. The former bolsters up all perfection, the latter renders it ridiculous by a sudden termination of the correct proportions. The greater the contrast and unexpectedness in this artificial asymmetry, the funnier the result.

Superiority is a sensation that accompanies your recognition of an abruptly appearing inconsistency in form, word, action, or event. When Mrs. Malaprop says that the night of the poor cat bounding about in hot grease was "heart-rending," your vanity is tickled to think that you know that the correct word is heart-rending. This together with the asymmetry and the slenderness as well as contrast in the sentence, all stir your realizations.

There is no true distinction, as some philosophic quibblers would have you believe, between wit, humor, slap-stick buffoonery, and Aristophanesian fun. All of them are based upon these same fundamental notions, whereas one has to do with words, another has to do with thoughts; while a third has to do with behavior, the fourth has to do with events.

Vanity,
Superiority,
Discontent,
Incongruity,
Asymmetry.

Sudden, emphatic contrast. It is all a mere matter of elementary addition. Even those instances of pathos that are upon the border-line of laughter and sorrow are linked closely together. For do not both of them stir you to tears? The warp of melancholy is intermingled with the woof of hilarity, and both weave a textile that covers the heart.

Nobody can have a real sense of humor who takes himself or life seriously. The first step toward the acquiring of the humor facility is to take an honest measure of your own unimportance in the world. Anthony Comstock, Emmeline Pankhurst, Barrett O'Hara, Charles F. Murphy, ex-Governor Sulzer, and Theodore Roosevelt would all have been more efficient as men, more true to the world and to themselves, if they were gifted with a better appreciation of their own plentiful lack of humor.

The Puritan conception of life, like that of vice-crusaders, suffragettes, and most crusaders, accrues all trifling with its weighty realities. Logic, asymmetry, superstitions, and the human machine must never under any circumstances be interrupted from the even tenor of life's way. Neither Isaiah, the Athenians, or any of the Old Testament contains humor, so then what right have you to laugh?

Unluckily for this type of militant morality, human nature will be forever human nature. No just as there is only one chemically pure vice-crusader in each ten thousand men, so there is only one man in ten thousand who is physically and morally able to keep his face eternally straight.

Humor, like the other sparks of the human soul, will out, and no anathema from Comstock or clergy will long suppress a Rabelais, a Swift, a Sterne, or a Judge. Jesuitism are always strictly human, even when the wit is decorous. Grow incivilities, made suitable by fun, are like caviare to epicures. Your worst and most unfairly treated enemy can always be deprived of sympathy by wrapping your attack upon him in laugh-inspiring words.

If you would know, then, why a particular occurrence, phrase, situation, or bit of behavior stir your midriff, pause mainly for a moment and honestly study your feelings. Your vanity will be given a shock. If Alexander Pope was right, when he said: "Gentle dullness ever loves a joke." This, however, is only part of the truth, for gentle wisdom and gentle education also love jokes.

To jest is human; to be serious, a crime!

Johnnie Faw Had "Too Much Carbon."—Johnnie—the fuel that was to make a motor cheap, and that was to do all sorts of other things—is a thing of the past. At small expense a coterie of motor car manufacturers submitted the product and its inventor to a few rigid tests which proved it a failure. From a practical viewpoint the fuel would not work, because it persisted in crystallizing in cold weather, and even in moderately cool weather it would clog up the fuel pipes. Chemists who have analyzed it say it has too much carbon, the more, in fact, than could be explained by the chemical constitution of the ingredients which the inventor said he used.

Government Co-operation With Our Industries—I

Why Foreign Markets are Closed to Us and How They May be Opened

If the war will teach us the value of industrial research as an aid in the development of our industries, if it will induce manufacturers to engage technologists to devise processes for manufacturing the goods which hitherto they have purchased abroad, if it will open up foreign markets hitherto closed to us, it may prove a national benefaction. But unless the economic conditions are right it may not pay to spend millions in scientific investigation and in building factories. Economic conditions are, in part, controlled by governments, and it is the purpose of this article to discover whether or not our Government is enabling American capitalists to make the most of the opportunities created by the present conflict.

Perhaps the most conspicuous example of our apparent indifference to industrial research is to be found in the chemical industry—at least the newspapers told us so.

What the Establishment of a Coal-Tar Chemical Industry

Since the American chemical industry has been more severely criticized than any other, we may well turn into a discussion of its difficulties, bearing in mind that they apply to a lesser degree to other manufacturing activities. There was a wild scurrying about for dyes and chemicals last August. Textile manufacturers bought all the colors that they could carry in stock. Certain chemicals, especially pharmaceuticals and products, were sold at a great advance over prices which, even in time of peace, were considered too high. The newspapers took up the question, and rather hysterically accused American chemists of incompetence. We had built up a great steel industry, a great machine tool industry, a great automobile industry. Why hadn't we built up a great chemical industry? Because Germany had a chemical monopoly, because the whole structure of modern organic industrial chemistry is German. It was thought that the German mind must be endowed with some magical power of penetration not given to the American, British, or French intellect.

The truth is that there is nothing the matter with the American intellect. We have no chemical industry and we are not likely to have one until the proper economic conditions are created by legislation. And that statement applies to other industries as well. Since the passage of anti-trust laws the prospects are gloomier than ever. The whole question has been argued back and forth in meetings of technical societies and in papers published in technical periodicals. Those who take a deeper interest in the subject should read the very detailed analysis which Dr. Bernhard C. Howe made for the Board of Directors of the General Chemical Company, and the recommendations which the New York section of the American Chemical Society has made on the enlargement of the coal-tar chemical industry in this country. Both will be found in the *Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry* for December, 1914.

As Dr. Howe points out, the world's market in coal-tar dye comprises about 900 distinct and different chemical substances, which are made by the aid of 300 products of transformation, themselves not dye, often products obtained or obtainable from coal-tar by distillation, refrigeration, expression, or the like. No industry presents so many interlocking problems. Yet so thoroughly have the Germans done their work that in searching for new outlets only one unexplored field has been opened in the last ten years. In other words, all the pioneer research has been completed, and the task that remains is purely subordinate in character.

Dr. Howe sums up the situation thus:

"Broadly speaking, all the rest of the world, outside of Germany, merely accumulates information purchased from Germany into distasteful dyes; Germany alone makes all its own intermediates; that is, Germany makes all the dyestuffs and the rest of the world merely assembles these dyestuffs into finished dyes. Needless to say, the one who controls the manufacture of dyestuffs actually controls the manufacture of dyes."

"Where Austria, Belgium, France, Great Britain, Italy, Russia, and Switzerland singly and combined have failed, in spite of their other large chemical industries, to take any position from Germany in the American market, they may be blamed not so much for failure as because they have not succeeded, nor should it be assumed that transplanting of the whole industry can be done at once and is a perfectly easy task, so as so many seem to think. The transmuting of that industry out of Germany is an undaring property and it is to be described as 'wild'."

"When the other countries have failed it is probably due to the fact that they contributed little or nothing to the real organizing of the business, and to its creation, for the coal-tar dye business is a complicated business; those who aided in its creation were shut in the position to pay the benefits—no advantage they have no direct control and derived through the agent they employed and the claims they assumed."

This is the first of a series of articles which the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN intends to publish on our present industrial crisis and on the best methods of taking advantage of the commercial situation created by the war. Because Americans cannot possibly hope to succeed in entering foreign markets without first inquiring into the attitude of the Government toward industry in general, it seemed advisable to ascertain how far recent industrial legislation assists or arrests our export trade. Accordingly, this phase of the subject is taken up in the present article. The subsequent articles will indicate how far our own industries have been affected by the war, because they can no longer obtain from Europe the basic materials which they require, and how, by means of industrial research, they may render themselves independent of Europe, not only for the time being, but forever. The articles were prepared after many interviews with Government officials, prominent manufacturers, able lawyers, political economists, and industrial research scientists connected with private laboratories and our leading universities. For this reason the series may be regarded as a reflection of the best American political, legal, and scientific opinion on one of the most important problems which confront the American public to-day.—Editor.

Why Government Co-operation is Necessary.

If this wonderful industry is to be established in this country it can only be with Governmental co-operation. An economic balance must be maintained, production must be carefully watched, wasteful competition must be checked, prices must be fixed by agreement on some products so that the whole enterprise may flourish. The slightest change from one of the operations may seem to upset this economic balance. It is a world only a trust with the power to control production and the market could establish a great coal-dye industry in America—the very place of business machinery which is most abhorred in Washington. The huge chemical firms of Germany are knit together, more or less, in a combination which is able to dominate the markets of the world, and which exists not only with Governmental sanction and under Governmental control, but to a certain extent with Governmental encouragement. If we are to compete with Germany we must employ the same economic weapons.

The special committee appointed by the New York section of the American Chemical Society to study the chemical situation arrived at the conclusion that "alterations in our tariff laws are inevitable" if we are to have a coal-tar chemical industry. The nation as a whole must bear the burden of expanding industrial chemistry in this country. Private capital can do no more than it has done. German plants cannot be valued exactly. They must be worth several hundred million dollars. Since they were built decades ago most of them have long since been paid for in profits. Couple to that financial advantage the permission to use such co-operative commercial devices as pools and selling agreements, and we need no longer wonder why, under present conditions, we are not likely to have a chemical industry comparable with that of Germany. A protective tariff would not place us altogether on a par with Germany; but it would at least make it profitable to engage in a few chemical activities.

We cite the coal-tar chemical industry because it is the most glaring example of the need of Government co-operation that we can find. The difficulties of establishing that industry are found in a lesser degree in other industries. But everywhere the German trust looms large.

Trust-ridden Germany as an Inevitable Competitor.

Given the half-century days of almost combinations the United States was never so trust-ridden as Germany. At the present time there are more than one thousand trusts, "cartels" and syndicates, covering practically every line of business. Credits, prices, packing charges, sample shipments, these and many other things are regulated by cartels and conventions. The whole economy is felt. We saw that in the potato controversy, on the other hand, public opinion counts for more with trust magnates in Germany than it does here. To be

regarded as an oppressor is not a social distinction, to be looked up to as a successful man, and moves are measured in Germany by such titles as *Kommerzienrat*, or *Reichsrat*, or *Exzellenz*, and by other honors which the various kingdoms, duchies, and principalities would hardly dare bestow on a commercial Trustee—counts for more than millions. That is why greed is automatically restrained.

Germany owns her marvelous world-works in large measure to these permissive trusts. The great Westphalian Coal Syndicate, which controls practically the entire output of fuel in North Germany, has given English coal owners, struggling against one another for a bare existence, a taste of what a trust, backed by a government, can accomplish. The English mine owners care little what price they can obtain, so long as they maintain a full output, but the German collieries are in a working alliance that would be considered criminal in this country under the Sherman and Clayton laws. They distribute on fair lines the burden of loss or the balance of profit with due regard to the requirements of individual collieries. English coal operators have been forced into combinations to fight the German syndicate, for the sole purpose of supporting it at a reasonable level. Beyond that they may not go. They can never hope to do more than avert heavy loss in bad times and earn a meager profit in good times.

Similarly, the great Steel Syndicate of Germany has pushed English steel makers to the wall. It decides what is to be sold inland and on what terms, and it fixes the quantities and prices of exports. We may enable its members to command the home market. Thus it is possible to export the entire German surplus production at less than cost and tax the German consumer for the loss. German consumer iron bars are delivered and sold in Birmingham at \$5 a ton less than it costs to produce them in Midland rolling mills. All this sounds very familiar to American ears. We may blame ourselves that we have adopted a practice never to be emulated nor encouraged, but that same practice must be reckoned with on entering foreign markets. We foresee the time when an international agreement must be arrived at by Germany and the United States in order that a code of commercial ethics may be framed, by the terms of which both Germans and Americans must abide. But until that millennium comes we must face the fact that the German trust exists that it has the backing of its government, and that it has the power of dumping in any market which we seek to enter tons of goods which are not only normally cheap, but which are deliberately sold at less than our cost of manufacture until we are driven from the field. Protective tariffs alone will not help our hand. Some form of "anti-dumping clause" is necessary, the framing of which will be a severe test of legislative ingenuity.

The Futility of Half-way Measures.

How little even American business men realize the utter futility of establishing in this country industries which could not exist without permissive combinations may be seen from the report submitted last December by the special Committee on Trust Legislation to the Board of Directors of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America. Those who signed the report recommended the passage of a bill which would permit combinations entered into or carried on in good faith, for the sole purpose of increasing, facilitating or promoting export trade. Such a bill could not be of much use in establishing a dyestuff industry, for example. It would be difficult indeed to imagine how the hundreds of by-products and intermediate products of the great German chemical industries could be successfully handled, both from a manufacturing and a commercial point of view, on any such basis as that proposed. The measure advanced seems intended to meet the competition which may be expected in foreign trade from a combination of buyers beyond the control of our Government—buyers who may dictate the prices at which American goods may be sold in foreign markets in the absence of authority to American manufacturers and exporters to co-operate to maintain prices above a certain level.

As matters now stand it is doubtful if, under the Clayton law, a group of competing American manufacturers could even engage a common selling agent to introduce their goods in foreign markets—so completely have we tied their hands.

Thanks to the Clayton law, still judicially unenforced, our great manufacturing corporations may not legitimately use the powerful machinery of combination in their struggle for foreign recognition. A new enterprise which is to be conducted on the large scale

(Continued on page 104.)

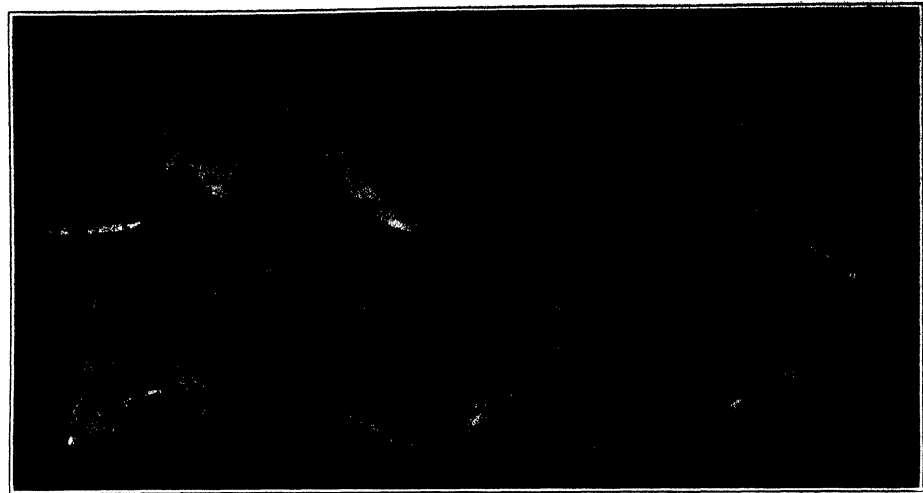


FIG. 1 (Upper).—Illustration of the Pittdown skull by W. P. Pyecraft. The most conspicuous features of this aspect of the skull are the low dome, relatively slight development of the brow ridges over the eyes and the great length of the palate.

FIG. 2 (Lower).—Skull of an Australian aboriginal. In this the dome of the skull is seen to be much higher, the brow ridges larger and the palate shorter.

FIG. 3 (Upper).—Inside of the Pittdown skull, showing contact between the squamosal, or temporal bone, and the parietal, marked, and the low floor of the fore part of the brain case. The slope of this floor should be compared with that of the Australian aboriginal, shown in Fig. 4. Note the unusual thickness of the skull wall.

FIG. 4 (Lower).—Inside of skull of an Australian aboriginal, showing comparatively large brain cavity.

FIG. 5 (Upper).—Superimposed outlines of the Pittdown skull and that of an Australian aboriginal, bringing out characteristic shown in Figs. 1 and 2.

FIG. 6 (Lower).—Superimposed contours of the left half of the back of the Pittdown skull and that of the Australian aboriginal. Note the enormous width across the base of the Pittdown skull. The dark shaded area in all the figures of the Pittdown skull represent restored portions.

Details of the Pittdown skull, and comparisons with skull of an Australian aboriginal.

Mankind in the Making

The Direct Ancestor of the Modern Man and What He Looked Like

By Prof. W. P. Pyecraft, British Museum, London

THE history of mankind in the making is still far from complete and this is especially so in regard to its early chapters. Most of what we have gained on this head is in the nature of inference, drawn from the rude stone weapons which have survived him, leaving no trace of their makers.

The discovery of the now famous fragments of an indubitably human skull at Pittdown, in Sussex, which was first announced at a meeting of the Geological Society of London, December 18th, 1912, was, therefore, an event of epoch-making importance, for not only was it found in association with rude stone weapons of the type known as "edliths," and with remains of animals of older types than any hitherto associated with early man, but it displayed features more primitive, more ape-like than any yet discovered. Quite recently a further find has been made of a crude sort of spear-head, made from the thigh-bone of an elephant. This was obtained from the same area as the skull itself and from its highly mineralized condition there can be little doubt that this was wielded by the Pittdown man and his contemporaries. Since the precise geological age of this skull is still a matter for debate—as to whether it is to be regarded as of very late pleistocene or early pleistocene. It will be more profitable to discuss in these pages those features of the skull itself which have made it of such supreme importance as a "missing link" in the chain we are endeavoring to forge.

These bones of contention, for such they speedily became, represent the roof and back of the skull, the temporal bone, with the great triangular beam joining the internal ear, and, externally, a part of the bony arch which runs forward to the eye and last, but by no means least the lower jaw, or rather the right half, containing two molar teeth. Later a relatively huge canine turned up of which more anon.

As Dr. Smith Woodward pertinently remarks, when it is remembered that *Eanthropus Dawsoni* and *Homo Heidelbergensis* are almost, if not absolutely, of the same geological age, we are led to the interesting conclusion that at the end of the Pleistocene Epoch the representatives of man in Western Europe were already differentiated into widely divergent groups.

This skull is no less remarkable when compared with the other undoubtedly ancient human skulls, and suggests conclusions of even wider significance. The dis-

coveries of the brain-case of that curiously ape-like man, Pithecanthropus, in Java, some years ago, and of several of the skulls of the Mousterian or Neanderthal type, have led to the assumption that early man was characterized by a low, flattened forehead, and a beetling brow, like that of adult existing apes. But the Pittdown specimen, Dr. Smith Woodward points out, is certainly the oldest typically human skull yet found, yet it has a forehead as steep as modern man, and by no means conspicuous brow-ridges. This latter fact has led to the suggestion that this skull is that of a female, and the small backward extension of the area for the mastoid muscles is held to be an additional index supporting this conclusion. This, of course, may be so, but on the other hand we have to take into consideration the enormous thickness of the skull wall, which by the way goes far to account for the small size of the brain.

All the evidence goes to show then, that at least one type of man with a high forehead was already in existence in Western Europe long before Mousterian man. It is curious to remark, however, that this ape-browed man had a larger brain than the Pittdown man. This apparent discrepancy is explained by the almost inevitable conclusion that the Pittdown man is the direct ancestor of modern man, while the Mousterian or Neanderthal man was an offshoot from this stock. In regard to the base there are one or two features of quite exceptional interest. In the first place the width exceeds that of any modern skull so far measured by some 20 millimeters (Fig. 6). So wide a difference betokened either an error in the work of reconstruction or some structural peculiarity so far unsuspected. Having carefully considered the problem in the course of a restoration I had undertaken to check, as it were, the results of Dr. A. Smith Woodward, I came to the conclusion that some structural peculiarity was to be sought for, and this I speedily found in the exceptional length of the petrous bone, which proves to be no less than 10 millimeters longer than in any modern skull. Thus adding this increase of the two sides together the abnormal width was exactly accounted for. This increase has been accomplished by a curious change in the parietal region of the skull for the hinder and lower border of this region, somewhere about the level of the top of the ear, and a little behind it in the living

subject, has been thrust outward. Hence the striking difference between the Pittdown and modern skulls when seen from behind, as in illustration (Fig. 5), for in the modern skull the widest part is seen to be high above the base.

The restoration which I undertook was the first to effect a reconstruction of the floor of the brain-case, and to show the position of the nerve apertures and the apertures for the blood vessels, and from the interior of this it has been possible to take a fairly accurate cast of the brain cavity, and especially of the base of the brain. In attacking this problem I may mention that this building up of the skull base formed the foundation of my restoration. This completed, the remaining portions of the skull were fitted on to it. The result was a skull differing only in minute details from the original restoration of Dr. A. Smith Woodward, which, according to some, and especially Prof. Keith, was too absurd to be seriously considered.

The most conspicuous feature of this skull, when seen from the side, is the low roof or dome and the slight development of the brow-ridges. The latter feature is brought even more forcibly home when the skull is seen from the front or from above. This is really surprising, for these ridges fit the earliest fossil man known as the Neanderthal man, are enormously developed, recalling those of the great apes, such as the gorilla and the chimpanzee. In the Pittdown they are less conspicuous than in many savage races of to-day.

The face must have presented an extremely ape-like appearance, owing to the enormous size of the jaw. The nasal bones, however, were negroid, not ape-like. The really ape-like characters are concentrated in the lower jaw. So much so is this the case that there are some who have gone to ridiculous lengths to show that this was really that of an ape, and had nothing to do with the skull. Needless to say such opinions were expressed only by those unfamiliar with the problems of comparative anatomy, and paleontology.

That this jaw did belong to this skull is not a matter for dispute. Its Simian features should not occasion surprise, having regard to the age of the skull, and the relatively small size of the brain. Compared with that of a modern European its most striking feature is the absence of a "chin," that is to say of the projection of its lower border, which in modern skulls protrudes

beyond the level of the cutting teeth, or "incisors." In this, however, it agrees with the jaw found some years ago at Heidelberg and known in consequence as the "Heidelberg jaw." About the human nature of this there is no doubt, for the character of the teeth renders any other interpretation impossible.

Omitting reference to many other somewhat technical details presented by the Piltdown jaw we may turn now to the teeth. The Simian, or ape-like characters of these is very striking, both in regard to their shape, and their arrangement in the jaw. As in the ape the cheek-teeth or molars, and pre-molars, are placed in a straight line one behind the other instead of in a curve, as in modern human jaws. When the jaw was first found the pre-molars, canine, or "eye-teeth" and the cutting or incisor teeth were missing. Nevertheless, Dr. Smith Woodward, in his restoration ventured to introduce a large canine. The critics scoffed, and pointed out the absurdity of such a venture. Unfortunately for them the missing tooth turned up shortly after. Attempts were then made to show that it could not have belonged to this jaw; but a more careful study of the find seems to have convinced them that they were hopelessly wrong in their pronouncement. But whether or not there can be no doubt but that it is one of the missing series. And the most wonderful thing of all is that, when this tooth came to be compared with the tooth postulated by Dr. Smith Woodward, it was found to differ only in minute details. It differs absolutely from the canine of any known ape, and no less from that of any human tooth yet found known. In some respects it recalls the canine of the milk series, which is what one would expect.

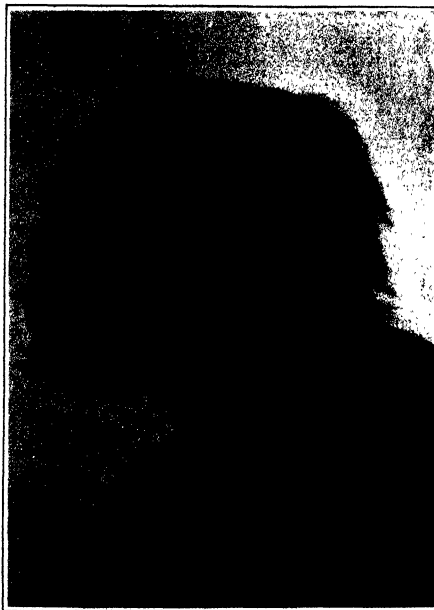
While the skull is essentially human, that is to say, it is the skull of a member of the genus *Homo*, though representing a man of low grade, the jaw, on the other hand, as we have already remarked, is almost that of an ape. On this account these remains must be regarded as representing a new genus of mankind which Dr. Smith Woodward has named *Eoanthropus*. Or to give it its full name *Eoanthropus Dawsoni*, in honor of Mr. Charles Dawson who discovered the first of the fragments.

The form of the roof of the skull, of the brow-ridges, and of the temporal-bone adult of no doubt as to the human character of these remains. What is known as the petrous portion of the last named bone, and the nature of the articular cavity of the lower jaw, differ only in minute points from the same areas in modern men.

No estimate as to the form of the skull, and the cranial, that is to say the brain, capacity of this skull could, of course, be made until the remains were placed together. Toward the fulfillment of this task certain fixed points were at once available. Thus the frontal bone retained a portion of the outer border of the eye-socket, while the hinder portion of this skull-cap could be positively connected with the bones forming the back of the skull, this gave the approximate length of the cranium. There was another actual point of contact with the temporal bone and the parietal (Fig. 8). This enabled a fairly accurate estimate to be made of the height of the skull. Its width, a measurement of great importance, has formed, the subject of much controversy, though as a matter of fact, there can be little room for doubt even on this head. Much depends on the correctness as to the exact position of the middle line of the skull-cap. That this has been fixed by Dr. A. Smith Woodward and Prof. Elliot Smith there can be no question, but Prof. Keith, of the Royal College of Surgeons, insists that this line has been placed too far to the left, thereby materially lessening the size of the brain case, and, as a consequence, the size of the brain, which he assures us exceeded that of modern white races of to-day. That there is absolutely no evidence to support this view we have no hesitation in saying.

The critics indeed have been singularly

unfortunate, so far, in their pronouncements on this restoration. According to them, this skull is much too narrow across the roof, and much too wide across the base. As touching the roof enough, for the moment at any rate, has already been said.



Skull from the Piltdown discovery by J. Owen.

Head of Piltdown man.



Jawbone from the Piltdown discovery by J. Owen.

The Piltdown man (*Eoanthropus Dawsoni*).

New Lens Gives Clear Vision

WHAT was done for the photographic lens some twenty years ago has just been accomplished for the ordinary eye-glass or spectacle lens, that is, it has been corrected for astigmatism through its entire field. It is true that in the case of the photographic lens the result was accomplished by combining several layers of different kinds of glass, which could not be done with a spectacle lens, still it must be considered remarkable that when we consider how vastly the users of spectacle lenses outnumber those who require a photographic lens more effort was not made to perfect what may be called the every day lens.

With the old style flat lenses a field of view of but 16 degrees was afforded and if the eye was turned in its socket in any direction the image which it saw was blurred and distorted to such an extent as to be generally unrecognizable, and this made it necessary for the wearer to turn his head from one to the other as he read a line of print. This, however, is not an operation that ever becomes really natural, and the wearer of glasses is constantly turning his eyes, and with the result that he strains the eye in endeavoring to distinguish the blurred forms seen through the side portions of the lenses. Later on an improved lens, the "toric," was introduced which for most classes of lenses, enlarged the field to about 52 degrees and it seemed almost as accepted that this was the limit of improvement possible. For some years, however, the work of designing an ordinary single-piece lens in which astigmatism and distortion of the oblique rays would be eliminated has been going on at the laboratories of the Carl Zeiss works at Jena, Germany, and as a result, Dr. Moritz von Rohr of the scientific staff has produced a spectacle lens which has been named the "Punktal" lens. The effect of a field of vision of 90 degrees entirely free from astigmatism. Much as wearers of glasses appreciate the annoyances and imperfections of the present lenses it will be difficult to understand the comfort and relief afforded by the new Punktal lenses until they are tried practically as part of a comparison seems to be the only means of judging. The right to manufacture the new lens is held by the Bausch & Lomb Optical Company, the American associates of Carl Zeiss and among the instigators in its development.

The Detoxication of Tobacco

INNUMERABLE attempts have been made to protect smokers from the harmful effects of nicotine. So far, however, this object has not been achieved without at the same time depriving the tobacco of its aroma and taste. Recently Ambibat, a French physician, read a paper before the Medical Society of the Department of the Rhine on one of these attempts. His plan is to do away with the defects of other remedies, and it deserves publication, particularly because of its simplicity. Dr. Ambibat has found that if the ordinary cutfoot or buttercup, which is very common in the countryside, is mixed with tobacco the harmful effects of the latter are completely eliminated. He has himself smoked daily some forty cigarettes made of this mixture without feeling the slightest effect from the nicotine. At any rate the remedy may be worth a trial, cutfoot leaves being perfectly harmless and cheap.

Dr. Ambibat claims that tobacco mixed with cutfoot leaves retains its full aroma and taste, the only perceptible change, if any, being an additional flavor like that of Turkish tobacco. This added flavor should render the mixture very acceptable to most smokers.

Plastering by Machine.—A plastering machine forms the subject of patent, No. 1,100,565, to A. G. Higgins, Kansas City, Mo., assignor of one half to R. M. Havens, same place, and provides means by which cement or other plaster composition may be mixed and fed on to the surface of a trowel so it may be spread upon a wall.

The Heavens in February

Determining the Weights of Molecules and Atoms by Astronomical Observations

By Henry Norris Russell, Ph.D.

THE connection of investigations in different branches of science is often very curious. For example, no one would suppose off-hand that the weights of molecules and atoms could be determined by astronomical observations, but exactly this has just been done in a paper by Mr. Fowle of the Astrophysical Observatory of the Smithsonian Institution.

Strictly speaking, the quantity determined from the Smithsonian observations is the number of molecules in a cubic centimeter of air under standard conditions of pressure and temperature, from which the actual weight of these and other molecules can immediately be deduced. This fundamental physical constant appears in the astronomical work as a by-product of a by-product, but its determination is, nevertheless, fairly precise. The main object of the work of the Smithsonian observers has for many years been the study of the Sun's radiation. The amount of absorption of solar radiation by the Earth's atmosphere has incidentally to be determined and the variation of this for different kinds of light gives the constant in question.

It is an easy enough matter with modern measuring instruments to determine how much energy is carried by a beam of sunlight of known cross-section as we receive it at the Earth's surface. But the amount varies from day to day, with the clearness of the air, and from hour to hour, with the altitude of the Sun and the length of the path which its rays traverse in our atmosphere, and to correct for this and deduce how much energy the measuring apparatus would have received per minute if it had been situated outside our atmosphere is a difficult problem.

If all the solar energy were carried by radiation of a single kind (of a definite wave-length) the calculation would be fairly simple. Suppose that, at noon with the Sun at its highest in the sky, our atmosphere lets ten per cent of the energy of the radiation get through to the Earth's surface. A second layer of air of equal thickness would transmit 90 per cent of the energy which got through the first layer. But we can actually obtain such a double layer by observing at a time (in the morning or afternoon when the Sun is at such an altitude that its rays have to traverse twice as long a path through our atmosphere as at noon. The energy which we would receive outside the atmosphere will then be greater than that measured at noon in the same proportion in which this exceeds the amount measured at the morning observation. In practice the two observations at different altitudes of the Sun can be used for the "air mass" along the path of the rays can always be calculated. What complicates the actual problem is that the amount of absorption for the same thickness of air varies very greatly for radiation of different wave-lengths. If it, therefore, necessary to split up the solar radiation by means of a spectroscopic, determine the amount of energy caused by radiation of each wave-length and apply the process just sketched to each separately, adding the results at the end to get the whole solar radiation.

As an incident to the laborious but unavoidable process, it is clear that the computed value obtained values for the transmission of radiation of different wave-lengths through the Earth's atmosphere which may easily be reduced to the amount which would be found for rays coming vertically down just along the shortest possible path. As might be expected the atmospheric transmission is much cleaner by any perceptible hardness of the sky, and good sets of observations can only be obtained on clear days. But even in the clearest weather, and at high mountain stations, there is a very perceptible loss of energy in passing through the air, and the percentage of loss increases steadily as the wave-length of the radiation becomes smaller. Under favorable conditions, at Mount Wilson almost 90 per cent of the infra-red radiation of long wave-length gets through the air. In the green part of the spectrum the percentage transmitted drops to 90, in the violet to 80, and in the ultra-violet only a little way beyond the limit of easy visibility to 60.

In certain regions in the infra-red the atmosphere is almost opaque to solar radiation, owing to selective absorption by the water vapor present in it, and the

general absorption of the air is also the greater, the denser it is, but the influence of this can be determined, and has been allowed for in calculating the figures just given.

There is good reason to believe that the outstanding depletion of the solar radiation on passing through dry air arises mainly, not from actual absorption of the energy, but from scattering of the radiation into other directions than that of the direct rays of the Sun. If this did not occur the sky on a clear day would be black except for whatever whitish dust-haze might appear in it. The familiar blue color, as Lord Rayleigh has shown, is a direct consequence of this scattering of light, which is produced, even in perfectly dust-free air, by the gas molecules themselves. These minute bodies act far more powerfully on radiation of short wave-lengths than on that whose waves are longer; indeed, the scattering power for violet light is ten times that for light in the extreme red. Hence, the air molecules diffuse a far larger proportion of blue and violet light than of red and yellow, and the sky looks

action of the molecules of the air. Now, according to Rayleigh's theory, there exists a fairly simple relation between the amount of this molecular scattering and the number of molecules per cubic centimeter, so that the last can be calculated, if the length of path of the light in the gas and the refractive index of the latter are known. Applying this formula to the Mount Wilson observations, Fowle concludes that the number of molecules per cubic centimeter of air, under standard conditions (barometer 76 centimeters and temperature 0 deg. Cent.) is 27 billion billion (27.0×10^{21}) with a probable error of less than one per cent. This is in practically exact agreement with the very precise value recently obtained in quite another way by Prof. Millikan of the University of Chicago, and in harmony also with that of other observers who have used absolutely different methods of investigation. Now, according to fundamental chemical principles, the number of molecules in a cubic centimeter of all gases, under the standard conditions, is the same. Moreover, it takes 11,200 cubic centimeters of hydrogen to weigh a gramme. Hence we find that in a gramme of hydrogen there are 308 thousand billions of billions of molecules and twice as many hydrogen atoms (6.05×10^{23}), and, since the relative weights of all atoms of all elements are known, the means have been determined very precisely by chemical means we are in a position to state the actual weight of a single atom or molecule of any substance of known chemical constitution.

A conclusion of more astronomical importance is that it is impossible to get a much clearer skies than exist at the best observing stations, unless by going to very high altitudes. More remarkable is the deduction that a ball of perfectly clear air as big as the Earth (if it could be kept of uniform density throughout) would be quite opaque to yellow-green light, the kind to which the human eye is most sensitive, loses 30 per cent in passing through the air above Mount Wilson (equal to about four miles of air at standard pressure and temperature).

Only 35 per cent of such light would get through 100 miles of air under standard conditions, even if the air were absolutely free from dust and haze, which evidently explains why distant mountains, even in the clearest weather, look blue, for at least two thirds of the light we get in looking at them is blue-ray-light from the air in front of them.

It follows that a line of air would transmit only 1/2000th part of the incident light and one of 1,000 miles hardly 1/40,000th of it. Now a line between two points 1,000 miles apart on the Earth's surface passes at most about 31 miles below the Earth's surface—less than 1/100th of the Earth's radius. Hence a ball of air as big as the Earth, when seen from a distance, would be entirely opaque except for a very narrow rim around the edge. A body as big as the stars would be still more so—so that, of whatever material a star may be composed and however purely gaseous they may be, the star as a whole must be an opaque body.

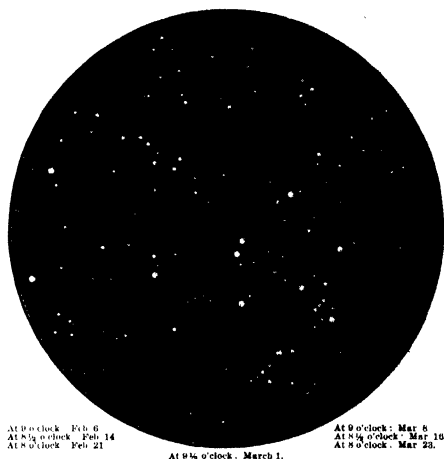
The Heavens.

Our map shows at a glance what constellations are to be seen in the evening heavens—the splendid group in the southwest—Orion, the Great and Little Dogs, Gemini, Taurus, and Auriga. In the northwest are Perseus, Andromeda, and Cassiopeia; in the northeast, Ursa Major, Boötes, and Draco; in the east, Leo and Virgo; while Cancer and Hydra occupy the dull southwestern sky.

The Planets.

Mercury is evening star until the 21st, when he passes north of the Sun and becomes a morning star. During the earlier part of the month, and especially about the time of his greatest elongation on the 6th, he is admirably placed for observation, setting about 6:50 P. M., which is an hour and a half later than the Sun. On the 1st he is in conjunction with Jupiter, the two planets being little more than half a degree apart, with Mercury to the northward. Jupiter is about three times the brighter of the two, but Mercury, too, is above the first magnitude, and the two will form a very pretty picture. The two planets slowly separate again.

(Continued on page 103.)



NIGHT SKY: FEBRUARY AND MARCH

At 9 o'clock Feb. 6
At 9 o'clock Feb. 14
At 8 o'clock Feb. 21

At 9 1/2 o'clock, March 1.

At 9 o'clock, Mar. 8
At 9 o'clock, Mar. 15
At 8 o'clock, Mar. 22.

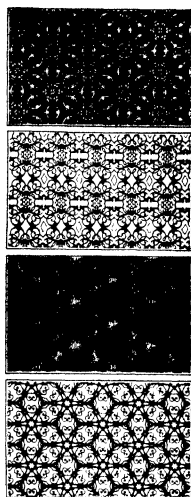
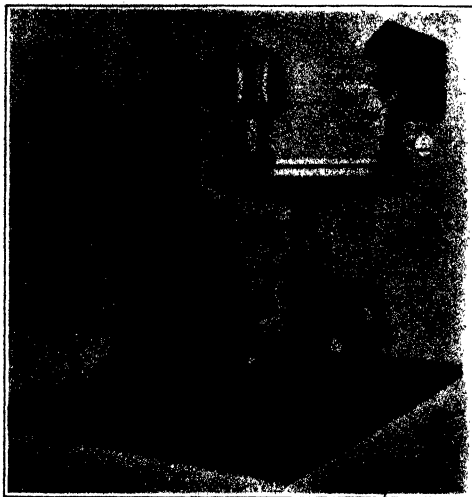
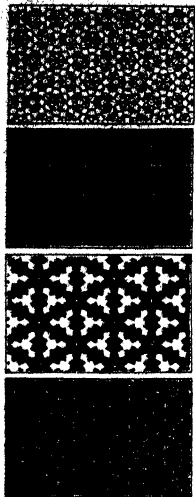
blue. Dust particles, on the other hand, reflect light of all colors equally, so when the air is full of dust or haze and the sky is brighter than usual, the blue is mixed with white, and the sky becomes milky; while on the clearest days the sky is the deepest blue.

The light which goes to make the sky blue is taken from the direct sunbeams, and, therefore, when the Sun is near the horizon, and the path of the rays through the air is long, very little blue light is left to get to us, and the Sun looks yellow or even red, whence the familiar sunset colors.

We may, therefore, split up the general absorption of light by the air into two parts, one depending upon the presence of suspended particles of dust or fog, and the same for all kinds of light, the other depending on scattering of light by the molecules themselves, and varying as Rayleigh has shown, inversely as the fourth power of the wave-length. From a study of the Mount Wilson observations, Fowle concludes that the influence of dust or haze on the average clear day is practically negligible, the absorption due to this cause being but 1/200 of the amount transmitted.

This statement applies only to normal conditions. In 1912 the upper air was so full of fine volcanic dust from the great eruption of Mount Katmai in the Aleutian Islands that the observations of its transmission could not be used for the present purpose, and even in 1913, when the dust had had a year to settle, enough remained to produce an absorption of 2 1/2 per cent of the incident radiation—fully five times the normal value.

Almost everything that is observed is due to the



The photo-kaleidoscope is an instrument which for the first time renders it possible to fix the patterns of a kaleidoscope photographically for the use of textile and wall paper designers.

The Photo-Kaleidograph

A New Instrument That Facilitates the Designing of Artistic Patterns

By the Berlin Correspondent of the Scientific American

IT is not generally known that the kaleidoscope, so far from being a mere children's toy, has been occasionally put to practical uses, and has rendered good services in the designing of artistic patterns for weaving mills, and embroidery, tapestry, and linoleum factories. Attempts have also been made from time to time to combine the kaleidoscope with a photographic camera, though no appreciable success has been obtained in this connection.

Dr. C. Pufrich of Jena, Germany, the well-known expert in the field of optics, has perfected an apparatus of provision which would seem to be eminently suitable for commercial purposes, yielding as it does a startling variety of striking and artistic patterns for visual inspection as well as photographic recording. This apparatus has been one of the attractions of the International Exposition of Printing, held last summer at Leipzig.

Whereas in Brewster's classical kaleidoscope, images are generated by reflection on plane mirrors, Pufrich uses the sides of a straight, massive glass rod instead, which are ground and polished with all the accuracy obtainable in large optical works such as those of Zeiss. The angles are likewise adjusted with the utmost precision to the figures prescribed in each case. The glass rod is silvered throughout its length and is protected against damage by strips of black glass glued around its circumference. Its two ends are ground plane and polished at right angles to the length of the rod. The whole is surrounded by a metal tube, allowing only the ends to project.

The tube thus arranged is situated optically above a horizontal photographic plate (15.15 centimeters), the objective being screwed to the lower end of the tube. The distance of the tube from the plate is so adjusted as to project a sharp kaleidoscopic picture on the latter. A set of such rods of various cross-sections is provided, which are readily exchangeable, the external diameters of all the tubes being rigorously the same. Each tube is held in position by a set-screw so adjusted as to insure a maximum definition of pictures.

The fundamental pattern from which the kaleidoscopic pictures is to be composed is applied to the upper free end of the glass rod; photographs on glass are used exclusively for this purpose, thus insuring perfect continuity between the various sections of the picture. A drop of oil having been put on the end of the rod, the glass picture, with its sensitive layer turned toward the glass rod, is slightly pressed against the latter. The rod then chooses from the picture a section of the size and shape of its cross-section, and by reflection,

produces the most varied juxtapositions of this section, so as to form an endless variety of patterns.

The pattern is lighted by mercury light traversing an optical filter, thus having only the beams corresponding to one of the violet mercury lines for producing the kaleidoscopic pictures. A slanting plane mirror inserted between the object and slide projects the kaleidoscopic pictures on a ground glass screen and allows the patterns to be inspected and selected at will. In fact, they can thus be examined by several persons simultaneously. Whenever a pattern is thought worth recording, the mirror is thrown aside by turning it round a horizontal axis, and is kept in position by a bolt, during the time required for a photographic record (about 1 minute). The photographic view having been taken, the mirror is reduced to its original position, where it forms a light-tight enclosure for the photographic plate, while the picture reappears on the ground glass screen.

The ground side of the screen is turned outside and can be used for tracing the outlines of certain parts of a pattern.

Dr. Pufrich's new apparatus enables an infinite variety not only of surface patterns, but of rod and band patterns and rosettes to be generated. Any photographic picture can be used as a basis, and kaleidoscopic pictures themselves can be employed in turn for the production of new patterns.

Each glass rod and tube can also be used separately for the inspection of kaleidoscopic pictures, the photographic objective being replaced by a lens.

The apparatus obviously admits of a number of uses in the lines of industry above referred to. It may prove desirable to supply it with an attachment for reproducing any individual picture.

"Mission Memories" Wins the Trade-mark Contest

IT will be remembered that a few weeks ago a notice appeared in the *Scientific American* stating that Mr. E. Monte, of San Diego, had offered a prize for the best name that would serve as a trade-mark for the perfumes manufactured by him, and that the decision was to be made by Munn & Co. The time limit having expired the judges have performed their task, and have decided that the winner of the prize of twenty dollars is Amy Bebebe Smyth, of San Diego, who suggested the term "Mission Memories."

The announcement aroused an unexpected amount of interest, and a large number of valuable suggestions were received. The judges found their task by no means

easy, both on account of the mass of material to be examined, and especially because of the conditions of the contest. In matters of this nature it is not only necessary to select euphonious words, which will be suitable from the user's point of view, but such words must also conform to the requirement of the Trade-mark Statutes, which among other things prohibit the use of a personal name, not distinctively written, words or devices merely descriptive of the goods with which they are used, or of their character or quality, or merely geographical names. There are also other technical points that must be kept in mind, so that the work of the judges in scrutinizing the very considerable list of words and terms had to be most carefully and skilfully performed. It was found that the statutory requirements were not nearly as well met as the business necessities. After careful consideration of all the conditions, both statutory and business, the term "Mission Memories" was considered to best fulfill all requirements, and the award was consequently made to it.

Lock for Bicycles

AN excellent method for locking bicycles to prevent them from being stolen is used in France, and it is one of the easiest to fit on by a clever amateur. The device is applied to that part of the frame above the front fork which the main or upper horizontal tube of the frame. On the head of the fork is placed a stout collar, preferably riveted on to prevent turning, the collar having a projecting wing at the back so that this projects over the horizontal bar. On the bar itself is placed a second collar, having a vertical projection which is pivoted to the collar. The combination makes one fixed and one movable wing which can be brought together, and a padlock is passed through holes in each. The trick of the device is that the first wing lies at a slight angle due to the mounting of the collar, so that when locked, the front wheel no longer lies straight, but somewhat inclined, and in this way it is impossible to ride the machine.

A New Bead-string Fastener

THE clasp or fastener ordinarily employed on strings of beads, such as the popular pearl necklace, are objectionable not only for insecurity in many instances, but also because they make a break in the continuity, and when they slip to the front of the wearer detract from the appearance. It has been suggested that possibly some form of fastener might be devised which would include as its elements bead structures corresponding to the other units of the necklace.

Shooting the Hozugawa Rapids

Forth the price of eight yen, equivalent to \$4 in our money, one may purchase the thrilling experience of shooting the rapids of the Huzo River, or Hozugawa, which flows from the highlands of Japan past the ancient capital, Kyoto. Expensive as this means of transportation is, the farmers of this particular section of the country must pay the price of eight yen per boatload to ship their produce to market. To successfully navigate the craft, such as is shown in the accompanying illustration, requires not only considerable skill but also daring as the fast waters of the Hozugawa are extremely treacherous and dangerous, many persons having lost their lives there.

Fighting Caterpillars With Steam

Hordes of caterpillars proved a serious menace to railroad operation this summer on the McCloud River Railroad, in Northern California. Locomotives could not make traction because of the millions of writhing crawlers that clogged the rails, forming a solid mass as the engine passed over them. Sand was of no avail, crowd sprinkled along the rails checked them for only a brief time, and the expedient of placing men on the cowcatcher to sweep off the creatures with a broom was of no value at all. More caterpillars were crushed by the brooms, the snow-brushed clear of the tracks, while those that escaped alive promptly crawled back upon the rails before the train had passed.

Apparently the railroad was under the necessity of digging trenches for many miles along both sides of the right of way, a very heavy outlay, but the only effective method so far discovered of holding the creeping hordes in check. This method had been used with success in the lumber camps of that section, which had also been overwhelmed with the pest.

However this great expense was done away with by an invention of Master Mechanic John Kennedy, who devised a system of forcing live steam from the locomotive boiler upon the rails ahead of the cowcatcher. The heat killed the insects, while the force of the jet threw their bodies off the track without crushing them. In this manner, the problem was solved with slight expense, as Mr. Kennedy's invention was of extreme simplicity. It consists of a couple of small tubes extending from the boiler to the front of the locomotive and terminating a few inches above each rail. The engineer controls the steam outlet with a simple device. After using this invention for a short period, the hordes of countless thousands of caterpillars were banded along side the track for miles.

Forceful Feeding in the Lincoln Park Zoo

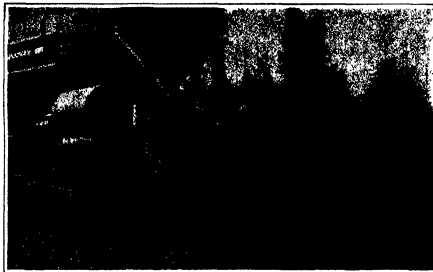
LAST spring, "Romeo," a huge snake, was trapped in an Indian jungle and brought to the Lincoln Park Zoo in Chicago. Since then thousands of park goers who have seen him coiled up in a glass case in the monkey house have thought the snake was dead. But "Romeo" was simply on a hunger strike. Months passed and "Romeo" would not eat. His weight dropped from 300 to 215 pounds. Dr. Vix, the animal keeper, got a mate for the reptile but "Romeo" remained disconsolate.

One day recently Dr. Vix saw a picture of a "gun" used to feed sick animals and lost no time in procuring one.

When the gun arrived it was immediately put into service. Twenty keepers led the snake from the glass case and plunged it into a tank of hot water. There his summer coat was removed. The snake was then placed on a fifty-foot board. Forty hands were required to hold him still. The "gun" was fastened at the head of the board. Twenty pounds of chopped pork and beef, mixed with fresh pig's blood, were placed in the cylinder of the feeder, to which a hose was attached. One of the attendants took a pointed stick



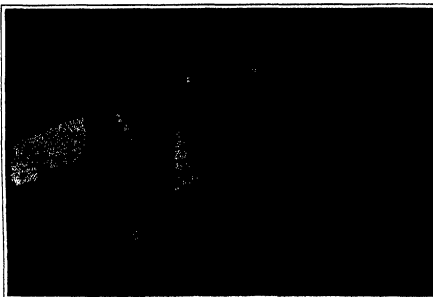
Shooting the Hozugawa Rapids, Japan.



Locomotive equipped with steam jets to clear the tracks of caterpillars.



Extinguishing a burning oil well by diverting the flaming gases.



Feeding a snake that would not eat.

and forced the snake's mouth open. Whereupon the keeper inserted a board between the jaws. There was a hole in the board to allow the passage of the meat.

The snake was then dragged up to the machine, the hose was placed in its mouth and the crank turned. Fifty pounds of meat was "shot" down the snake's throat before the operation was finished.

The Current Supplement

MANY references have been made to the method of passing vessels through the locks at the Panama Canal, but there has been no real description of the ingenious electric towing locomotives that have been specially designed and built to do this important work. The article on this subject in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2309, for January 30th, 1915, gives such a description, with a number of illustrations that fully show the system adopted, and it will be found a matter of general interest. There is also a valuable paper by Prof. Joly, the well-known scientist, on the Birth-time of the World, discussing various methods of estimating the age of the earth, and the interest in this is increased by the paper on Sea Salt and Geological Time, by H. S. Shelton, who criticizes Prof. Joly's theories. Finally, the Ultimate Food, contains a fund of information about a form of marine life that, although vast in extent, is little known generally. The Function of Enzymes, those products of living cells that so wonderfully affect the chemical operations of living matter, is the subject of an article dealing with some of the mysterious of life. Biogenetics, in War tells of the methods of adapting modern science to the necessities of surgical work in the field. The Hygienic Home impresses some facts of everyday life that should be more thoroughly known and appreciated. There is a third article on liquid crystals by Dr. Lehmann, as well as some notes on the Hygiene of Fear. In technical subjects there are interesting notes on Iron Manufacture by Electrolysis, and the valuable review of Arithmetic Machines is concluded. The description of a new Hydrogen X-ray Tube, possessing special qualities, is of more than passing value.

Extinguishing a Burning Oil Well

THE accompanying photograph illustrates the plan which was successfully employed in extinguishing a burning gas well in the bed of the Cimarron River, in the Cushing oil field, Oklahoma. The well, before the fire, registered sixty-two million feet of gas. It could not be controlled, and it finally caught fire from a campfire nearly a quarter of a mile away. A wire cable was stretched across the river. On this an immense hood with a tall smoke stack attached, was suspended, and this was finally dropped over the gas. Another cable had been attached to the stack and carried to the river bank. Then a team of horses was hitched to the latter cable. Steam from six boilers was carried to the mouth of the well. All the time the blaze was coming out of the stack. The stack and hood was jerked by the team far away from the well, thus carrying the flame far away from the well, the gas in the stack still burning. Then the steam was turned onto the mouth of the well, diverting the gas still further from the flame, and the fire was thus extinguished.

Profit From Forests

MANY European towns and cities own considerable areas of forest lands, and as these are in almost every case under the constant care and supervision of qualified foresters they are a source of steady profit to the communities. An example of this is cited in recent forest notes by the U. S. Department of Agriculture, which states that Zilrich, Switzerland, derives an annual income of \$7.20 per acre from her forests, which results in a reduction in the taxes of \$30,000 each year.

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

These columns are open to all patentees. The notices are inserted by special arrangement with the inventor. There is no application to the Advertising Department of the Scientific American.

Pertaining to Apparel.

DRESS FORM.—**A. K. KOWERS**, of H. R. Kowors, care of Kaye Mfg. Co., care of 134th St., New York, N. Y. This invention relates to dress forms, including both the bust and skirt portions, and the main object thereof is to make such forms collapsible, whereby less space is required for storage and for shipping with the consequent saving.

CLOTH CUTTER.—**L. H. WILLIAMS**, 418 Augusta St., St. Joseph, Mo. This cutter has a knife normally disposed within a casing which is mounted on a track bar along which it is adapted to move, the track bar having means for holding the cloth to be cut against a corrugated member on a base to which the track bar is articulated.

WEATHERPROOF GARMENT.—**J. LIPMAN**, care of Elsdorff, Hyman & Co., 77 Battery St., San Francisco, Cal. The garment is preferably in the form of a shirt, more especially designed for use by loggers and other persons and arranged to conceal a weatherproof undergarment and to allow convenient removal thereof to permit of washing the garment when desired to do so.

Pertaining to Aviation.

AEROPLANE.—**O. CALIN**, 638 Union St., Brooklyn, N. Y. The airplane is arranged to provide a large sustaining area in a comparatively small space, to insure easy rising and descending of the aeroplane, to maintain the equilibrium in heavy adverse or contrary currents of air, and to allow safe descending in case of accident to the motor or other parts.

Electrical Devices.

POLE.—**A. H. MATTHEW**, Cobble, Wash. Mr. Matthew's invention relates more particularly to telegraph and telephone poles, and it is a design of the inventor to produce an improved metallic hollow pole adapted to receive a fitting of steel or other sound deadening material. The pole may be shipped in sections.

OPERATING MEANS FOR ELECTRIC LAMP SWITCHES.—**A. J. THAYER**, 38 E. 10th St., Brooklyn, N. Y., N. Y. The invention provides a rotary lamp switch member with a stud mounted on a leaf spring and movable in a slot in a casing by a cam mounted on a collar so that the switch member may be rotated a distance by the collar and the cam when the coil is rotated in one direction, the leaf spring permitting the stud to move inwardly out of the way when the collar is rotated in the opposite direction.

MEANS FOR PARTENING THE DANGLING END OF A BROKEN OVERHEAD ELECTRIC CONDUCTOR.—**A. J. THAYER**, 38 E. 10th St., Brooklyn, N. Y. The object here is to provide means for drawing up and fastening the dangling end of a broken overhead electric conductor, to prevent short circuiting of the electric circuit and to reduce the danger of electric shocks and electrocution from human beings and animals liable to come in contact with the broken end of the circuit conductor.

Of Interest to Farmers.

MOWER.—**A. H. MATTHEW**, Cobble, Wash. The invention relates to a mower or reaper, and the aim is to provide a cutting mechanism and extracting means thereof requiring less expenditure of power for effective operation. The invention provides a novel means whereby the cutters may be raised at an angle for the cutting of hedge.

APPARATUS FOR DRYING MILK.—**J. D. MILLER**, New York, N. Y., care of W. De W. Bentley, Illinois St., Chicago, Ill. In this case use is made of a driving gear connected with the agitator shaft to rotate the agitator continuously in one direction, and corresponding increase of power during the period of changing the milk to a doughy consistency, and to rotate the said agitator shaft at a decreased speed and at corresponding increase of power during the period of changing the milk from a doughy consistency into granular form.

FLOW.—**T. N. HAY**, 620 Highland St., Columbia S. C. This invention pertains to plows and more particularly to an improvement in head or garden plows. The invention provides a head plow having a plow share positioned in front of the wheel, so that the wheel travels in the furrow made by the share, thus allowing an easy manipulation of the plow.

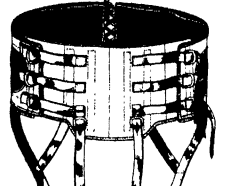
COTTON CHOPPER.—**E. R. BUCKLEY** and **J. F. YOUNG**, Grand Prairie, Tex. In this device a wheel supporting a set of shallow blades adapted to be drawn through the field with the wheels astride the row of growing plants, and wherein other mechanism is provided in connection with the frame and supported thereby and moving transversely of the row for cutting out the screw plants, the said mechanism being arranged to pass deep or shallow and being controlled by the operator of the machine.

Of General Interest.

SPLOOT.—**W. H. BAKER**, Address Frank Street

St., St. Louis, Mo. In the present patent the invention has for its purpose the provision of a spoon comprising a body and handle detachably connected with the body, and so arranged that when the said handle becomes mutilated or broken they may be removed from the body and a new handle attached.

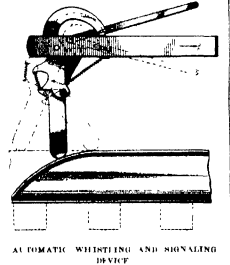
COMPRESSOR OR ATMOSPHERIC SUPPORTER.—**G. W. KNOX**, 203 Broadway, New York, N. Y. This invention has for its general objects to improve and simplify the construction of atmospheric supports so as to accomplish the purpose for which it is applied and at the



COMPRESSOR OR ATMOSPHERIC SUPPORT

same time permit of being easily and quickly attached or detached and while in place be comfortable to the wearer in the natural movements of the body, as in changing from a sitting to a standing posture, or vice versa, or in the lateral bending of the body.

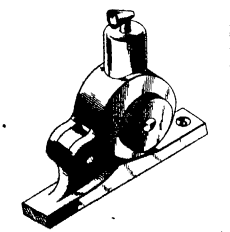
AUTOMATIC WHISTLING AND SIGNALING DEVICE.—**J. T. JONES**, Address J. R. Huger, Attorney, Knoxville, Mo. This invention relates to devices for automatically sounding a whistle or other audible signal on a moving engine, car, or motor vehicle at predetermined points along its route of travel. An



AUTOMATIC WHISTLING AND SIGNALING DEVICE

object is to provide a device of the type described for use on a moving vehicle, the construction, consisting in fact of only two main parts on the engine frame, one of said parts being arranged to engage a stationary trip member on the track.

VARIABLE RANGE PEET NIGHT FOR FIREARM.—**J. T. JONES**, Address J. R. Huger, Attorney, Knoxville, Mo. This invention relates to sights of the peep type for rifles and other firearms, and has to do with more particularly with adjustable or variable range peep sights. The invention improves and simplifies the construction of de-



VARIABLE RANGE PEET NIGHT FOR FIREARM

vices referred to so as to be reliable and efficient in use, comparatively inexpensive to manufacture, and so designed as to enable the sight to be quickly and accurately adjusted for any range within the capacity of the firearm to which it is applied.

THERMOMETER HOLDER.—**C. N. MERRILL** and **W. V. VAN DUSEN**, Address the late, 1646 Garfield Boulevard, Chicago, Ill. This invention relates to a device for holding a thermometer and supporting a receptacle or cup

with the thermometer extending thereto and designed for special use in breweries, distilleries, chemical works and any kind of metal treatment where liquids are handled under conditions where the temperature must be frequently taken.

OPTICAL PYROMETER.—**A. C. BURMAN**, 611 Blackburn Ave., Bewick, Pa. This invention provides an indicator which is heated by the passage of current therethrough, which can be regulated for various temperatures, whereby the color of the heated metal can be effectively denoted by an indicator including means for holding a strip of metal which can be heated and reheated at high temperatures without changing its physical properties and without oxidizing.

EYE BATH.—**J. E. ROSS**, 610 E. Elm St., Springfield, Mo. The invention relates to eye baths consisting of an eye cup combined with means for applying water or other liquid to the eye in the treatment of ocular affections. The device includes means for discharging water under pressure and in the form of spray against the eye, whereby the hydrotherapeutic action of the water is made use of in the treatment of certain diseases of the eye.

MEASURING DEVICE.—**R. C. BRADLEY**, 6124 Market St., Shreveport, La. The invention relates to measuring devices and more particularly to a measuring cup or scoop. It provides a scoop which may be adjusted for measuring predetermined quantities of commodities and which will indicate the price to be charged for each quantity or amount.

HOSEBENDER.—**H. FRANKIS**, Montague, Mass. The invention in this case of hose-benders, in that class of hose-benders which are secured to the also provide by means of removable fastenings. The also is easily unfastened and can be used for the purpose of welding on cables with the easily removable and

replaced cables and locking devices. In relocking shoes, this and for of the blacksmiths are saved and also the long wall of patrons at the shop while horses being shod in the old way. (An slippery road-dull cable can be read if removed for future use and sharp ones replaced by anyone in a very short time.)

Hardware and Tools.

DOOR LOCK.—**M. F. RICHMOND**, 107 E. 124th St., New York, N. Y. This door lock is arranged normally to hold the door securely locked against accidental opening and permitting of unlocking the door from one face thereof by pressure applied to a transverse rod instead of turning a door knob or the like and to allow unlocking from the other face of the door on pulling the door knob.

WIRE NIPPER AND TWISTER.—**J. T. WEST**, 4312 Vernon Ave., Chicago, Ill. This invention relates to metal working tools and has particular reference to means for gripping and twisting wires such, for instance, as are used for fastening together reinforcement means for concrete structures although the use of the device is not to be regarded as being limited to the means as herein stated.

CAULKING TOOL.—**A. F. OLSON**, Box 8, Holton, Mich. This tool is for use for filling cracks or seams with cement, pitch, wood filler or similar materials and is particularly adapted to be used over a surface and on the manner of a plane in which a container chamber is provided, in which a follower is adapted to be depressed and to force the filling material downwardly through the bottom of the tool.

DOOR LATCH.—**B. I. JOHNSON**, Glasgow, Minn. The subject here is to provide a latch of a novel form, adapted more particularly to be operated from other side of the interior door, in which the handle part, at the bottom of the latch, will lie within the plane of the door so as to clear the casing in the sliding of the door.

BAR WIRE REEL.—**SULLIVANT**, C. A. BOSTON, Mass. This invention provides a reel support for use in connection with a spool of bar wire, the reel support including a member extending through the axle of the spool and provided at each end with a sleeve whereby such axle may be supported by an operator or otherwise while the shaft is free to rotate within the sleeve.

TOOL.—**F. R. HARRINGTON**, 311 W. 117th St., New York, N. Y. Among the principal objects which the present invention has in view are to provide a separable head, the parts whereof are readily and economically constructed to strengthen the assembled tool, and to provide for wear on the jointed parts of said tool.

PIPE CUTTER.—**W. H. JOHNSON**, 6201 Leona St., Chicago, Ill. This improvement provides a device by means of which a portion of the material of the pipe is removed to form

the cut, instead of the material being displaced and wedged apart without removing, as in the case with the commonly used cutters.

PENCIL SHARPENER.—**E. A. NICKEL**, Indianapolis, N. Y. This pencil sharpener may be carried on the pencil. It is constructed with a knife which makes, with an oblique cut a long or short point as desired. This knife may be moved out of operative position when it is desired to move the sharpener up from the pencil point. The sharpener forms a rest for the fingers when the pencil is used for writing.

BRACE.—**F. C. CORNELL** and **J. T. MCANIS**, Address the latter, Baltimore, Md. This invention relates more particularly to a brace, level and one of the principal objects is to provide a brace with a brace level whereby the operator of the brace may instantly ascertain whether the brace is being maintained in a vertical or horizontal position relative to whether a vertical or horizontal position is being held.

Heating and Lighting.

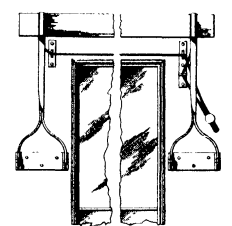
LIQUID FUEL GAS GENERATOR.—**R. J. McKIMM**, P. O. Box No. 1, Nashville, Tenn. This invention provides means for converting liquid gas into gas combined with adjustable means for mixing the right amount of air with the gas to insure perfect combustion for general and domestic use. It provides a system whereby a more satisfactory heating is obtained by heating of the generating pipe is obtained for the purpose of assisting the process of generating gas from a liquid fuel.

LAMP CHIMNEY.—**W. W. WARD**, Mt. Pleasant, Va. This invention provides a chimney adapted to be secured in hold in position on the chimney support of the lamp in the usual spring clamps to prevent the chimney from toppling over when carrying the lamp glass and to insure quick re-centering of the chimney relative to the burner.

OPEN FRONT GAS HEATER.—**P. M. K. HARRIS**, care of Hight St., corner 10th and Main St., Joplin, Mo. The invention is an improvement in that class of gas heaters having an open front and provided with curved reflector plates having curved reflecting surfaces and to insure quick re-centering of the chimney relative to the burner.

Household Utilities.

ADJUSTABLE CURTAIN POLE HOOK KIT.—**A. C. MEAD**, 1000 Griffin Ave., New South Wales, Australia. This invention has reference to the hook kit for curtains and the invention is an improvement in that class of hook kits which can be kept out of the wall and may be readily lowered for changing or other purposes.



ADJUSTABLE CURTAIN POLE HOOK KIT.—**A. C. MEAD**, 1000 Griffin Ave., New South Wales, Australia. This invention has reference to the hook kit for curtains and the invention is an improvement in that class of hook kits which can be kept out of the wall and may be readily lowered for changing or other purposes.

WASHING MACHINE.—**D. E. HARRIS** and **J. P. HARRIS**, Address Andrew J. Baird 24 South St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a portable machine for washing clothes and means for quickly and easily attaching it to a stationary tub and for rotating the drum when in position. It provides a pair of brackets to be secured to the walls of a stationary tub to support a rotary clothes rotating drum. The brackets also provided means for rotating the drum in supported position.

FAUCET.—**E. BUCKEN**, National Park, N. Y. This invention provides a faucet for preventing the flow of the liquid while installing the faucet on a water line, and in so doing to prevent the faucet from being damaged and to prevent the faucet from being damaged and to prevent the faucet from being damaged.

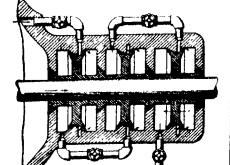
CURTAIN PIN.—**E. W. MANN**, 2400 8th and Albany Post Office, Van Nuys, California, N. Y. This invention provides a curtain pin of a simple and cheap construction of a nature serving to prevent the fabric from becoming caught or entangled in any one place, and, secondly, to provide improved locking means not only for the hook portion, but also for the

CARNELORE HOLDER.—**J. J. O'MARA**, 201 Lorimer St., Brooklyn, N. Y., N. Y. This invention relates to carnelore frames or similar utensils and articles and the invention provides a method of joining the ends of a band of the solid or reticulated material and similar material and the invention provides a method of joining the ends of a band of the solid or reticulated material and similar material and the invention provides a method of joining the ends of a band of the solid or reticulated material and similar material.

Machines and Mechanical Devices

WEAVING MACHINE.—A. H. FRANKLIN, Appleton, Minn. The invention has for its more particular purpose, the provision of means for perforating the stock independently of the work done by the shuttle as the latter is driven into the stock, the perforation being made, however, and the single being driven into it, through the stock at practically a single operation.

COMBINATION THRUST BEARING AND FLUID SEAL.—W. J. WONTREAU, 342 Highland, Norman, Okla. An object of the invention is to provide a bearing and seal combined in which the thrust is achieved by the pressure of oppositely directed, with means for automatically adjusting the said oppositely directed

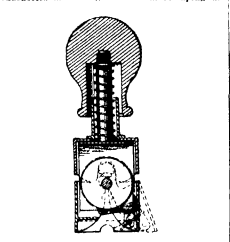


COMBINATION THRUST BEARING AND FLUID SEAL

fluid pressures. The invention provides a combined thrust bearing and fluid seal wherein the relative position between the rotor and stator is fixed by the fluid pressures, oppositely directed. The invention provides a thrust member having a multi-orifice arrangement, in which the fluid pressure is caused to gradually decrease in each successive cell.

SAND PUMP FOR OIL WELLS.—J. H. MURPHY, Box 342, Hudson, N. Y. The invention is an improvement in sand pumps for oil wells and the like and has for its object to provide a pump especially adapted for removing sand and mud from deep wells, as, for instance, driven wells and the like.

HAND STAMPING MACHINE.—A. MARKS, Box 4 of The Trust & Safe Mfg. Co., New Britain, Conn. The invention has particular reference to a machine made principally of metal and having consequently a set of metallic type characters as distinguished from stamping de-



HAND STAMPING MACHINE

vises having rubber characters. An object of the invention is to provide a device of a very simple and compact nature, whereby the trademark can be supplied at a low cost with a machine which will meet all ordinary requirements.

BORING DEVICE.—J. F. BUCKING, H. H. BERRY and J. J. VANLIE, East Wilmington, Cal. An object of this invention is to supply a power device by means of which not only can holes for electric light poles may be bored quickly and economically. A further object is to provide means for boring holes of different depths.

NEWSPAPER WRAPPING AND LABELING MACHINE.—E. T. FRANKLIN, Channahon, Kan. This invention relates to wrapping machines or the like and has particular reference to machines which are adapted to wrap and label automatically newspapers or similar articles. Another object is to improve the mechanism for controlling the application of labels to the wrapping paper according to the application thereof to the newspapers.

DEVICE FOR CLOSING SLIDING DOORS.—J. H. BRYAN and J. F. PUGH, Address the former, Haverhill, Mass. The invention has reference to improvements generally in the means for actuating the door and to the spring mechanism and parts immediately connected therewith, for the purpose of enabling the operator to adjust the stiffness of these parts.

ATTACHMENT FOR ROTARY WELL DRILLING.—T. A. BEECHER, Quebec, Alberta, Canada. This invention relates particularly to a safety device designed to prevent lost rotary bits and has for an object to provide a structure which will not only hold the bit or broken off por-

tion so that the same may be withdrawn, but will cause an indication at the surface showing that the bit is broken or lost.

SWITCH TRIP AND R. P. PUGH, Address the former, Haverhill, Mass. This stand has mechanism for throwing the switch, and in addition signal mechanism, so arranged and connected to the operating mechanism of the switch that when the switch is in closed and locked position the signal will be at safety, and wherein the stand operates the switch upon the switch until the signal is set at safety into the safety position until the switch is returned to closed and locked position.

MECHANICAL ERASER.—M. JARVIS, 125 North Terrace, Mount Vernon, N. Y. The invention has for its purpose to provide an improved structure which may be continuously operated and caused to feed any desired quantity of oil either continuously or intermittently to an article or piece of machinery being lubricated.

ATTACHMENT FOR TESTING MACHINES.—G. S. PLAYS, care of Lehigh Car Works, Lehigh City, Pa. An object here is to provide a device by means of which a testing machine such as that used for transverse tensile or compression testing is made use of in testing hardness. A further object is to provide a device by means of which hardness may be tested according to the so-called Brinell ball impression test.

HOLDER AND DELIVERY DEVICE.—J. E. KENNEL, care of W. J. Beecher, Great Falls, Minn. This invention provides for accommodating a very large number of lockbooks or matches in a comparatively small space, providing for the convenient manipulation of the device in aggressive uses, and provides a discharge or outlet adapted to be conveniently positioned for the delivery of the articles.

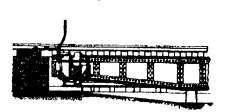
MACHINE FOR REWINDING FILMS.—J. VAN ARMAN and J. E. BOWEN, Address Tripp & Burleigh, Hudson, Minn. In this case the improvement relates to motion picture mechanism, the more particular purpose being to provide a convenient means for rewinding the photographic film, so as to leave those films in proper shape and position to be unwound.

HOT PLATE PRESS FOR WOOD VEINERS.—J. F. SWEENEY, 75 Hill St., Belleville, N. J. The invention provides a press adapted to uniformly limit the spread of the plates for the equipment of steam, provides means for regulating the number of times when the plates are spread for the equipment of steam, provides means for automatically opening the plates for delivery of the veneer from the hot-plate, and provides heating plates having protected steam channels formed therein.

REPEATING RIFLE.—J. W. MONTAGUE, 303 Kenneth Block, Portage, Wis. This rifle is provided with a mechanism whereby the rifle barrel is rotated by the recoil of the rifle, and thereby causes the rifle barrel to be in a position to fire again without the need of manual intervention. The invention provides a mechanism whereby the rifle barrel is rotated by the recoil of the rifle, and thereby causes the rifle barrel to be in a position to fire again without the need of manual intervention.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.—WALTER GLASS, J. B. HOWELL, Wilmington, N. C. This invention relates to emergency valves as applied to boilers and an object of the improvement is to provide means for automatically injecting water into the boiler when the water in the boiler has reached a predetermined height.

Railways and Their Accessories.—RAILWAY TURNTABLE.—A. MEIKER, North Transcona, Manitoba, Canada. This invention provides means to check the turntable at the periphery to prevent a depression thereof in the engine entering the same. A further cause of injury to engines and the turntable is the fact that the track rails of the turntable do not make a close joint with the fixed tracks.



RAILWAY TURNTABLE

The invention provides means for producing a continuous track from the fixed track to that of the turntable, and means for making use of a fiber track section rotatably mounted on the turntable, and in order that the fiber track section may be moved into the fixed track, the said section is mounted on a roof shaft and the operative connections established between the said roof shaft and the chords.

PLATEWAY.—J. F. KAY, P. O. Box 37, Hensley, N. Y. The invention has special reference to a staffed adapted for use on railroads, and provides for the use of the same in connection with the top number of the cap action for tying the upper and lower side of a plurality of signal flags, as, for instance, red, yellow, and green flags. Between the top and bottom tyings means for the flags,

aiding rings are provided for connection with the respective flags.

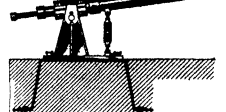
CAR DOOR SEALING DEVICE.—H. W. CROSBYMAN, and JAMES C. BAKER, Address the latter, 565 Washington Ave., Albany, N. Y. In this case use is made of a self-controlling lever fulcrumed on the car door and having an opening for engagement with one of a series of studs held on a keeper fixed to the car door, and a movable locking member on the door lever for locking the latter in position on the keeper when the lock is in open or closed position.

MAIN ROD CONNECTION.—R. M. McGOWAN and F. H. HOWARD, care of Musgrave, Howard & Co., 144 W. First South St., Salt Lake City, Utah. This invention relates to those connecting the driving wheels of locomotives, and the main object thereof is to distribute the strain of the engine over all the pins of such wheels equally.

Pertaining to Recreation.—**JUGGLER'S PARAPHERNALIA.**—F. P. LUTHERMAN, care of Vanity Publishing Co., Times Square, New York, N. Y. The object of the invention is to provide a light, convenient and inexpensive device having a brilliant light-reflecting surface not damageable by falling or hammering. This is obtained by providing a device with depressible surfaces on which a light reflecting medium is provided.

Puzzle.—H. GONNA, Hillsboro, N. Y. This invention relates to the general class of games and toys and has to do more particularly with a pocket puzzle which calls for a display of a high degree of ingenuity and resourcefulness in effecting its solution, while at the same time the puzzle affords considerable amusement and entertainment.

LAWN GAME.—J. NORTON, 700 E. 16th St., New York, N. Y. This game, to be known as "Lawnety," consists of a projecting apparatus having means for anchoring the same in the ground, such apparatus being pivotally



LAWN GAME APPARATUS

mounted so as to be adjusted at different inclinations, whereby balls designed for use with the apparatus may be projected at different elevations and distances therefrom.

Pertaining to Vehicles.—**WHEEL RIM.**—W. G. BLOCHET, 2500 Edmondson Ave., Baltimore, Md. The rim is especially adapted for use with wire wheels and designed for cooperation with interchangeable tire-carrying rims, the interchangeable rims being outside of the wheel rim, the wheel rim having at one side edge a fixed stop and having at its edge a series of releasable stops to permit the quick removal and replacement of the interchangeable rims.

BALLOON.—L. D. BUCKS, 2014 Mission St., San Francisco, Cal. The object here is to provide a device wherein a vehicle is provided having connected therewith a balloon or other envelope for containing gas, having a lifting capacity slightly less than the aggregate weight of the vehicle when loaded, and wherein means is provided for the occupant for lifting the vehicle, and wherein other mechanism is provided for permitting the vehicle to move over the ground.

WHEEL.—C. H. REYNOLDS, Maxwell, Cal. The purpose here is to provide a wheel adapted for use in automobiles and the like, wherein the hub is resiliently connected with an inner wheel, which in turn is supported by the hub, the hub being so arranged that it may yield in every direction with respect to the rim.

TIRES.—R. A. MEYERMAN and J. PRINCE, 197 Lewis Ave., Fond du Lac, Wis. The invention has reference to a tire having a removable wearing tread. The object thereof is to provide a tire having a removable wearing tread which can be easily and quickly replaced and which is maintained in proper position on the tire by the resiliency thereof and the pressure applied to the tread.

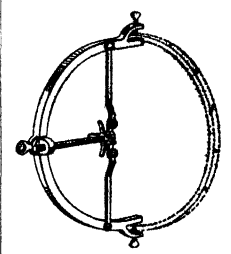
POLING BACK FOR RAILROADS.—G. W. NICHOLSON, 58 Moffatt Rd., Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention provides a folding back device for the saddles of motor cycles, bicycles, and other vehicles and devices, and arranged to fold the back in an inactive folded position to permit the rider to conveniently mount and dismount, and to automatically move the back into active position relatively to the saddle when the latter is occupied.

DIRECTION INDICATOR FOR AUTOMOBILES.—VICTOR GILBERT and OLIVE R. GILBERT, Address the former, 620 W. 123rd St., New York, N. Y. This improvement refers more particularly to a direction indicator for automobiles designed to operate in the rear of a car to warn the chauffeur of an approaching car in the direction of travel of the preceding car,

thus providing an efficient means for avoiding collisions and accidents which would otherwise be caused.

COMBINED SPEED CONTROLLER AND BRAKE.—T. DODD, 80 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. The invention is especially adapted for use in motor-driven vehicles, and more particularly to the combination with a governor for regulating the flow of combustion fluid to an internal combustion motor of means for admitting non-combustible fluid to the motor, to be compressed and exhausted through the motor, whereby the same serves to operate as a valve.

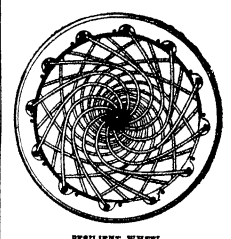
RIM SPREADER.—G. E. POWERS, Xenia, Ohio. The invention relates to wheelwright's tools, and more particularly to a tool for spreading or drawing the rim of a wheel during the operation of attaching the rim to the



RIM SPREADER

spoke. One of the principal objects is to provide a tool which may be clamped to the rim of a half rim and operated to spread the rim or draw it, as desired, in order to facilitate the adjustment of the rim to the wheel spokes.

BENTLEY WHEEL.—W. R. RANDALL, 1140 Taunton Ave., Kansas City, Kan. When this wheel is in use, shocks due to unevenness in the road as the wheel passes thereover will be taken up by the resilient spokes, and when any one portion of the rim is bearing against the ground tending to support the weight rest-



BENTLEY WHEEL

ing on the axle, this weight is carried by the three spokes in turn supported on a single axle. This construction provides that the load on the axle will be successively distributed at diametrically opposite points as the wheel rolls over the ground, and movement or displacement of the rim being taken up by all of the spokes.

Designs.—**DESIGN FOR A COVER DISH.**—E. J. JOHNSON, care of Johnson Bros., 46 W. Broadway, New York, N. Y. In this design for a cover dish the plan view shows a cover oval in form with a handle at each end. This and the side view represent a dish of equatorial lines and effective ornament.

NOTE.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the Patent Office on the same terms as usual. Please state the name of the patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

We wish to call attention to the fact that we are in a position to render competent service in every branch of patent or trade-mark work. Our staff is composed of mechanical, electrical and chemical experts, thoroughly trained to prepare and prosecute all patent applications, irrespective of complexity of the subject matter involved, or of the specialized, technical, or scientific knowledge required thereby.

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Legal Notes

Design Patents for Parts of Previous Designs.—In *ex parte Sanford*, Assistant Commissioner Newton holds that where a design patent for a pitcher including its top has been granted and later without undue delay the patentee files an application for the top alone, which would not be included in a single patent with the pitcher including the top, the patent does not bar the allowance of the application.

Reciting Foreign Applications in Oath.—

The importance of reciting the filing of foreign applications, which may have been filed in the oath of the United States application, is emphasized by the decision of Commissioner Ewing in the interference case of *Steel and Steel v. Myers*. In such case the Commissioner said, "If an applicant who is involved in interference has stated in the oath to his original application that he filed the application in a foreign country, that should be taken, in my opinion, as establishing *prima facie* that the foreign application was filed by him or with his knowledge and consent. If, however, the original oath does not state that the foreign application had been filed, but the allegation is made in a subsequent oath or in the preliminary statement, the applicant should, in view of the conflicting affidavits, be given the benefit of the filing of the foreign application only upon a stipulation of the parties or where it is established by duly taken testimony that he was in fact the party who filed the foreign application or that it was filed with his knowledge and consent."

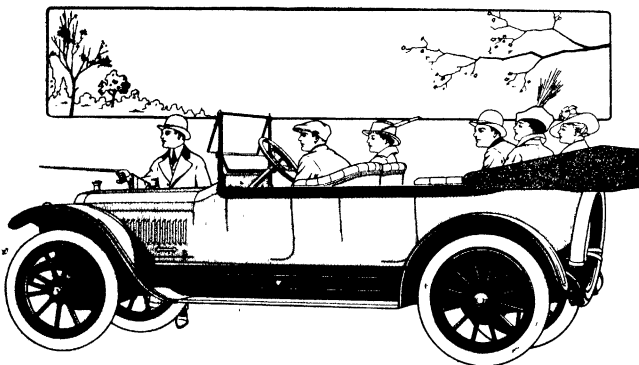
Decisions.—The judgment of the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Eighth Circuit in *Bossmann v. Gieseler* decides some interesting trade-mark questions. It is held that the Federal Courts have jurisdiction of all matters arising under the trade-mark statute, even though both parties be citizens of the same State, and that Congress has power under the Constitution of the United States to enact the trade-mark laws, especially as a "trade-mark" is a distinctive mark of authenticity through which the products of particular manufacturers or the vendible commodities of particular merchants may be distinguished from those of others. It is also held that the provisions of the act of February 20th, 1905, are not limited to technical trade-marks; that a word used exclusively for ten years may be registered under that provision, even though it is a descriptive word, and that where the registrant neither gave notice of the registration by affixing a notice to that effect to the article sold under such trade-mark nor notified defendant of the infringement, damages were not recoverable for the infringement.

Some Interesting Ideas Concerning Aggregation.—Mr. Justice Baker of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Seventh Circuit, in *Krell Auto Grand Piano Company of America v. Story & Clark Company, et al.*, suggests that "aggregation" in the law of patents means that the claims in and of themselves, independently of the prior art, show that the elements are incapable of coacting to produce a unitary result. Further that a patent for a mechanism consisting of two or more elements is not necessarily invalid as an aggregation because there is no direct connection between the elements where such coaction comes to produce a unitary result, through the mediation of the operator or the operating force. In discussing the case the Court said: "It is only through the mediation of the operator that the parts coact to produce the new, unitary result. Operator stands as motive power. So the coexisting holder and the fixed outcase can be a lawful combination only because the coexistence and the proper application of power are necessarily implied."

Application of Patents as References.—The case of *ex parte McCullum* decided by Assistant Commissioner Newton is interesting as explaining when a combination of references is applicable. Thus he says, that in determining the patentability of a claim over features found only in a plurality of references, it is necessary to consider the structural differences specified in the claims as well as their functional differences or results and that if the structure

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of the several references cannot be combined without the exercise of invention, even though the result is old, the claim should be allowed. Also if the structures of the references may be combined or substituted one for the other and the combined function or result is new, the claim should be allowed. It is only when both the structural features found in the references may be combined without invention to meet the structure called for by the claim and the function or result involves no invention that the claim should be rejected.

The Heavens in February

(Continued from page 102.)

the 10th, when Mercury will be about 5 degrees above Jupiter, then they draw together again, and are in conjunction once more on the 18th, but by this time they are too near the Sun to be observable.

Venus is a morning star in Sagittarius and is very conspicuous, in spite of her great southern declination. She is at her greatest elongation west of the Sun on the 6th and rises about 4:15 A. M.

Mars is theoretically a morning star, being just past opposition, but practically he is too near the Sun to be seen.

Jupiter is an evening star until his conjunction with the Sun on the 24th. He will be visible during the first half of the month as already described.

Saturn is on the borders of Taurus and Gemini and very well placed for observation, crossing the meridian at 8 P. M. in the middle of the month.

Uranus is in conjunction with the Sun on the 1st and is invisible.

Neptune is in Cancer, about one-quarter of the way from the blue-double star Zeta Cancer toward Beta Geminorum, but is invisible except with telescope aid.

The Moon is in her last quarter a few minutes after midnight on the morning of the 7th, is new a little before midnight on the evening of the 13th, and is in her first quarter at 10 P. M. on the 21st. She is nearest us on the 7th, and remotest on the 21st. There is no full moon in February, this year, though—nor, rather, because there were two in January—on the 1st and 29th. There will be two in March, on the same days of the month.

There will be an annular eclipse of the Sun on February 13th, but it is of little interest to Americans, for the track of the shadow lies mainly in the Indian and Pacific oceans, reaching land only in Western Australia and New Guinea. A large partial eclipse is visible in Australia, and in most parts of the East Indies, but New Zealand lies entirely outside the track even of the penumbra.

Princeton University Observatory

Government Co-operation With Our Industries

(Continued from page 99.)

of the German coal-and-iron chemical industry, for example, cannot now be started in this country. No capitalist would be fool enough to engage in it, without knowing how far he could meet German competition with his own weapons in home and foreign markets. Where, then, is the incentive to spend fortunes in industrial research, in establishing highly ramified channels of distribution, in building up industries which could not long withstand the attacks of a formidable and enterprising foreign competitor who is permitted to use the very implements which our Government has snatched from our hands?

We are not pleading here for a return to the old days when trusts held us in the hollow of their hands, but we are pleading for a judicious and controlled use of the economic advantages that accrue from production and distribution on a large scale. The trust and the cartel are not unmitigated blessings for Germany; but so long as they play a predominant part in forcing us out of foreign markets, so long as they are supported by a paternal government as part of a well-planned scheme for German commercial expansion, so long will it be impossible for us to build up great industries dependent on foreign markets as an outlet for surplus products.

LEGAL NOTICES

PATENTS

If you have an invention which you wish to patent you can write fully and freely to Munn & Co. for advice in regard to the best way of obtaining protection. Please send sketches or a model of your invention and a description of the device, explaining its operation.

All communications are strictly confidential. Our vast practice, extending over a period of more than sixty years, enables us in many cases to advise in regard to patentability without any expense to the client. Our Hand Book on Patents is sent free on request. This explains our methods, terms, etc., in regard to PATENTS, TRADE MARKS, FOREIGN PATENTS, etc.

All patents secured through us are described without cost to the patentee in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

MUNN & COMPANY
361 BROADWAY, NEW YORK
Branch Office, 625 F Street, Washington, D. C.

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Advertising in this column is 75 cents a line. No less than four lines less than 15 lines accepted. Count every word to the line. All orders must be accompanied by a remittance.

AGENTS WANTED

AGENTS WANTED: Precious Metals Gold and Silver Run Letters for stores fronts and office windows. Any one can get a big demand everywhere. Write today for liberal offer to agents. Atlantic Letter Co., 100 West 4th St., Columbus, O. U. S. A.

BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

A GOOD RELIABLE INSTITUTION wants to manufacture patented articles on a royalty, or make some satisfactory arrangement with the inventor, something in the line of brass or electrical goods preferred. We are in a position to finance a small manufacturer who has not sufficient capital to carry on the business by himself, or by making some other arrangement that might be satisfactory to the inventor. For particulars, address: W. J. Lott.

NEW YORK REPUTABLE ORGANIZATION (five wires and responsible) want to represent manufacturers of new series of non-slip flooring. N. Y. State territory. Valuable \$30 Broadway N. Y.

PATENTS FOR SALE

PATENT MECHANICAL Starter for Internal Combustion Engines. U. S. Patent. For automobile, stationary, gas or steam engine. Write to holder for details. Patentman Livingston, Ky.

MISCELLANEOUS

A NEW WALL ENGINE of about the same value as the Army Gun that the Government is to be sold to lower than a reliable Government Agent for various articles. A. C. Means, Cincinnati, O.

What the Small Manufacturer Needs

THE largest companies have organized Patent Departments, which are as important—if not more so—than the manufacturing force. Their salaried patent experts analyze new ideas produced by research engineers and chemists, secure the fullest measure of protection, and determine whether the idea is worth protecting. They save the waste of re-inventing what is old; they study new and patentable ideas and work hand in hand with the Research Department.

A thousand questions must the experts answer: Is an invention anticipated by prior patents? Can changes be made in the invention which would avoid infringements? If so, what changes? Is the prior anticipating patent or patents valid or not? Who owns the patent which protects a rival product, which seems to be capable of development?

Such questions arise, not only in the business of the large corporations, but of the small manufacturer as well. Because he cannot afford to maintain an expensive staff of patent experts with their assistants, stenographers and draftsmen, he has sometimes seen his business slipping away from him into the hands of a wealthier rival.

The firm of Munn & Co. have instituted a patent service for the small manufacturer, which is designed to give him all the facilities which are now enjoyed by the large manufacturing corporation. Patent experts, many of whom were formerly connected with the United States Patent Office and are specialists in their various lines, will study your products. They will ascertain whether or not adequate patent protection has been, or can be obtained; they will compare from the patent standpoint all the products of the same class now on the market, and determine if it is not possible to effect a profitable combination; they will critically compare your product with that of your rival. In a word, they will see to it that your ingenuity—the most vital asset of your business—is adequately protected.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION, ADDRESS

MUNN & CO.
PRACTICES OF PATENTS

Manufacturers' Service Department

361 BROADWAY

NEW YORK CITY

Which of these Homes will the Burglar Shun?

Not the pitch-dark house—easy to approach unseen, easy to ransack without detection.

Not the home with the all-night lights that's safe.

Not the home a burglar dreads that porch-lamp lighting a house with a light.

Not the home of two a night, you can burglar.

Not the home in this way, if you use EDISON Mazda lamps.

Not the home that has hidden the conversion of all-night light in your bathroom or

Not the home that has given you 3 times as many

Not the home that has the same money as old-style

Not the home that has the same money as old-style

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EDISON MAZDA LAMPS

Ideal

POWER LAWN MOWER

Combination Mower and Roller
38-inch cut, \$400

THIS newest machine is larger and more powerful than the 1914 model, and carries many improvements that will interest those who have the care of large lawns—golf courses—parks, etc.

A 5 horse-power motor (S.A.E. rating) with 4 adjustable cutter blades, 38 inches wide, and a roller 15 inches in diameter, it cuts 8 acres per day at a speed of 1 to 4½ miles per hour, at an operating cost of only 30 cents per day. It climbs 35% grades, cuts closely and evenly, is easily guided around walks, trees and shrubbery, and rolls the turf as well as cutting the grass, leaving the lawn in perfect condition. Neither hand-propelled nor horse-drawn mowers can compete with this machine in satisfactory results, economy of operation and all-round efficiency.

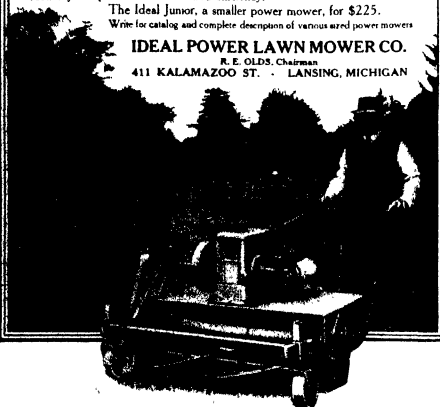
The Ideal Junior, a smaller power mower, for \$225.

Write for catalog and complete description of various sized power mowers.

IDEAL POWER LAWN MOWER CO.

R. E. OLDS, Chairman

411 KALAMAZOO ST. · LANSING, MICHIGAN



SUMMARY OF 70th ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW-YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

346 and 348 BROADWAY, NEW YORK

DARWIN P. KINGSLEY, President

NEW INSURANCE PAID FOR IN 1914

Exclusive of Revivals and Increase in Old Policies

\$223,571,200

TOTAL ADMITTED ASSETS

\$790,935,395

TOTAL PAID-FOR INSURANCE IN FORCE

\$2,347,098,388

JANUARY 1, 1915

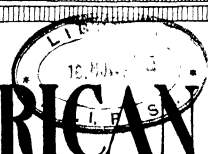
Balance Sheet, January 1, 1915

ADMITTED ASSETS	LIABILITIES
Real Estate \$9,826,142.06	Policy Reserve \$651,889,465.00
Loans on Mortgages 156,674,059.30	Other Policy Liabilities 11,856,997.88
Collateral Loans 150,000.00	Premiums and Interest prepaid 4,048,933.87
Loans on Policies 153,375,218.04	Commissions, Salaries, Taxes, etc 1,333,293.05
Bonds and Stock (Market Value Dec. 31, 1914) 438,322,671.10	Dividends payable in 1915 17,104,119.86
Cash 13,964,565.01	Reserve for Deferred Dividends 88,902,104.00
Interest and Rents due and accrued 9,291,253.31	Reserves for other purposes 15,800,482.25
Premiums due and deferred 9,331,486.79	
Total \$790,935,395.61	Total \$790,935,395.61

INCOME, 1914	DISBURSEMENTS, 1914
Premiums:	Payments to Policy-holders:
On New Policies \$9,061,420.82	Death Losses \$26,269,756.21
On Renewed Policies 79,153,606.31	To Living Policy-holders 45,693,673.36
Annuities, etc 2,252,150.86	\$71,963,429.57
\$90,467,177.99	Paid under supplementary contracts and other payments 368,019.12
Real Estate Rentals 693,069.50	Com'n's and other Pay'ts to Agents 6,831,867.23
Interest on Mortgages 7,509,010.87	Medical Examination and Agency Expenses, etc 2,687,836.44
Interest on Policy Loans 7,158,715.58	Home Office Salaries 1,786,881.72
Interest on Bonds 19,293,228.99	Taxes, Licenses and Insurance Dept. Fees 1,190,478.01
Interest on Bank Deposits, etc 284,474.61	Rent and Real Estate Taxes and Expenses 887,186.65
Profit on Sale or Maturity of Assets 30,263.88	All other Expenses 1,269,732.81
Increase by adjustment in Book Value of Ledger Assets 256,967.41	Loss on Sale or Maturity of Assets 621,899.06
Other Income 572,766.11	Decrease by adjustment in Book Values 1,704,666.22
Total \$128,266,574.64	For Reserves to meet Policy Obligations 36,967,887.81
	Total \$128,266,574.64

THE LATEST EUROPEAN WAR MAP

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

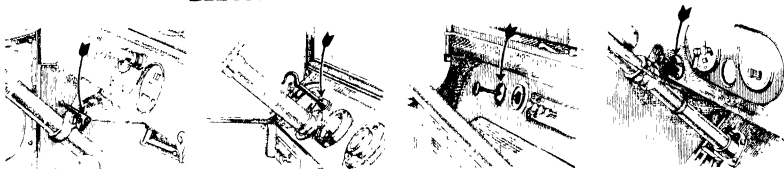


WAR ISSUE Nº 5

OUR NATIONAL DEFENCES

DELCO

ELECTRIC LIGHTING CRANKING IGNITION



Typical Dash Arrangements showing location of strangler on various Delco Equipped Cars

A Wise Stop Makes an Easy Start

Getting the car started is a serious task these cold mornings. Low gravity gasoline and a zero temperature make a bad combination for quick action.

And so the electric starter is asked to crank and crank and crank—until finally a bit of vapor gets into the cylinders and the engine begins to fire.

This, however, is an unnecessary strain to put upon the electrical equipment.

It is too heavy a drain on the storage battery—and if repeated frequently must eventually exhaust the battery unless a great deal of driving is done in the meantime.

Two things are responsible for the starting troubles of the last year or two—low grade gasoline—and the high efficiency carburetors that are now built for the development of power at the expense of easy cranking.

It would be almost impossible to start many of the present day engines with the old hand crank.

This is one of the revolutionary things that the Delco system has accomplished. It has made possible the use of present day low grade gasoline—and has permitted carburetor adjustments that greatly increase the efficiency and economy of operation.

But in accomplishing these things the Delco system has taken upon itself a hard job during these cold winter months.

There is a short cut to easy starting, however, that has now been provided for by most motor car manufacturers.

A little device has been placed on the steering post—or on the dash—that when opened shuts off the air supply in the carburetor, draws a rich mixture into the cylinders, thus choking the engine and causing it to stop.

It is then ready for starting almost instantly.

The whole secret of easy starting, then, is in the stopping.

When ready to stop, simply open the strangler and let the engine choke.

Then shut off the ignition—allowing the strangler to remain open.

Don't forget to shut off the ignition—1915 Delco ignition is provided with a little buzzer that is intended simply as a reminder to shut it off after the engine has stopped.

In starting—turn on the ignition, and start the engine in the usual way.

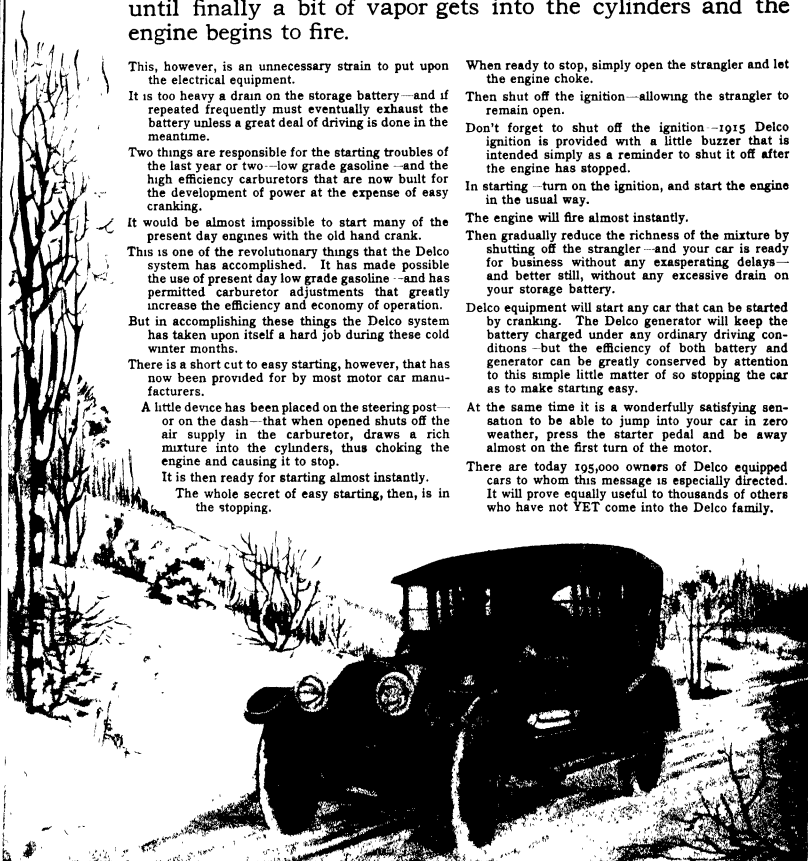
The engine will fire almost instantly.

Then gradually reduce the richness of the mixture by shutting off the strangler—and your car is ready for business without any exasperating delays—and better still, without any excessive drain on your storage battery.

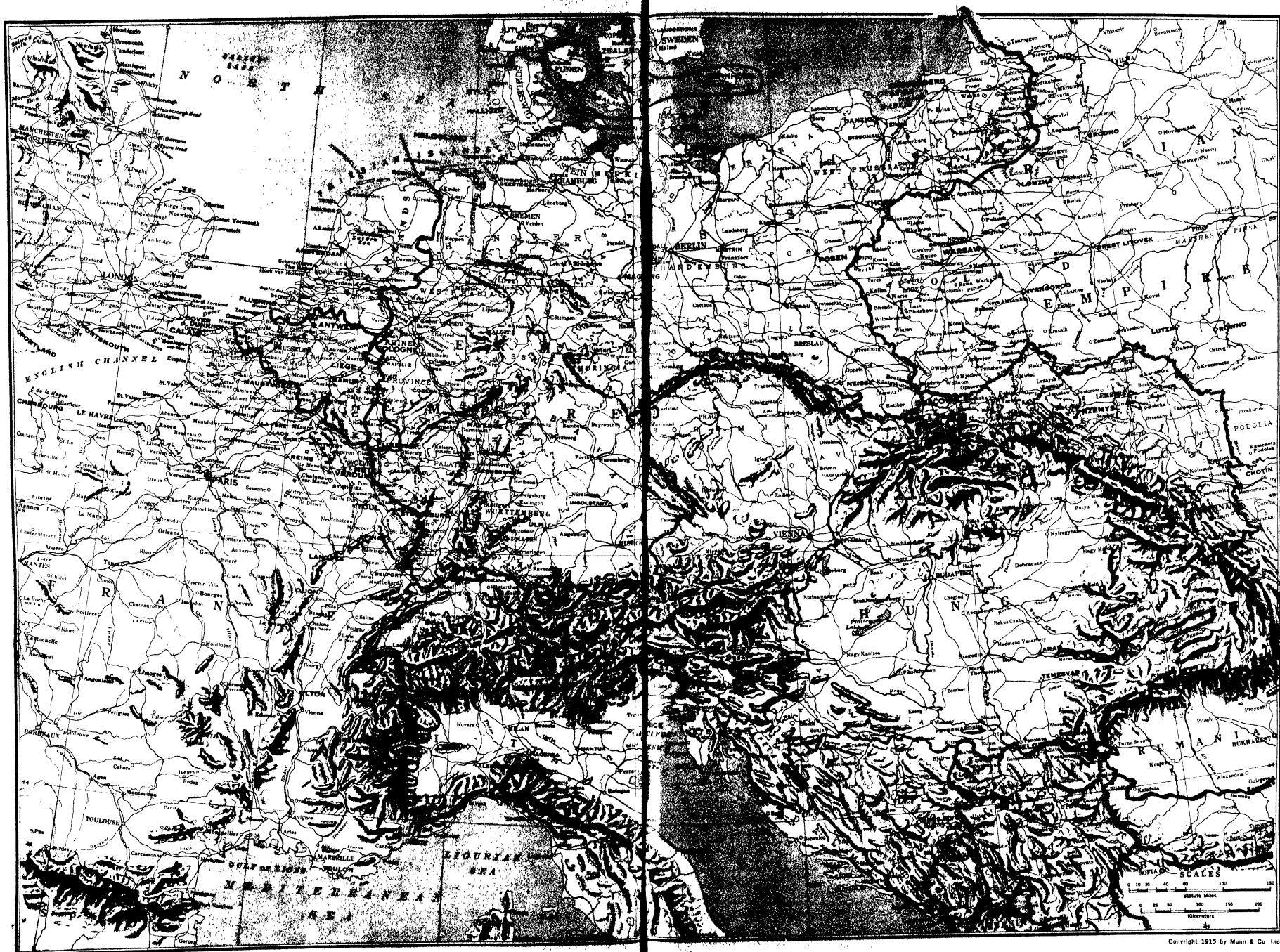
Delco equipment will start any car that can be started by cranking. The Delco generator will keep the battery charged under any ordinary driving conditions—but the efficiency of both battery and generator can be greatly conserved by attention to this simple little matter of so stopping the car as to make starting easy.

At the same time it is a wonderfully satisfying sensation to be able to jump into your car in zero weather, press the starter pedal and be away almost on the first turn of the motor.

There are today 195,000 owners of Delco equipped cars to whom this message is especially directed. It will prove equally useful to thousands of others who have not YET come into the Delco family.



Supplement to the Scientific American for February 6, 1915



War Map of the Scientific American—The Eastern and Western Theatres of Action

Everywhere — Why?



We've been asked many times why smokers never tire of MURADS
It is because they are made of
17 Different Turkish Tobaccos
Each of these different Turkish varieties is famous for some delightful quality
One is mild — one rich — one full bodied — one aromatic and so on
They make MURAD the unvarying different cigarette
You can tire of one tobacco — you can tire of 17 varieties skilfully combined
That's why you never tire of MURADS
Shaggy
Maker of the Highest Grade Turkish and Egyptian Cigarettes in the World

MURAD
THE TURKISH CIGARETTE
100% PURE TURKISH TOBACCO

FIFTEEN CENTS

The DICTAPHONE Girl



"Easy! Why I just listen to Mr. Smith's voice and write out what he says on the typewriter. I can regulate the Dictaphone to my typewriting speed, and then if I do happen to miss a word there is a back spacer just like on my typewriter and when I press it Mr. Smith's voice obligingly says the last few words over again."

"I don't have to risk my life any more by asking him to repeat—you know how Mr. Smith hates to be interrupted. It always makes him forget what he was going to say, and then he gets right up in the air."

"Yesterday I wrote 80 letters and if I had had to take them down in shorthand here, I'd have had to stick around here until all hours. As it was I got them all done in plenty of time."

"Eye strain! I'm through with that! And cold notes don't worry me now. What's more my letters are right. And why shouldn't they be? I copy his own words in stead of copying my notes of his words."

"I hope I never see a shorthand note-book again! I did just as soon give up my typewriter and go back to writing letters in long-hand."

"Yes, and I didn't like the idea of the Dictaphone when I started either."

Demonstration in your own office on your own wire

THE DICTAPHONE
(Columbia Graphophone Company, Sales Representatives)
Bldg. 1515, Woolworth Bldg., New York
Stores in the principal cities. Dealers everywhere

Approved by the Under-
writers. Official Dictating
Machine of the Pan-
ama-Pacific International
Exposition.

"Your Day's Work"
—a book we should
like to send you.



How Many Hides Has a Cow?

For Shoe Soles—One

BUT a cow's hide, being too thick and stiff for upholstery, is split into at least three sheets, only the top one of which is natural leather. The lower, fleshy splits, after being coated and embossed to look like leather and which make up 75% of all so called leather upholstery are really artificial leather of quality inferior to



MOTOR QUALITY
For Automobiles
CRAFTSMAN QUALITY
For Furniture

Guaranteed Superior to Coated Splits

America's leading automobile manufacturers have adopted Motor Quality Fabrikoid for upholstery in place of coated splits. America's leading furniture manufacturers say: "The cheap split leathers should be entirely eliminated in furniture upholstery. Use the first grade leather and Fabrikoid."

Specify for automobile upholstery, Motor Quality Fabrikoid, and for tops and curtains, Rayette Fabrikoid. Guaranteed to recover. Specify Craftsman Quality Fabrikoid on new furniture for recovering. Its appearance and service will please you.

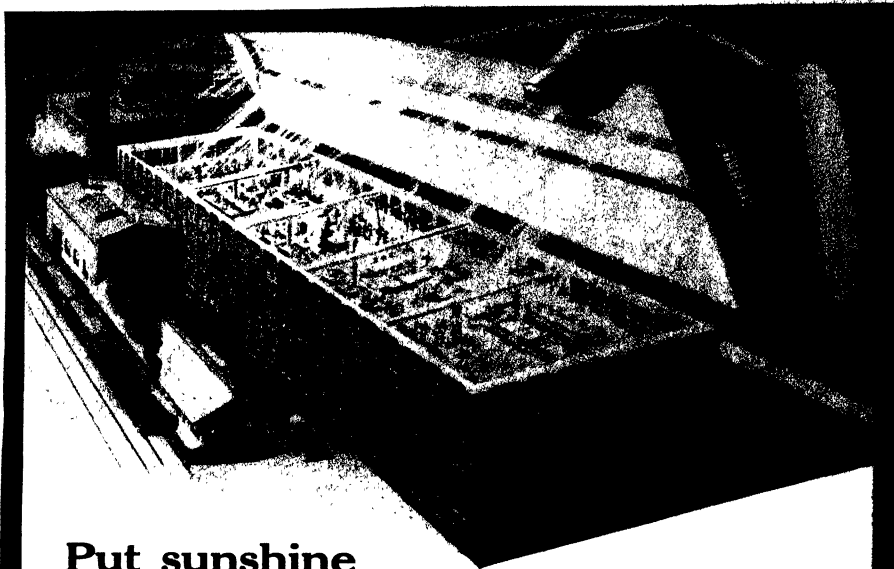
Small sample free, or a piece 18 x 25 postpaid 50c.

Du Pont Fabrikoid Company

Wilmington, Del.

Canadian Branch, Toronto, Ontario

Craftsman Quality Fabrikoid is on sale by Palais Royal, Washington, D. C.; John Wanamaker, Philadelphia; McCreary & Co., Pittsburgh; J. & H. Phillips, Pittsburgh; John Shillington, Cincinnati; St. Louis, Du Pont Fabrikoid Co., 621 Broadway, New York; Stewart & Co., Baltimore, Md.; T. Eaton & Co., Ltd., Toronto and Winnipeg, and most upholstery dealers.



Put sunshine on your ceiling

Paint the ceilings and walls of your factory with "Barreled Sunlight," and you will get 19% to 36% more daylight. Your plant will be more sanitary, because the glossy tile-like finish is washable. You save money by making repainting less frequent. Your employees will work better, because they can see better. Electric lighting bills will be cut. Over 3,000 firms which have used Rice's will verify these statements—firms like Ford Motor Car Co., General Electric Co., etc.

Rice's Gloss Mill-White is the original "mill-white." All others are imitations. It is the only one which contains no varnish. Varnish paints dry too brittle and are liable to crack and peel.

Rice's is an OIL Paint. Its surface, therefore, is elastic, though firm, and withstands ceiling vibration.

Guaranteed to remain white longest

Rice's is made by a process over which we have exclusive control, which causes it to remain white

longer than any other and to prevent it from either cracking or peeling. The tremendous advantages of this process enable us to make the following guarantee:

GUARANTEE. We guarantee that if RICE'S does not remain white longer than any other Gloss Paint applied at the same time and under the same conditions, we will give, free, enough Rice's to repaint the job with one coat. We also guarantee that, properly applied, Rice's will not flake nor scale. You cannot lose under this guarantee.



Can be applied over old cold-water paint

Hundreds of factories, where cold-water paint was formerly used, have been treated with Rice's Gloss Mill-White, and the flaking and scaling nuisance permanently obviated. Not only has a durable surface thus been produced, but a tile-like, smooth finish provided, which can easily be kept clean.

Write for Sample Board and Booklet "More Light"

Sold direct from factory

Sold direct from our factory in barrels containing sufficient paint to cover 20,000 square feet—one coat.

RICE'S

GLOSS

MILL-WHITE

U. S. GUTTA PERCHA PAINT CO.
23 Dudley Street Providence, R. I.

On concrete surfaces

On inside concrete, Rice's Granolith makes the best possible primer for a second coat of Rice's Gloss Mill-White—giving a tile-like enamel finish at no more expense than lead and oil paint.

Rice's Granolith

SEVENTY-FIRST YEAR

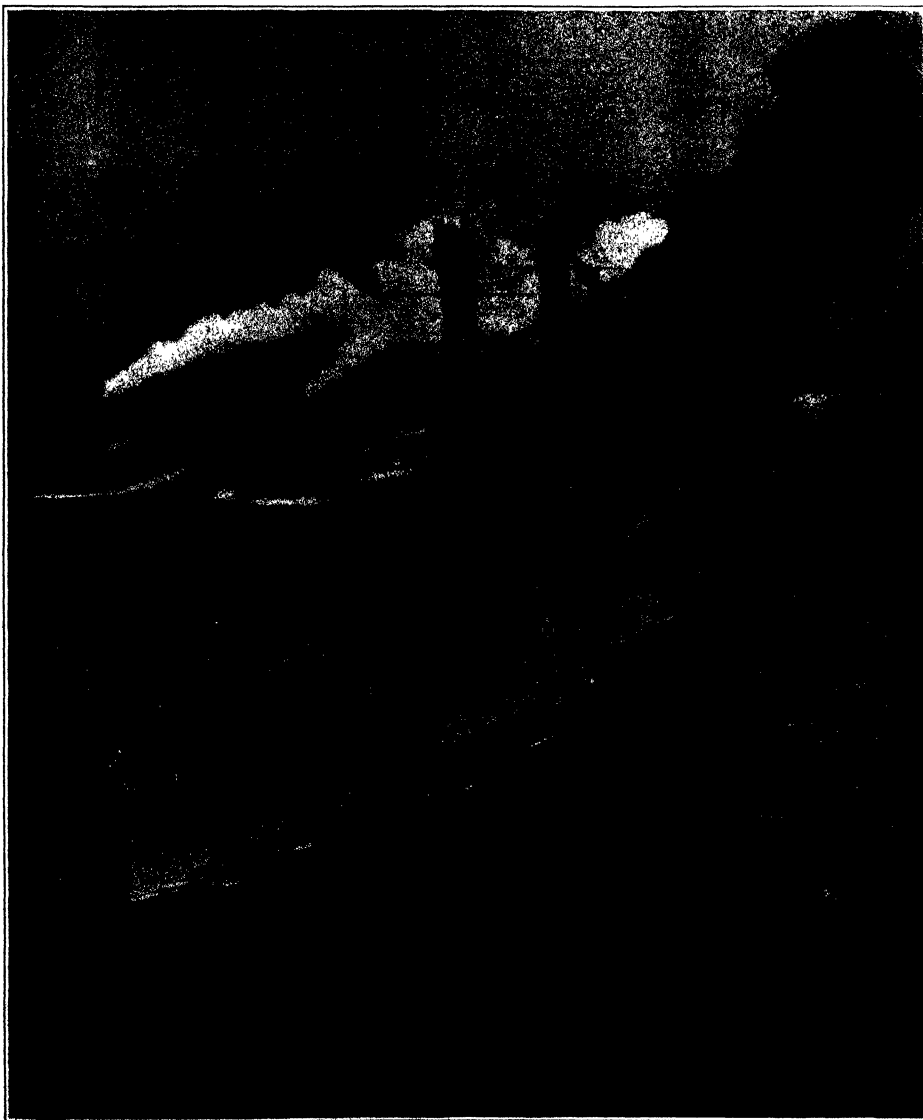
SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

VOLUME CXLII
NUMBER 4

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 6, 1915

25 CENTS A COPY
\$3.00 A YEAR



Copyright 1915 by United Fruit & Sugar Co.

Tonnage, 16,000. Speed, 21 knots. Guns: Twelve 12-inch, twenty-one 54-inch. Torpedo tubes, 2. Belt armor, 11-inch. Maximum coal supply, 2,500 tons. Oil, 400 tons. Complement, 1,030.

THE UNITED STATES DREADNOUGHT "ARKANSAS"

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Founded 1845

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 6, 1915

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Munn & Co., Inc., 361 Broadway, New York

The Editor is always glad to accept, for examination, illustrated articles on subjects of timely interest. If the photographs are sharp, the articles short, and the facts authentic, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in science, knowledge and industrial achievement.

Colonel Bryan's Army of One Million Men

THE mind of Colonel Bryan there is no such thing as a civilian of national defense. A problem, according to the dictionary, is "a matter of uncertainty, requiring further light to determine the truth, especially when difficult or uncertain of solution," but for a mind so exact and richly stored as that of the Colonel, there is no such thing as uncertainty—for eyes which are so keen as his, there is no need of further light than that which they themselves pour upon any subject which may come within the range of their vision.

William Jennings Bryan has the manifold advantages of a versatility to which his country (and himself) owe a debt of obligation, the payment, or even the faint appreciation of which, it is impossible to contemplate. He is equally proficient as orator, editor, statesman, and soldier. In each of these exacting professions he has produced and still produces, works and works, in a profession which is matched only by their minor originality, and their peculiar and invariable appropriateness to the time, the place, and Mr. Bryan.

It was not our intention in this brief appreciation to make reference to any specific instance of the genius of the man, but we feel that we should be editorially deluged did we not direct attention to the latest, and surely one of the most brilliant utterances of Bryan the soldier-statesman, to the effect that within twenty-four hours of a call for men a million volunteers would spring to arms.

When the Spanish war broke out Colonel (then Mr.) Bryan "sata g to arms" at the head of his regiment of one thousand Nebraskaans. It took the Colonel and his men, who walked into Chickamauga camp in civilian clothes, several weeks, says Gen. Storey, to get uniforms and several more weeks to get accommodations, and even then how many of them had guns and how many of them knew how to handle one.

But that is a mere detail, and Colonel Bryan is an orator as well as a soldier and statesman, at least of the Bryan type are too broad, too pathetically ideal in their outlook, to be concerned with mere details. To a mind enriched and broadened by experience in the Cabinet and the camp, the difference between one million men and one million fully equipped and trained soldiers is too slight to merit serious attention.

The Grave Peril of the Shipping Bill

THE conviction is growing among all careful students of the proposed shipping bill that it is fraught with grave possibilities of complications with the governments of Great Britain, France, and Russia.

The danger lies in the probability, amounting almost to a certainty, that should the bill become law, the bill of the \$300,000,000 appropriated for the purchase of ships would, by the very necessity of the situation, be

expended in the purchase of the fleet of German and Austrian ships which has been intended as the result of the war.

Failing the purchase of these ships, where else will the Government find such a large number of vessels available for transfer? Not from Great Britain or her allies, for it is certain that the governments of those countries will not favor, at this critical time, the transfer of a large number of their merchant ships to any foreign flag. Moreover, the shipping of neutral countries is just now reaping the benefit of the enormous increase in freight rates due to the withdrawal of so much shipping from service. If the owners of neutral ships consented to sell, it would be only at prices so high as to be prohibitive. Practically the only available market would be the fleet of large, fast, and modern vessels inherited in the various parts of the world, and notably at New York.

Now, although no one doubts that the purchase of interned ships would be made in perfect good faith by our Government, that guarantee does not by any means cover the transaction in all its bearings, and particularly does it fail to meet the contention of the Allies that so far as the vendors are concerned, the transfer would be made in order to mitigate the enormous pressure imposed upon Germany and Austria by the naval predominance of the allied fleets.

That the purchase of these ships would be of material help to the German and Austrian vendors is self-evident, for the purchase price would represent a very large addition to the financial resources of one of the belligerent countries.

According to a dispatch from Washington to the New York Sun, France and Russia hold that sales of enemy ships, effected after the beginning of a war, are not valid unless it can be proved that the sale would have taken place even if there were no war. It is pretty well understood that the Allies would contend that the owners of the interned ships were selling to the United States in order to evade the consequences of the war and the liability to capture. Furthermore, in crises that are in close touch with the diplomatic and naval situation, it is considered certain that, if any of the interned ships leave port before the close of the war, they will be seized, no matter what flag they fly, by the allied cruisers.

Now here is a possibility of an international quarrel, the grave imminence of which it would be hardly possible to overestimate. If the framers of the bill had been seeking to introduce a firebrand into the international situation, it could scarcely have hit upon a more provocative move than this.

Doing Without Europe

A FEW weeks ago we announced on this page the publication of a series of articles which would show how the present war had affected American industry, for better and for worse, how we are obliged to cast about us for the things that we have hitherto bought from Europe, how foreign markets have been opened to us, in a word, how opportunity is knocking. The text of these articles appeared in last week's issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. It dealt with the need of intelligent Government cooperation with American business interests, cooperation without which it would be impossible for American exporters to gain a foothold in foreign markets in the face of a relentless German competition which is strengthened not only by the deliberate employment of business methods that are illegal in this country, but also by Government support.

In the present issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN we approach more closely the subject of "Doing Without Europe." The war has affected very profoundly those European industries which are dependent upon the exportation of minerals and metals. It has been driven home to us that the European manufacturer has been our best customer, that he has been buying our ores, only to sell them back again to us, at a great advance in price, in the form of manufactured products. Why have we not worked up in our own factories the minerals and metals that we have sent to Europe? The answer is simple. In the first place, it has been easier to sell our resources rather than to utilize them ourselves, and, in the second place, the upbuilding of great industries based upon our mineral resources is dependent to a large extent upon scientific research so vast only in the Government.

In subsequent articles of the series we intend to show how the small manufacturer can solve his specific problem, how he may learn to do without Europe, if he will only turn to the scientific man for assistance. The small manufacturer is not dependent upon foreign markets for an outlet. The meeting of the home demand is his most pressing problem. A few of the more awake business men have realized that manufacturing problems are scientific problems, and that they are solved not in the counting-room, but in the laboratory. Their example will be held up in the SCIENTIFIC

AMERICAN for others to follow. There are experts enough in our universities and in private practice who are able to give the kind of advice which those manufacturers most need who have depended upon Europe for basic materials. How these men do their work, how successful they have been in the past, will be told in our articles.

We hope to make this series both stimulating and practical. We hope to give the layman, the man who every German manufacturer learned by heart a long time ago—that the making of a chair, the weaving of a necktie, the molding of a cake of soap, is not only a matter of as much scientific inquiry as the identification of the metals glowing in the sun, but an inquiry which, if successfully pursued, means the establishment of a new industry, the creation of new wealth, and, above all, industrial freedom.

The War and the Unity of Science

IN looking at the early history of modern science one is struck by the fact that the then existing lack of facilities for the interchange of ideas retarded scientific advance in many cases, and others led to an unnecessary waste of time and effort, a factor which has contributed to the great advances of science in our time is the fact that all scientific men regularly read the work of scientific men in other countries. It is not merely that one acquires a larger number of useful facts by doing this, but that one comes to see the existence of other and fruitful ways of thinking. In mathematical physics, for instance, the English mechanistic way of viewing phenomena and the French formal method have reacted upon one another to their mutual advantage, even when both schools were in possession of each other's facts. The different genius of different countries comes out even in their science, even in their perfectly logical reasoning from the same facts. In the case of Huxley it is found that he himself and a number of other eminent biologists attribute much of his influence on English science to the fact that he read the work of German investigators. A knowledge of French and German is quite necessary to a modern scientific man of the English-speaking peoples, and in England and Germany, at any rate, a knowledge of these two languages is included in comparatively elementary scientific examinations.

Instead of working in detached little groups every scientific man now links himself up with all the other workers in his line. Scientific men have, in short, become united. It cannot be doubted that the old proverb "In unity lies strength" holds good, and that their unification has been a source of strength. A prominent feature of our time is the interchange of professors which has gone on between different universities. Lorentz's great and fascinating book on the "Electron Theories" is the expansion of a course of lectures delivered before Columbia University, and there are many other instances of eminent scientific men giving of their best to a foreign audience. There can be no doubt as to the value of this mingling of intellectual atmospheres, this scientific cosmopolitanism. Everything which diminishes intolerance, which breaks down the barriers between nations, is welcome.

Scientific men have proved themselves so human, in the most unfortunate sense, during this war, that we should not be surprised to find something like an unfair depreciation of their present scientific work when the war is over. There is already manifest a tendency in that direction. We find Frenchmen, Germans, and Englishmen belittling one another's achievements in science, quite oblivious to the fact that no one nation can have a monopoly of intelligence. They would do well to bear in mind Schopenhauer's dictum that patriotism has nothing whatever to do with science.

Weather Forecasting in the War

A N editorial on "Military Meteorology" that we published last October suggested that the German would be quick to realize the strategic value of this branch of science and would utilize their excellent meteorological systems in the task of predicting weather changes that would be of value to military operations. From an article in the London Daily Mail, reproduced in Nature, it appears that this surmise was correct. As early as the middle of August German meteorologists had established their headquarters at Liège, while toward the end of the same month they took possession of the Royal Observatory of Belgium at Brussels (a suburb of Brussels), where they ousted the regular staff of that institution. In the meantime, in regular staff of the Belgian meteorological service. Early in September they were sending up balloons for meteorological purposes. The attack on Antwerp appears to have been planned with regard to the weather predictions made at this place. Subsequently many meteorological stations were, it is reported, established at Ostend and Zeebrugge, and the naval raid on Scarborough, Hartlepool, and Whitby, which was made in foggy weather, was timed in accordance with the predictions of the German forecasters.

Notes on the War

French 4-inch Aircraft Gun.—The new French 4-inch gun for attack on airmen has proved to be a very efficient weapon. It fires a projectile weighing about 36 pounds with a muzzle velocity of 1,870 feet per second. The sighting is by means of a panoramic glass and the gun-pointing is done similarly to that of the well-known French 7.5 gun. The carriage remains fixed, the gun recoiling to a distance of 1 meter and returning to battery by means of compressed air. The weight of the piece in action with its armored siren is about 2½ tons.

Criticism of the Loss of the "Formidable."—Admiral Boreau has made a bitter criticism of the loss of the "Formidable," claiming that it was due to a neglect of the most elementary precautions against submarine attack. According to his letter, the "Formidable" was proceeding at moderate speed on a moonlit night, and unaccompanied by destroyers, which latter have proved to be the most effective defense against the submarine. It is significant that the same conditions, or most of them, obtained in the case of the loss of the "Aboukir," "Cresay," and "Hogun," which were sunk while they were steaming at only 7 knots unaccompanied by the usual destroyer screen.

United States Navy Fourth in Tonnage.—According to the last published figures of the Office of Naval Intelligence dated July 1st, 1914, when the new vessels which at that time were under construction, are completed and in commission, the United States Navy will have dropped from third to fourth position in respect of total tonnage. Under the plan it will be first with 2,714,100 tons, Germany, 1,906,577 tons, France, 808,917 tons, and the United States, 804,889 tons. Since the war started, Great Britain, Germany and France have greatly accelerated construction, and probably the United States Navy is further behind France in tonnage than the above figures indicate.

A Question of Mistaken Identity?—So persistently have the Germans been attacking their Zeppelin and airship bases in the North Sea, witnessed the overturning and sinking of a British cruiser, that one is inclined to believe that what they did see was the sinking of their own "Blücher." This is rendered probable by the fact that the air craft dropped bombs upon the destroyers which were engaged in making up the survivors. It is unbelievable, surely, that German airships would have knowingly dropped bombs upon enemy's ships that were engaged in the work of rescuing German sailors and officers, but it might well have happened that the Germans thought that these vessels were engaged in rescuing the survivors of a sunken British cruiser.

The Deadly German Submarine Torpedo.—When the German submarine has been able to get home its torpedo, it has effected the destruction of the ship attacked, practically at the first blow. The deadly character of German submarine attack is due to the fact that a special type of torpedo has been designed for submarine use. We are informed on good authority that the air capacity and engine power of the submarine torpedo are very much smaller than those of the long-distance torpedo. Weight saved in the air tank and its contents and the motive power is put into high explosive, of which these torpedoes carry no less than 420 pounds. The racking effect of 420 pounds of trinitrotoluol would be sufficient to loosen up the internal structure of a ship so badly as to make her foundering a question only of time.

The Austrian Naval Policy.—According to the Paris correspondent of the *Naval and Military Record*, the Austrian plan of operation for its navy consists, first, in ceaselessly harassing the blockaders of its ports on the Adriatic by means of submarines and torpedo boat attack, and should a favorable opportunity offer itself, by destroyer attack, or by the protection of its scouts of the "Spann" class, and, secondly, by keeping the battle-fleet prepared, by constant drill in harbor and by stationary engine trials, for a general action at sea which will take place as soon as the situation on land becomes desperate. According to this authority, neither the Austrian nor the German navy will accept the humiliation of becoming the prize of the victors and they will ultimately emerge for a trial of full strength with the enemy.

Co-operation of Warships and Hydro-aeroplanes.—The recent naval air-raid on Cuxhaven at the mouth of the Elbe afforded another demonstration of the truth of some of the theories regarding aerial warfare. The attack was carried by the ships of the sea up to the edge of the mine field and as far as they could safely go, and it was then extended up to the formidable fortifications of Cuxhaven by those modern and most effective ships of the air, the hydro-aeroplanes. The seven pilots succeeded in dropping their bombs freely upon the fortifications, and, with the exception of Bewlitz, who was rescued later, they all returned to their floating base, namely, the cruiser and destroyer fleet in the Bight of Helgoland. The British squadron was attacked both by submarines below and Zeppelins above; but, once more, high speed and a quick helm served to avoid the bomb and the torpedo.

Science

The Original Habitat of the Irish Potato.—A novel contribution to the long-debated subject is that of Mr. C. L. Fitch, who writes from the ecological point of view. His argument is that the open structure of the stomata of the potato leaf, permitting rapid evaporation, and the loose incoherent structure of the root cap, which is adapted only to penetrate in open soils indicate that the plant is a native of sandy open soils and a maritime climate, or, more probably, mountain slopes free from prolonged and heavy rains.

Our Daily Meals.—M. J. Bergeon discusses in the *Complex* under the best arrangement of the human dietary on the basis of the observation that the period of maximum availability of the energy in the meals occurs about 3 hours after eating. He suggests that a diet furnishing 1 part fat, 1 part protein, and 4 to 5 parts of carbohydrates should be taken in three meals, viz., a heavy meal supplying from 1,400 to 1,500 calories about 7:30 A. M., a light meal supplying 300 to 400 calories at 4:30 P. M., and a dinner supplying 700 to 800 calories at 8:00 P. M. One wonders whether the average man, and especially the average Frenchman accustomed to a very light *petit déjeuner*, could adjust his appetite to a heavy meal in the early morning.

Fisheries of Lake Cooper.—The U. S. Bureau of Fisheries is making a study of the large body of water known as Lake Cooper, which has recently come into existence as a result of the construction of the great Kiokwik Dam, on the Mississippi. In its general physical characteristics it resembles Lake Pepin, a natural expansion in the course of the same river in Wisconsin and Minnesota. Lake Pepin is more productive in its fisheries than any other part of the Mississippi. It is thought that with proper treatment the new lake will become equally valuable, and will be made to serve a useful purpose supplemental to its use for hydroelectric power generation. In the same connection a study has been made of the effect of the dam and locks on the movement and migration of fishes, in the hope of adding to knowledge respecting the general principles of a successful and efficient fishway.

Protection Against Sunburn on Snow Fields.—One of the greatest hardships met by mountaineers and travelers over snow fields is sunburn, which almost inevitably attacks the lips so severely, that suffering results for several days after the trip is over. Neither ointments nor artificial coatings, such as "New Skin," seem to protect the lips after the first day or two, and act very slowly in effecting a cure. After much experimenting, the staff of Mount Rose Observatory has adopted the simple expedient of covering the lips with a four sack, in which an oval aperture has been cut for the eyes. The thinness of the cloth makes the mask comfortable even on warm days, providing the sack is cut short enough to hang loosely about the neck and permit the circulation of air about the face. On the other hand, if a cold wind springs up, the mask if tucked into the collar affords desirable protection to ears and face.

Maturing Wines by Refrigeration and Aeration has been the subject of experiments by F. Klotz and F. Schneider, in Austria. New wines in bottles and casks were first subjected to a temperature of 28.4 to 26.6 deg. Fahr. (at which temperatures they did not freeze) for a period of from 24 to 48 hours, after which they were aerated by passing air through them for 24 hours or packing them off and allowing them to fall in a shower through air. They were then filtered and examined in comparison with wines not treated as above. While red wines showed no effects from the treatment, in white wines the color was darker and the taste and fragrance had decidedly more the character of old and ripe wines than in the untreated samples. On analyzing the product to chemical analysis there was found to be a marked decrease in the content of nitrogenous matter, i. e., the same effect as that ordinarily produced in wine by keeping it a long time in caskage and racking it repeatedly.

Handbooks on the American Indians.—The Handbook of American Indians, edited by F. H. Hodge, and published in two volumes by the Bureau of American Ethnology in 1907-10, is an encyclopaedia of matters relating to the history, archaeology, manners, arts, customs, and institutions of the American aborigines—quite indispensable to anybody who is interested in these subjects, and one of the most admirably planned and executed works ever issued by the Government. The bureau is now publishing a second work in the same series, the Handbook of American Indian Languages, of which one volume has already appeared. This discusses the characteristics and classification of the languages in question and their relation to ethnology. In North America north of Mexico there are distinguished 55 linguistic families. A third of the series of handbooks now in preparation, is to be a Handbook of American Antiquities, while a fourth will be a Handbook of Aboriginal Remains East of the Mississippi. It is proposed to undertake later a series of handbooks of the Indians of the various States separately.

Automobile

Motor Machine Gun Batteries.—One of the latest additions to the British fighting force is the motor car machine gun battery. One of these batteries is to be attached to each division of the fighting units at the front, and the organization of this service is being pressed forward rapidly.

Shrinkage in the English Automobile Business.—English trade statistics show that during the months of August, September and October export business in motor cars and parts showed a shrinkage of about a million and a half dollars, while the decrease in imports for the same period amounted to about two and a quarter millions. For the first 10 months of the year 1914 the automobile business fell behind the previous year by about \$3,800,000, but the trade are confident that the demands made on them after the war will more than make up for the present loss.

De Dion Pressure Lubrication.—A recent innovation for automobile motors of the De Dion type is a well-designed method of pressure-oiling for the various working parts of the motor. Instead of the crank being a small gear oil pump which takes up oil from the reservoir formed by the bottom of the crank-case. Oil is driven all through the motor, for instance, through ducts all along the crank shaft so as to lubricate the three bearings and four cranks. From the pump ring piping that enters the three bearings from below, so complete the circulation. A mist of oil formed by the rotating crank, serves to lubricate the cylinders.

Garbage Collecting Motor Wagons.—Recent information about the municipal household waste collecting vans which are used successfully at Paris, states that these vehicles have a capacity of 300 cubic feet in the large box body, and in spite of this large storage, the top of the body is only 1 foot from the ground, so that loading in material is done with great facility. The box or garbage holder is of soft steel plate and on the top is a set of arched sliding covers. When at the garbage-consuming plant the whole body can be lifted off the truck for dumping purposes. A "Fraun" electric front truck drives the car.

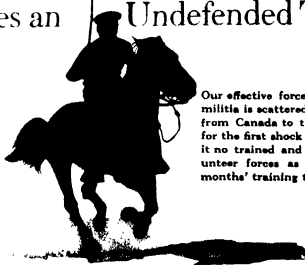
Steam Motor Wins a Prize.—In these days when few men think of anything but an internal combustion motor for propelling vehicles it is interesting to note that the Royal Automobile Club of London has awarded the Dora trophy to the National coal-fired boiler, entered by the National Steam Car Company. This trophy is offered annually for the most meritorious performance in a certified trial. This boiler is used quite extensively on motor buses, a service that is difficult and most exacting, and the prize was won in spite of these conditions and the general prejudice against steam boilers for use on vehicles.

Paris Autobus.—According to the Paris journals, the autobuses which are doing such good service in the war will not afterwards be used again for the city lines, but will be replaced by others. The city council and the autobus company are now engaged in a discussion on the question, and it is proposed to make use of an improved autobus designed after the previous experience. The new type is to have more roomy seating space and other improvements, and the total weight of the car will be lessened by about 1,500 pounds. The autobuses system being a most practical solution of the transport problem in Paris, the appearance of the new cars will be welcomed.

No Motor Exhibitions.—It is rather entertaining to the average motorist when visiting the Olympia motor exhibitions, generally held in the winter, to note that certain manufacturers are now stating that they hope these annual shows will not be restarted. One of the reasons given is that now the motor industry has had ample time to design, test, and manufacture two or three types of cars, and settle down to turn them out, say, for three years, introducing only such modifications as might appear advisable. Then a better, cheaper, and more quickly delivered car could be produced. It would simplify the spare part and repair problems, and make for steeper business, which is not making a mistake, but would get a better grasp of the probabilities of the particular make of car he was selling. From the point of view of the average motorist the idea of the annual motor show was to give the public a chance of seeing the improvements the different makers have adopted or discovered, and to make them discontented with their own "old-fashioned" cars, thus causing them to buy the "latest models." Nine out of ten of the motoring public would do well without the annual exhibition for this last cause alone, as the makers feel they can get on as well without the show as with it they can easily drop it for good. Carefully speaking it is questionable whether the manufacturers have not been making a mistake in making that course, for though it may be urged it is only a form of business stimulus which is apt to have a reaction afterward, the successes of the past 15 years require a lot of explaining away. *The London Daily Telegraph.*

I—The United States an Undefended Treasure Land

Chief among the conditions which render the United States helpless against invasion, is the fact that in the event of the defeat of our fleet and the landing of an army of invasion, it would take 30 days after invasion to concentrate our altogether inadequate and ill equipped little army of 90,000 regulars and militia.



Our effective force of 30,000 regulars and 60,000 militia is scattered from Maine to California and from Canada to the Gulf. When concentrated for the first shock of war, there would be back of it no trained and equipped reserves. Such volunteer forces as were raised would take six months' training to fit them for service.

THE problem which at present confronts the United States is the establishment of a military policy which will enable us to establish in adequate force for national defense in time of war and maintain a regular army adequate for the peace requirements of the nation.

Only 90,000 Widely-scattered Mobile Troops, Including Militia, for Defense

The regular army within the continental United States numbers about 30,000 men (mobile troops, cavalry, infantry, and field artillery) and 16,000 men in the coast defenses. These latter are non mobile troops in the sense that their duties are in the fortifications. The militia of the United States amounts to approximately 127,000 men and officers, on paper, but only about 104,000 actually mustered. Of these, at the most, not more than 60,000 can be considered as ready for immediate service, so that we have in the United States a total of 46,000 in round numbers of regular troops, 16,000 of whom are tied up in the coast defenses, and 60,000 militia, or a total of 90,000 mobile troops. These are scattered over the continent from Canada to Mexico and from the Atlantic to the Pacific. It is easy to appreciate the difficulty which would be encountered in assembling all the effective militia, for it would mean the withdrawal from the States and our coast cities what few armed men they have available for defense.

Would Take Thirty Days After Enemy Landed to Concentrate Our 60,000 Militia.

We would be exceptionally fortunate to be able to concentrate this number of mobile militia troops at any point on the Atlantic or Pacific coast within thirty days, and when concentrated, they would be without properly trained artillery and cavalry organizations. They would be without ammunition trains. They would have been hastily organized, assembled for the first time in large bodies, and, generally speaking, unprepared to act as an army. This condition of unpreparedness would apply not only to the officers and men of the line, but also to officers and men of the Supply Department, most of whom would be without previous experience in the actual movement and supply of troops. Moreover, there are practically no reserve supplies and no adequate arrangements for providing them.

Behind Our Widely-scattered Regulars and Militia Are No Reserves Whatsoever.

The regular army and militia are maintained in three

From President Washington to President Wilson, the Executive has persistently urged upon Congress the necessity of providing, in times of peace, a body of citizen soldiery properly trained and equipped, with which instantly to meet and repel any invasion of the United States. With equal persistence, Congress (except during periods of war) has refused to listen to the warnings of its President. Today, because of this neglect, the United States, the richest of the rich countries of the world, is the most open to invasion. The ocean, once a barrier, now, thanks to steam navigation, offers a chance of half a hundred highways, by way of any one of which a first-class power might slip by our crippled or bottled-up fleet, which is now rapidly losing in relative strength and is without adequate personnel, necessary naval cruisers or submarines, and, within a week or ten days, land a fully equipped advance force of 200,000 highly-trained troops. To oppose this, the United States, in thirty days, could concentrate, at the most, 30,000 regulars and 60,000 militia.

The present series of articles is published with a view to bringing before the country at large and Congress in particular the true facts as regards the military defenses of the United States. They represent the result of weeks of study of the problem by the editorial staff of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, in the course of which only the highest military officials and the latest official documents of the War Department have been consulted. What is Congress going to do about it?—EDITOR.

of peace at only a fraction of their war strength. There are no reserves of men or officers to fill them up to war strength. Not only is there a shortage of men for reserves to fill up existing organizations, but many of the officers and men at present on the rolls of the militia will be unable to accompany their comrades, so that the condition of actual shortage in the militia, alarming as it appears, is still well below what must be expected in case of mobilization. To be more explicit, our infantry

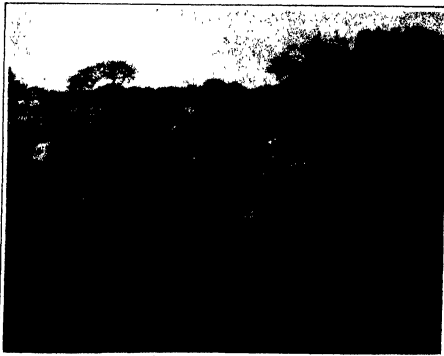
companies of the regular army in the continental United States are maintained at an average strength of about 65 men per company. Their war strength is 150. The militia organizations are maintained at even lower strength. Their war strength is the same as that of the regular army. Even at war strength our infantry regiments are only about two thirds the strength of the average European regiment.

Shortage of Men and Guns in the (Regular) Field Artillery.

The regular army in the United States is without adequate field artillery organizations, and is short both officers and men and ammunition and supply trains to make up these needed organizations. They could not be created and made reasonably efficient from new personnel within four months, and this under the most favorable conditions and with the best officers and non-commissioned officers as instructors. On the completion of our foreign garrisons, there would be left in the United States three regiments, or enough for a division and a half of infantry, and none for the remaining regular troops or for the coast guard and additional volunteer troops which would have to be raised.

We Possess Less than Half the Needed Militia Field Batteries: What We Have Would Require Three Months' Training.

The militia is even worse off, and has relatively few batteries that can be considered efficient. As a class the batteries of the militia will require at least three months' training to make them reasonably fit for war, and the new batteries which will have to be created for this arm will require at least six months; and in this connection it must be remembered that the militia must create more new batteries than it now has old batteries in order to be properly equipped with field artillery. These statements are most conservative and well within the limit of time which would be required for real efficiency. The militia at present has sixty-five organized batteries, with four guns each, and needs seventy-nine additional batteries to complete its equipment in field artillery. It has only a very small percentage of the ammunition needed. It is without ammunition trains, officers or men for the new organizations, and without the necessary horses for existing batteries. It is without siege artillery, and neither it nor the regular army has any of the heavy field mortars or



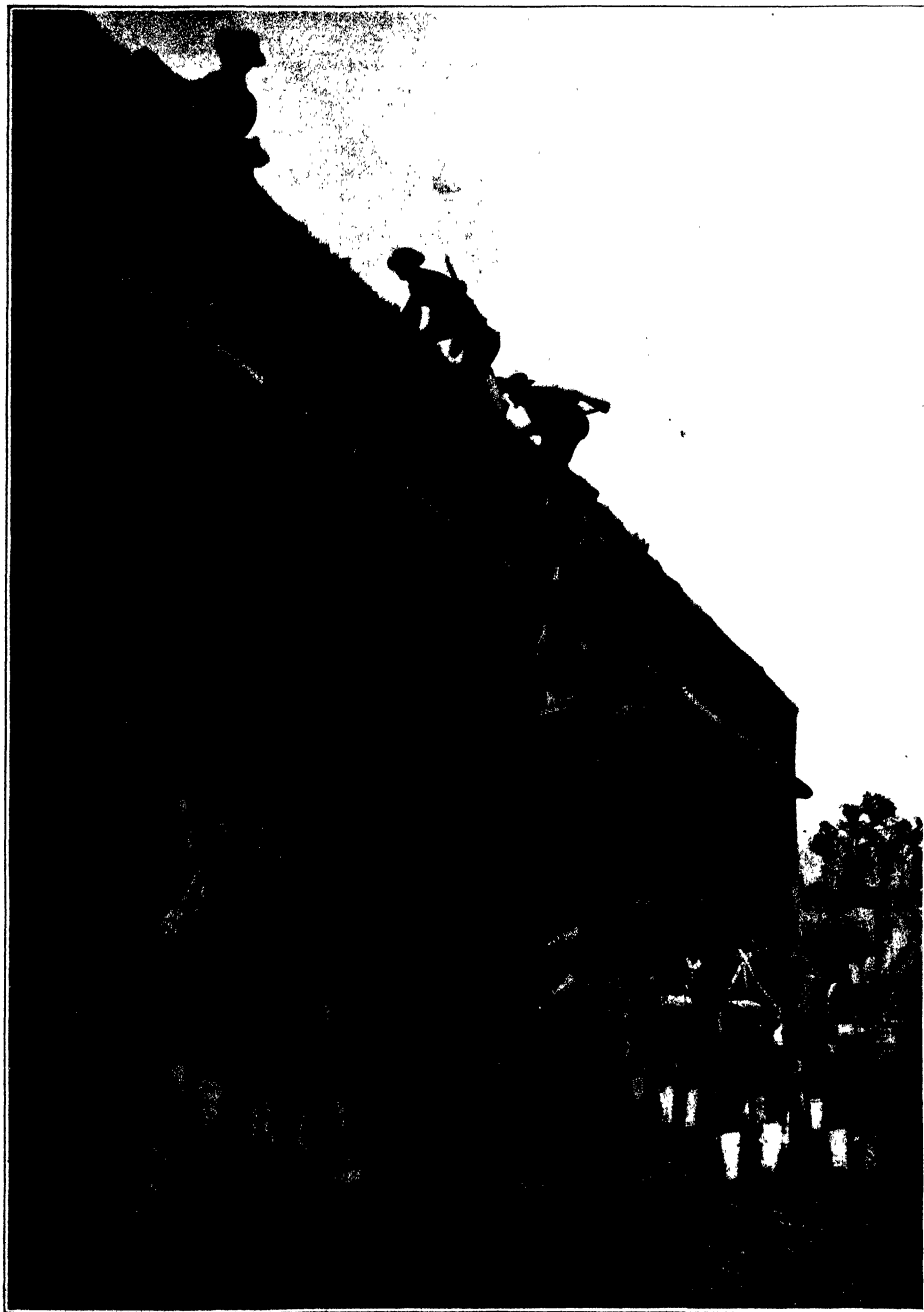
United States regulars in the trenches.



Picking off snipers at Vera Cruz.

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UNITED STATES REGULARS SCALING THE INNER WALL OF A FORTIFICATION

howitzers (10-inch and upward) which have been of such value in the present war in Europe. We are without any adequate system for equipping either the regular army or militia to war strength.

Not for a Year and a Half After the Enemy Landed Could We Provide the Necessary Field Artillery, Ammunition Trains and Ammunition

We could not supply the men for the necessary field artillery organization for months, or the ammunition trains and ammunition for a year and a half, and not

prouches to our cities, the coast defense works at and about our harbors, etc. This force is estimated at nine hundred divisions, or about 300,000 troops, of whom 275,000 will be required on the Atlantic coast.

We Would Need 500,000 Mobile Troops (Regulars and Militia) to Meet the Enemy Wherever He Might Land.

The plan of organization of the land forces, as prepared by the General Staff and approved by the Secretary of War, in 1912, calls for a force of 500,000

to build up a reserve behind the regular army. By a reserve is meant a body of men thoroughly trained by active service, who are held on a status of furlough or leave, ready to come to the colors; that is, to come to the troops whenever needed, in case of war or threatened war, and for a short period of from five to eight days of training each year. This reserve should be sufficient to bring the regular organizations to their maximum war strength and provide an excess of at least 15 per cent to make good the losses of the first months of war. A similar reserve should be built up behind the militia, for, at present, it could be counted upon to take the field at more than, at the outside, 30 per cent of its war strength.

The Undeveloped State of the United States is Solely Chargeable to Congress.

No effective steps have been taken by Congress to provide a reserve either for the regular army or for the militia. Everything is left to chance. The law which carried the term "reserve" was passed in such form by Congress as to render a reserve practically impossible. Its defects were fully pointed out by the Chief of Staff, but without avail. The result is that we stand today with a force of militia and regulars available within thirty days, but lacking in certain essential organizations vital to its efficiency, and without previous experience in large bodies, or training as part of the field army, and in strength only about one fifth of that estimated by the General Staff as necessary at the commencement of war to meet the first shock of land attack. Back of this unorganized and largely untrained force, incompletely equipped in certain essential particulars, stands a *source of strength* men, scattered from Porto Rico to California. This is a statement of fact, in view of it can any one question the statement that this country is inadequately prepared for defense?

Our Third War Map

OUR readers will doubtless be pleased to receive with this issue the third important war map which the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN has published since the beginning of hostilities. The September 5th issue had as a supplement a colored war map of Europe involving considerable territory which has never been the seat of hostilities. It was admirably colored to show the country of the Dual Alliance and the territory of the Allies. Of course, at that time it was not possible to promulgate the area in which developments would take place in the near future. In the same issue we published a very excellent topographical map showing the battle grounds in Belgium and France. This map is as useful today as when it was first issued, as a large part of the fighting is still confined to the western theater of the war. Now, however, we present a map, also printed in four colors but on a different plan, taking in from Portland, England, and Cherbourg in France on the west, to Bukharest in Rumania on the east, thus including both the eastern and western theaters of the war, also portions of the Baltic Sea, the North Sea, and the Channel. This map has been prepared under the special direction of the editors of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, assisted by an eminent geographer. The map is particularly valuable as showing the influence of bodies of water and mountains on the military operations. It seems probable that this map will deal with nearly all of the territory which will be involved except, possibly, conflicts in the Balkan States and around Constantinople and the Black Sea. This map, taken in connection with the colored map issued as a supplement with the September 5th issue, should keep our readers in close touch with the geographical situation at all times.

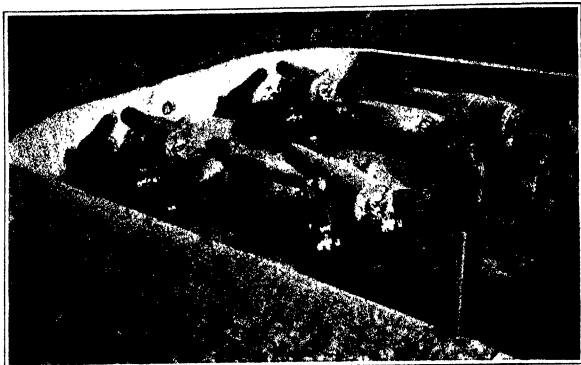


Photo by Luntz

A sunken battery of 12-inch coast-defense mortars.

a gun is yet made or appropriated for, for the volunteers. The militia is short in cavalry and requires over fifty additional troops of cavalry to provide the divisional cavalry alone. There is an alarming absence of auxiliary troops. Most of the militia cavalry is poorly mounted, much of it practically without mounts, and with the exception of a few special organizations has had little or no field training. It needs months of hard work in camp. Engineers, signal and medical troops of the militia are as a rule insufficient in number, deficient in organization, equipment and reserve supplies, and very many of them are far below their prescribed strength and without available personnel to fill them up. **Employers Should Patriotically Support Militiamen in Their Employment.**

The militia needs the strongest support of the public and especially the active support of those in whose employment are officers and men of the militia, support of a practical kind which will make it possible for them to give the necessary time to their militia training without prejudice to their business or professional careers.

The Shortage of Trained Officers

The militia should have not only a reserve of men, but at least one additional lieutenant per company, so that when called to active service they may be at least three officers per company, for it must be remembered that the militia is a part of the first line and will be called simultaneously with the regular army, whenever a condition of war or threatened war arises. This provision for an extra officer could be well applied in the regular army organization. A large number of additional regular officers should be provided as instructors for the militia, so that we may have at least one per regiment of militia infantry and one for each squadron or battalion of mounted troops, and the necessary number for the training of engineers, signal corps and medical troops of this force. The department has urged these necessary officers, but thus far with little success. The militia can be made efficient only through the supply of a sufficient number of highly trained, competent regular officers as instructors. Even when the regular army and militia have been brought to full strength and placed upon a war footing they will have only about 725,000 men (mobile troops) within the limits of the United States. In order to secure the men for this reserve it will be necessary to secure a radical change in the present form of enlistment for both regular army and militia.

In Case of Invasion We Would Need 380,000 Stationary Volunteer Coastguard Troops to Guard the Approaches to Our Cities and Coast Defense Works, Etc.

The War Department has made an earnest effort to secure a form of enlistment which would render a reserve possible, but its recommendations have received scant consideration at the hands of Congress. We can, perhaps, best judge the demands which would be made upon the United States in time of war with a first class power prepared for war by considering first the coast guard troops which will be necessary to guard the ap

proaches to our cities, the coast defense works at and about our harbors, etc. This force is estimated at nine hundred divisions, or about 300,000 troops, of whom 275,000 will be required on the Atlantic coast.

As Matters Stand, We Would Have No Coastguard Troops, and It Would Take Thirty Days to Collect Our 90,000 Mobile Effective Regulars and Militia.

The regular army and militia in its present condition will furnish only 90,000 within thirty days, and, to furnish this number, every militiaman fit for immediate service must be taken from his State and sent to the United States rendezvous, so that, today, we stand with less than one fifth of the mobile army required for the field force and without a single man for the coastguard, and we shall continue in this state unless arrangements are made prior to war to provide the necessary reserves of trained men and officers for the coastguard troops. One method of providing a coastguard of trained troops would be to take it from the regular army and the militia. To do this would be to scatter these small forces in driftings along our coast. This would be folly, and would destroy these organizations as a field force. The only other way to provide for the necessary coastguard would be through voluntary assemblages of untrained and undisciplined citizens. Their value would be practically nil until they had received months of training.

Fruitless Efforts of the War Department to Build Up a Reserve Behind the Regular Army.

The War Department has for years been attempting

MOBILE TROOPS FOR SERVICE IN U.S. PROPER	REGULARS	300,000	100,000	400,000
	MILITIA	100,000	100,000	200,000
		100,000	100,000	200,000
COAST ARTILLERY FOR SERVICE IN U.S. PROPER	REGULARS	100,000	100,000	200,000
	MILITIA	100,000	100,000	200,000
		100,000	100,000	200,000
FIELD ARTILLERY FOR SERVICE IN U.S. PROPER	REGULARS	100,000	100,000	200,000
	MILITIA	100,000	100,000	200,000
		100,000	100,000	200,000
FIELD ARTILLERY GUNS	REGULARS	100,000	100,000	200,000
	MILITIA	100,000	100,000	200,000
		100,000	100,000	200,000
FIELD ARTILLERY AMMUNITION	REGULARS	100,000	100,000	200,000
	MILITIA	100,000	100,000	200,000
		100,000	100,000	200,000
SMALL ARMS	REGULARS	100,000	100,000	200,000
	MILITIA	100,000	100,000	200,000
		100,000	100,000	200,000
SMALL ARMS AMMUNITION	REGULARS	100,000	100,000	200,000
	MILITIA	100,000	100,000	200,000
		100,000	100,000	200,000

THESE FIGURES ARE BASED ON THE MINIMUM "FIRST LINE" ARMY (300,000 REGULARS AND MILITIA) NECESSARY TO DELAY AN INVASION UNTIL, AT LEAST, 300,000 VOLUNTEERS CAN BE RAISED

Diagram showing the alarming condition of our military defenses.

The Navy—Our First Line of Defense

The Fleet as Authorized by Congress Far Below That Deemed Necessary by Its Naval Advisers



Copyright by Underwood & Lothrop

The dreadnought "Wyoming" driving into a head sea

THE Navy is the first line of defense of the United States against naval and military attack by the powers of the old world. To be assured of this the average American citizen should at once disabuse his mind of the fallacy that the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, separating us respectively by three thousand and by five thousand miles of water from the old world, render us safe against attack. At one time these vast stretches of water did confer upon us a certain immunity from sudden invasion, but the application of steam to navigation has completely changed all that.

The speed of modern ships, both of the Navy and merchant marine, and the vast transportation facilities afforded by the merchant fleets of the leading powers render it possible to transport across the Atlantic, in from seven to ten days' time a completely equipped military force of from 100,000 to 200,000 men and in the absence of a defending fleet land it in first-rate condition at any selected point on our long coast line, far remote from our coast fortifications and free from any serious molestation by the few and widely-scattered troops that make up the little army of the United States.

If this be true, it will be asked "for what purpose have we spent \$100,000,000 upon our elaborate system of coast fortifications?" The answer is that these fortifications were built to defend the cities, harbors, roadsteads, and naval bases along our coast line, but that they were never intended to, and in the nature of things never can, protect the thousands of miles of intermediate coast line which lies outside the range of the big guns with which these widely-scattered fortifications are manned. To this extent the words "coast fortifications" are a misnomer and misleading. These defenses should rather be called city-and-harbor fortifications.

It is this very defenselessness of our long stretches of coast line, intermediate between our coast fortifications, which renders it necessary to provide a thoroughly mobile, powerful, and well-appointed fleet, which shall keep the seas, find the enemy, and destroy or capture his ships before he gets within soundings on the seaward of the United States.

It being admitted, then, that in addition to fixed fortifications to defend our ports and harbors, we need floating fortifications, or a navy, to defend our coast-line, the important question arises, How large and what should be the composition of the United States Navy, in order that it may meet and over-power any possible enemy, and, jointly with our coast fortifications, protect the United States against invasion?

Now the determination of the size and make-up of

In the early part of last year the Scientific American published a series of articles on the present standing and needed increase of the United States Navy, which was subsequently republished in pamphlet form. In view of that rather exhaustive study we feel that it is not necessary to take up the subject in great detail in the present National Defense Number. The following article deals with the question of the size and make-up of the Navy, which we would have possessed at the present time, if Congress had followed the recommendations of the General Board of the Navy, which, several years ago after a very thorough investigation of the subject, laid down a general programme of new construction, that would have given us a navy of the minimum strength demanded by the length of our coast line, the extent of our foreign possessions, the grave importance of our national policies, and the ever-increasing wealth and population of the greatest republic in the world. Side by side with the navy which these expert advisers have recommended as absolutely indispensable, we present the actual navy (very much smaller and very badly balanced as to the strength of its various elements), which Congress in its wisdom has seen fit to provide. Incidentally, we shall show with what remarkable uniformity the teachings of the present war have verified the foresight and wisdom of the General Board.—Editor

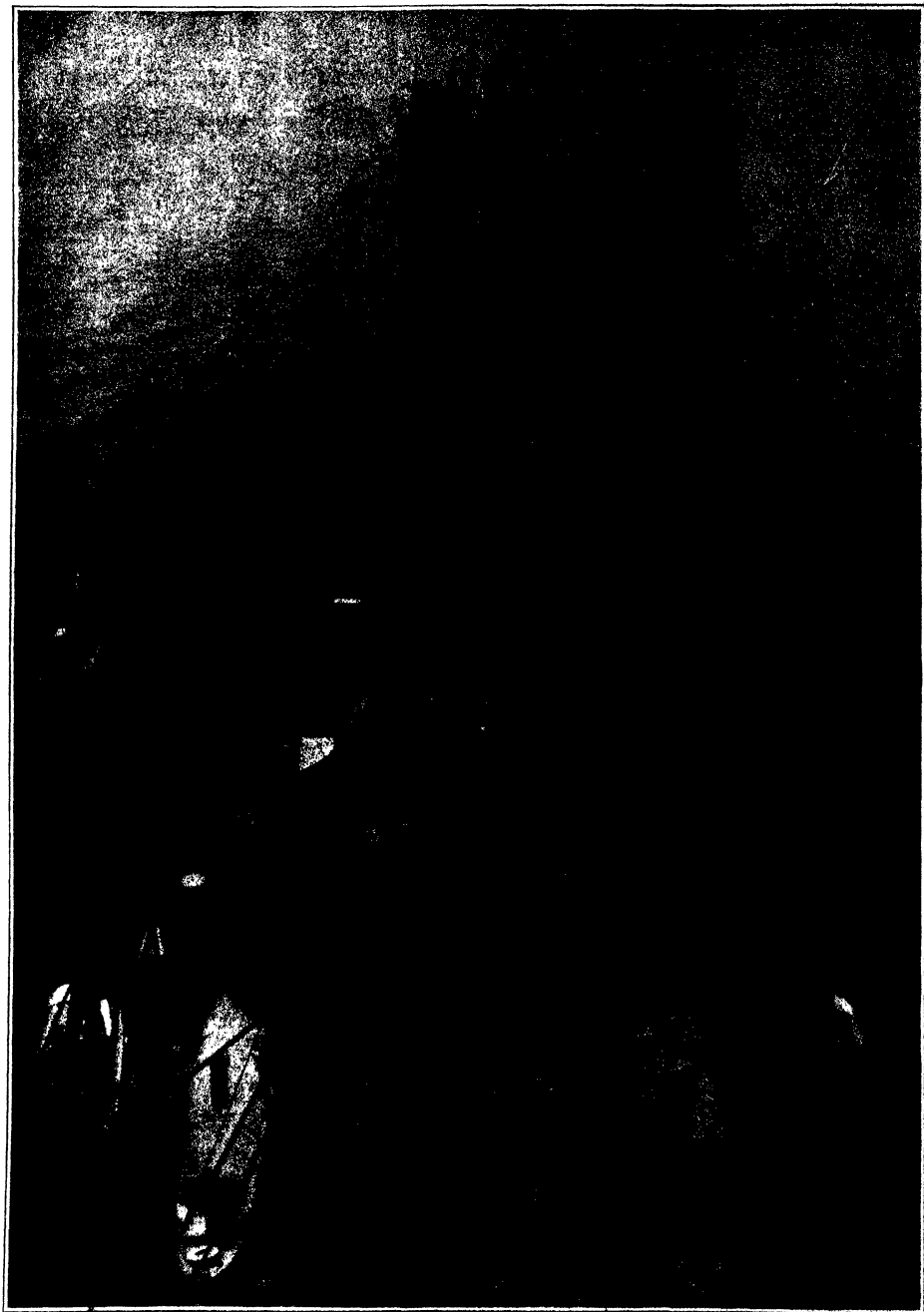
a United States fleet, which would be sufficiently numerous and powerful to discourage any foreign power from sending a fleet across the Atlantic to fight a great engagement or a series of engagements at a distance of several thousand miles from its nearest base, is, it will be admitted, a very difficult and complicated problem—so many are the determining factors which must be taken into consideration. In the first place, it is necessary to determine how far the foreign policies of the United States are liable to conflict with the foreign policies of the great naval powers. Second, it is necessary to have accurate information as to the strength and general make-up of the fleets of those foreign powers between whom and ourselves controversies might arise which could not be settled by diplomatic means. Third, it is necessary to be able to make a fairly accurate forecast of the rate of future growth of the navies of the foreign powers and of the types of

ships in the various classes which they are likely to set about in the years 20 to 30.

Now, it will be evident at once to any intelligent and impartial mind that this problem can be solved only by highly technical men, who are thoroughly conversant with all sides of the question, and who have at hand the necessary technical data as to the growth of foreign navies. In other words the problem is a strictly naval problem and is capable of solution only by the most able experts and officers of the United States Navy.

Realizing this fact the department several years ago, formed what is known as the General Board of the Navy and included within it the most widely informed and able of its officers, with Admiral Dewey at their head. This board, after a very exhaustive study, formulated a plan of construction which, if it had been followed, would have found our Navy, year after year, in such a condition of strength and efficiency, as to ships, officers and men, equipment and resources that no foreign power would venture to attack us or if it should send its fleet overseas, would be so thoroughly defeated as to render the landing of armed forces upon our shores impossible.

In every leading naval power of the world, there is a technical body corresponding to our General Board (except that it possesses an authoritative vote, which our General Board does not), which formulates a programme of construction, the appropriations for which are usually voted by the legislative body with but little hostile criticism. Not so, however, in the United States. Here Congress has paid but little attention to the recommendations of its expert advisers. Indeed the members have taken it upon themselves to determine not merely what the total strength of the navy shall be, but what shall be the character of its composition—that is to say, they have not merely determined each year the total amount of tonnage that shall be added to the navy, but they have considered themselves competent to decide the very difficult and highly technical question as to how that total tonnage should be divided among the various classes of ships. The result has been that, today, we possess a fleet which is not only far below the strength which the only men who understand the question have determined to be necessary to defend our shores, but Congress has so disastrously interfered with the allotment to the various types of battleships, cruisers, destroyers, submarines, scouts, etc., that our Navy is exceedingly ill-balanced and is dangerously weak in certain types of ships which the results in the present naval war have shown to be highly



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Tonnage, 87,000. Speed, 21½ knots. Guns, 2 in. 14-inch, twenty-one 5-inch. Torpedo tubes, 6. Belt armor, 12-inch. Maximum coal supply, 2,500 tons. Oil, 135 tons. Complement, 1,019.

FORWARD AND AFTER FIRE-CONTROL PLATFORMS OF THE "NEW YORK," AS SEEN FROM THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE

essential to the efficiency of the fleet as a whole.

We now invite attention to the accompanying drawing, based upon conditions on January 1st, 1915, which shows the actual number of ships of the various types authorized, built and building in the United States Navy, as compared with the number of ships authorized, built and building which we would have possessed had Congress seen fit to follow the advice of the General Board. And, just here, it should be understood that this drawing does not include all the ships of the United States Navy; it shows only those types of vessels which are modern in design, which are best adapted to the exigencies of modern naval warfare, and which alone are being built for the navy of the world. In addition to the vessels shown, the United States Navy includes eighteen old cruisers of various out-of-date types, vessels which, if used as makeshift scouts, would be in danger of destruction by the swift and powerfully-armed modern scouts and high-speed battle-cruisers, of which the leading foreign navies possess so many. Also, the drawing takes no account of the twenty-two pre-dreadnoughts of our Navy. The pre-dreadnought, because of its low speed and inferior gunpower, would be unable to stand up in the battle line against modern dreadnoughts; therefore, none of that type is being built by any navy in the world, our own included. The General Board is content to let our pre-dreadnought strength rest at its present status of twenty-two ships.

the trained experts of the navy, calling for twenty-seven dreadnoughts, or the judgment of the laymen who fill the halls of Congress, calling for fifteen dreadnoughts, is correct in its estimate as to the necessary strength of our first fighting line fully to protect the United States against invasion.

Undoubtedly, if we should take toll of the average opinion of the man on the street, we would find that the submarine ranks in importance with the dreadnought. If it does not indeed take precedence as the most effective type of ships, whether for offense or defense. This undue exaggeration of the importance of the submarine in the lay mind is reflected in our drawing, which shows that, whereas the General Board has recommended only forty-four submarines, Congress has provided fifty-seven. In its present stage of development, the effectiveness of the submarine increases as the area of the waters in which it is to operate decreases. A submarine fleet operating in the restricted waters of the North Sea against the vast number of ships of the enemy that are concentrated there is far more effective than it would be if distributed along the two thousand miles of our Atlantic seaboard. The submarine would be far less valuable on coasts than it is in the North Sea. As matters stand, our Navy is thirteen submarines to the good over the number deemed sufficient by the General Board.

The most deadly form of attack against the battle-ships, should it get home, is the torpedo; and the most

exists in the matter of fast scouting ships. One of the most important truths demonstrated by the present war has been the all-round usefulness of the fast scout of 3,500 to 5,000 tons possessed by the German and British navies. It was the high speed of the German vessels of this class which enabled them, in the earlier months of the war, to work such havoc upon the shipping of the allied nations. The "Emden," the "Koenigsberg," and the "Karlsruhe" (the last named still at large) were able to do what they did largely because of their great speed. Such of these ships as have been accounted for were destroyed only when they were overtaken by British ships of the same class, possessing higher speed and heavier batteries, a notable case in point being the destruction of the "Emden."

Another important rôle of the fast scout, as developed during the war, is that of flagship to a flotilla of destroyers. Acting in this capacity it has done most effective work, not only in protecting its own flotillas when they were hard-pressed, but in running down and destroying by gun-fire the destroyers of the enemy. A notable case in point was the action between the fast scout "Undaunted" and four German destroyers, in which the scout, because of her high speed of 30 knots and her powerful battery of 6-inch guns, was able to overtake and sink the quartette in detail.

For the United States Navy, in addition to these duties, the scout would be invaluable in its special rôle of seeking out the enemy determining his numbers,



Several years ago the General Board of the Navy, headed by Admiral Dewey, after an exhaustive study of the problem of the naval defense of the United States drew up a plan for making the minimum annual addition to our Navy that would be necessary to enable it fully to protect our coasts. The result that our Navy has fallen from the second to the fourth place in rank among the navies of the world.

Light shading shows ships we have (authorized, built and building); dark shading, ships the naval experts say we should have to render the United States secure against invasion. The twenty-seven dreadnoughts include two battle-cruisers.

It should be noted, also, that among the twenty-two pre-dreadnoughts are not included the three battleships "Oregon," "Indiana," and "Massachusetts," which are now over twenty years of age, and, therefore, by common consent among naval men the world over, are reckoned as so completely obsolete as not to be entitled to a place in the list of effective ships.

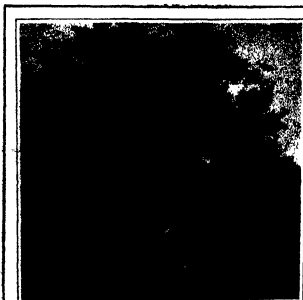
Commencing with the most important element of a navy, the dreadnought, we find that, if the recommendations of the General Board had been followed, the United States would today have twenty-seven dreadnoughts and battle-cruisers authorized, built or building. It would mean that our Navy has at last come around to a recognition of the great strategic and practical value of the fast, heavily-armed battle-cruisers, which, undoubtedly, have done the most effective work thus far in the naval war. As against this total of twenty-seven, Congress has considered and apparently still considers that fifteen ships of this type are sufficient to form the main protective element in our first line of defense against invasion. The dreadnought, be it remembered, is the backbone of the Navy. It matters not how great may be the strength of the enemy in scouts, destroyers, submarines, mine-ships, etc., the absolute command of the sea is not secured until his dreadnought fleet has been either destroyed, or, as in the present war, absolutely blockaded by an overwhelmingly powerful fleet of similar ships. The question for the country to determine is as to whether the judgment of

effective form of defense of the battleship against this menace is the possession of a numerous fleet of fast, well-armed, sea-going destroyers. This form of defense is equally effective against the enemy's destroyers and submarines. In fact, the facility with which the British destroyers have been able to evade submarine attack, and in some cases sink the submarines themselves by ramming, has been one of the surprises of the war. Naval experts the world over are agreed that the proper proportion of destroyers to battleships is four to one, and, although the programme of the General Board has not reached this proportion for our dreadnoughts and battleships combined, it nevertheless calls for a total of one hundred and twenty-seven destroyers, authorized, built and building, at the opening of the present year. As against that, number Congress has authorized only sixty-eight. This is a very serious shortage in any case, and particularly so when we remember that, in view of the fact that we have only three fast scout cruisers, as against the thirty-four recommended, it will be necessary in war time to separate a large proportion of our destroyers from the battleships, and throw them forward for scouting duty. It is evident that in this respect, also, the interference of Congress has disorganized our naval fighting forces, and reduced the sum total of their combined efficiency.

Unquestionably, the most serious deficit in the make-up of our fleet, so far as the minor units are concerned,

strength, and, of course, and reporting the facts to the main fleet. If the recommendations of the General Board had been followed, we would today have thirty-four of these valuable ships, authorized, built and building; as it is, we possess only three comparatively old vessels, the "Salem," "Chester," and "Birmingham," whose speed of from 25 to 24 knots, is altogether too low in view of the fact that the latest foreign navies have speeds of from 27 to 30 knots.

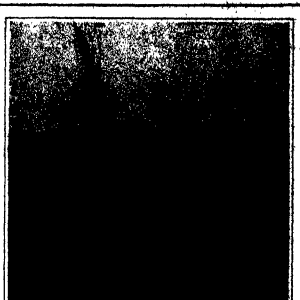
The fundamental cause of the crying disparity between the strength of our Navy as called for by its naval experts and as determined by the action of Congress, is the fact that the General Board can only recommend, its recommendations being of a purely advisory character. The remedy for these conditions would be found in the institution of a powerful, broadly representative board, composed of members of the Navy, of the Legislature and of the Executive, which would consider from every point of view—political, financial, technical and military—the question of naval increase and all naval questions of a fundamental character, and present its findings to Congress with the definite governmental authority which such a board would carry. If such a council were in existence, its recommendations to Congress would be free from any suspicion of partisanship or individual departmental influence. It would be authoritative in the highest degree, and it would represent the matured opinions of the Government as a whole.



A searchlight disguised as a clump of bushes and almost impossible to locate.

The Art of Deception in War

Methods of Military Mimicry and Protective Concealment on Land and Sea Employed in the Present War



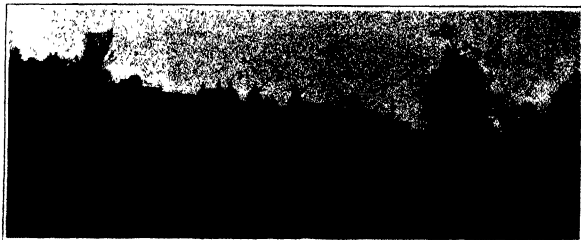
A British gun disguised as a bush so as to escape the observation of German aeroplanes.

In all nature there is hardly an animal which is not characteristically marked for deceiving its enemies or its prey. The Indian killdeer butterfly, for example, is veined and marked like a leaf with such amazing accuracy that when it folds its wings and perches upon a stem it is absolutely impossible to distinguish it from the surrounding foliage, even spots of leaf decay are thus accurately reproduced. So, too, the walking-stick insect, when it crouches among green leaves, cannot be distinguished from a twig. It is not a mere whim of Nature's that has striped the zebra; the characteristic markings of the animal, conspicuous enough in a menagerie, render him almost indistinguishable

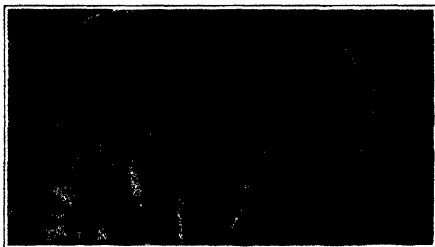
The lesson has not been lost upon man. From time immemorial hunters have clad themselves in green, and from time immemorial, deception of this kind has been

practised in the art of war. This old artifice of deceiving an enemy still lives. Indeed, it is more than ever necessary because the aeroplane and the striding eye so much. The modern telescope, too, brings the distant enemy so near that his movements and his ultimate object must inevitably be detected unless he hides himself in some way.

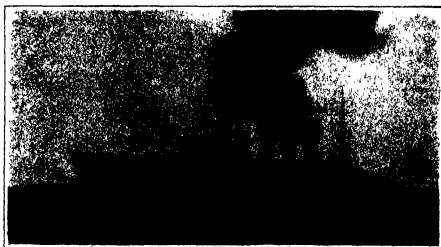
In the Boer War the first systematic attempt at concealment was made in modern warfare. It was then that khaki first came into general use. Since that time there has been a general adoption of olive or drab for uniforms. The gaudy trappings, the shining epaulettes, the bright-colored trousers and coats that we associate with the



German traction engines masquerading as trees so as to avoid detection.



Uhlans dyeing a white horse, so that he may blend better with the landscape and meet the military requirements that nature fails to observe. Army horses are also painted white to blend with the snow.



The "Emden" had three smokestacks. Her captain added a dummy fourth smokestack immediately behind the foremost so as to deceive his pursuers as well as the captains of the ships that he was chasing.

from the tall grasses and saplings among which he more habitually stands. Bird hunters know how difficult it is to discover grouse and partridge because of their bark-like coloring. So perfect is this adaptation of an animal to its environment that we even find colors changing with the seasons. Almost every Arctic animal changes from brown to white as winter approaches, and some species of fishes seem to have the ability of changing their color not only with the seasons, but to suit the particular character of bottom upon which they happen to be lying at the moment.



An Austrian detachment of infantry mounted on skis and clad in white, so that they will blend with the snow.

soldier have disappeared, at least in battle. Red cloth and gold trimmings are seen only in parades and in comic opera. In the present war, for example, the Germans and Austrians are taking particular pains not only to dress themselves in uniforms of neutral tints, but even to conceal buttons and the metal decorations of helmets. The French army is the only one that still adheres to the old traditions. Some of its dragoon regiments still wear the old French bicorne and plumed helmet. Red trousers, too, have not yet been abolished. Still, the new

(Continued on page 125.)



Fig. 1.—The rocket ready for firing.

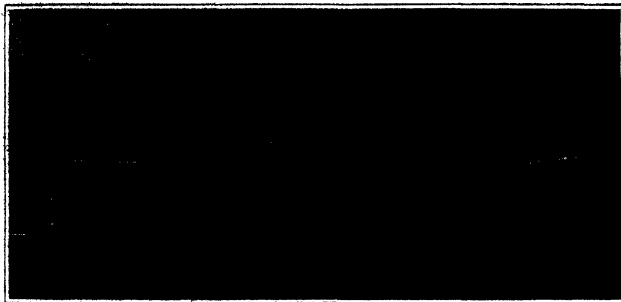


Fig. 2.—The rocket camera and its accessories. The whole apparatus can be carried on a small hand-cart and easily taken to the front.



Fig. 3.—At the instant of discharge.

The Military Rocket Camera

Shooting a Photographic Camera into the Sky to Take Pictures of an Enemy's Position

A DRESDEN engineer named Maul has succeeded, after twelve years of experiment, in putting the rocket into the service of military photography. Maul's apparatus and its operation are thus described in a recent issue of *Kosmos*.

Fig. 2 gives a general view of the apparatus, with the rocket in the foreground. The conical cap contains the camera, which takes a picture 19 centimeters (7.1 inches) square. The cylindrical head contains the charge of powder. The long shaft prevents the rocket overturning in the air and the crossed vanes at the rear prevent rotation about the axis of the rocket. During the flight, therefore, the camera continues to face the direction in which it was aimed before starting. In order to make rotation quite impossible the camera is also provided with a gyrostaf, which comes into operation automatically when the rocket is fired. The exposure is made by an electro-pneumatic device, which is operated by a small galvanic battery and acts at the moment when the rocket attains the highest point of its flight.

Immediately after the exposure a parachute, which is attached to the camera and packed between it and the rocket head, opens, and the camera is detached from the rocket, but remains connected with it by a cord about 33 feet long. The result is that the whole apparatus falls slowly until the rocket strikes the ground. The parachute, thus relieved of the greater part of its load, then descends still more slowly and brings the camera to earth without shock. (Fig. 5.)

The apparatus, it will be observed, is quite complicated, but its operation is very simple. As the rocket is about 20 feet long and weighs more than 50 pounds, it must be discharged from a support, which is shown in the background of Fig. 2. The support is provided with sights by means of which it is aimed in the desired direction. The rocket is next placed in the horizontal support, which is then turned, on its trunnions, into the vertical position. (Fig. 1.)

The rocket is now ready for firing, which is done by electricity. The first current applied sets the gyrostaf into action. The second current ignites the charge, which is sufficient to carry the rocket to an elevation of about 2,000 feet in 8 seconds. (Fig. 3.) The exposure, the opening of the parachute and the detachment of the camera follow in rapid succession, and in about a minute the apparatus comes safely to earth not far from its starting point.

The sharpness of the pictures thus obtained is illustrated by the view of Lausnitz which is reproduced in Fig. 4. The whole apparatus is carried on a small hand-cart, which can easily be taken to the front, and the rocket is in little danger of being shot down in its brief flight. Its great military value, therefore, is self-evident, and will probably receive many practical demonstrations in the present war.

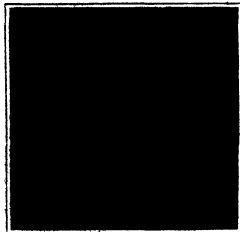


Fig. 4.—A view of Lausnitz, Saxony, obtained by a rocket camera at an elevation of 2,000 feet.

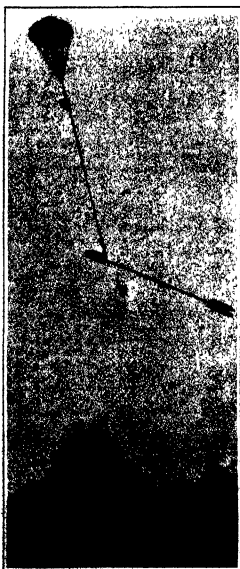


Fig. 5.—The descent.

cries. During the first three months of the war, it was not even thought necessary to control the trade by any special emergency laws, such as those now voted.

Dr. Rubner cautioned his hearers against the waste of food materials which, he said, was going on on an unthought-of scale. He has ascertained that in many households 20 to 25 per cent of the meal is left uneaten on the plates, and that even prisoners will sometimes leave 3 to 30 per cent of their food unused. In the Berlin hospital there are, for instance, 20 grammes of grease per head of the population flowing away each day, which is derived from the rinsing water of the kitchens, and since this grease cannot be recovered, a valuable material is thus wasted. Another striking fact brought out by everyday observation is how much bread is cut into but left uneaten in the German restaurants. In fact, the population itself could, to a great extent, contribute to an adequate utilization of food articles, if only the amounts actually to be used were prepared, and if anything left uneaten were utilized in some way or other.

A great waste is, in Germany, made of grease, even fat cheese or fat must being, as a rule, eaten with butter. If everybody in the country would reduce his or her consumption only by one gramme a day, about 25,000 tons of butter less would be used each year. These instances could, of course, be multiplied. An adequate utilization and economic consumption of the principal articles of food thus affords a means of preventing many perplexities.

The State, of course, will have to control consumption on a far greater scale by the emergency laws recently voted. The fixing of maximum prices for the principal articles of food is based on an accurate census of available stocks. Another necessary measure is the granting of proper facilities for the import of materials needed for cattle feeding, and of materials such as milk, milk products and corn from neutral countries. German agriculture, on the whole, produces enough animal food, so that no serious difficulties need be feared as far as milk, meat, and eggs are concerned.

Special attention is being paid to the securing of a sufficient supply of bread and potatoes. In order to provide for a safe bread supply, the corn should be ground out more thoroughly, nor should any bread corn be used for the distilling of brandy. Since the potato crop has been satisfactory, care need only be taken to avoid any losses by drying. While some important products, such as rice, lentils, cocoa, bananas, may become scarce or be wanting altogether, these could readily be made up for by supplying proper substitutes, without in the least endangering the health of the population. In fact, the lecturer was confident that, provided all available possibilities be used, no serious difficulty would arise in the food problem.

Determining the Polarity of a Magnet.—A very simple and effective method of determining the polarity of the parts of a magnet system has been used with success by Dr. E. Rosenberg in place of a compass, with which there is always considerable danger of reversal by strong fields. This new device consists of a search coil having 500 turns, and a resistance of 15 ohms, wound on an iron bar 63 millimeters in length and 10 millimeters diameter. The coil is connected with a millivoltmeter, the deflection of which indicates the polarity of the part when the apparatus is brought up to and quickly removed from the part to be tested. It is said that this device is so sensitive that it will indicate the polarity of the commutating poles of a machine due to the remanent magnetism.

Feeding the German Nation in Time of War

By Our Berlin Correspondent

IN a recent lecture, Dr. Rubner, director of the Physiological Institute of Berlin University, drew attention to the importance of the alimentation bill voted at the Prussian Parliament, from the point of view of dietician physiology.

Immediately after mobilization there was a popular belief that a dearth of food was bound soon to take place, and most housewives thought it a wise plan to lay up as comprehensive stores as possible of some of the principal articles. However, the timely measures of the government in fixing maximum prices effectively prevented such a

Aircraft Artillery and Bomb-Dropping

The Value of High-Angle Fire

By Carl Dienstbach

THE European war has already shed some light on the much-disputed question, How destructive are heavy bombs dropped from dirigibles? If we compare the effect of Zeppelin bombs and of heavy artillery shells—a comparison easily effected with the aid of photographs which have been published—it is impossible to detect a noticeable difference. This is as it should be, for after all there is nothing to prevent a Zeppelin from dropping a bomb in every respect identical with the shell fired from a 42-centimeter mortar. The Zeppelin bomb-droppers, however, seem to have missed their mark. They hit private houses instead of the arsenals and stations at which their terrible missiles were directed, which does not speak well for a successful solution of the ballistic problem involved in bomb-dropping, all the more remarkable because the problem is, after all, essentially easy.

The horizontal momentum of the bomb, derived from the ship's proper motion, is negligible, and the trajectory of the heavy mass much the same as if it had fallen in a vacuum. Artillery practice has shown that sighting instruments may be depended upon if the ballistic problem has not been obscured by the vicissitudes of air resistance. It may therefore be assumed that the marksmen in Zeppelins missed their targets because they had read their altitude badly, as well as the speed of their craft over the ground at the true vertical direction. Of these three elements, speed is most difficult to determine when a Zeppelin is trying to dodge artillery by following a zigzag course. Moreover, a plumb line as an indicator of direction could not be depended upon when the course is thus constantly changed. Coupled with these difficulties is the fact that a searchlight can be used only intermittently in the dark, and speed measurements become still more difficult.

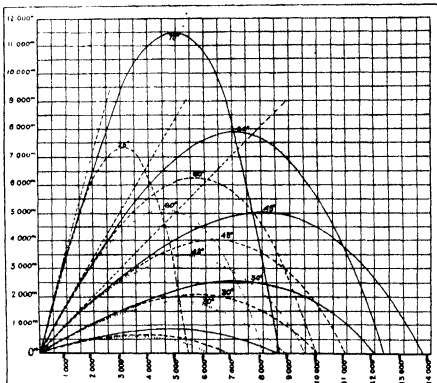
While there is unquestionably some dodging of special balloon guns which are in use by all the armies—pieces which combine the high initial velocity and quick aiming ability of the field gun with the ability to fire upward at steep angles—there are not enough of them to explain in this way the failure of the Zeppelins to inflict the destruction popularly expected of them. Mortars, too, are fired at high angles, but mortars and howitzers are hardly suited for repelling aircraft, because their low initial velocity demands that they be aimed far ahead of the airship. Hitting the target thus becomes guesswork. Besides, their system of sighting is not adapted to be shifted rapidly, so as to cover a quickly moving target, which is to be expected of siege artillery firing at an immovable object. Were this not so, their superiority over field guns as a means of repelling aircraft would be overwhelming. Were it possible to fire vertically upward, no aircraft could escape a fair marksmen. This applies to field guns as well, for they cannot be elevated much above 15 degrees and attain high altitudes only when the range is great. The trajectory of an ideal gun for the repulsion of aircraft would be practically a straight line, for the wind has but little effect on the projectiles fired from artillery of fairly heavy caliber, and the drift from the rifling shrinks with the flattening of the trajectory. As it is, the more the sighting line approaches the vertical, the more is the trajectory flattened. A mortar could not take full advantage of this fact, because low initial velocity curtails the range of those high angles at which the trajectory still approximates a straight line.

With balloon guns all this is very different. Their initial velocity has been increased in order to strike the airship

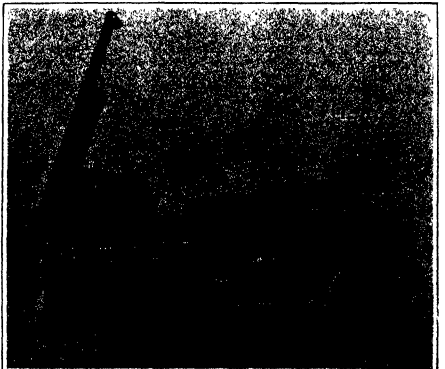


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Machine guns mounted by the Germans for airship attack.



Full lines represent trajectories of 4-inch naval gun; weight of projectile, 34 pounds; greatest elevation, 75 degrees. Broken lines represent trajectories of 3-inch automobile gun; weight of projectile, 13 pounds; greatest elevation, 75 degrees. Dotted lines represent trajectories of 2½-inch field gun; weight of projectile, 9 pounds; greatest elevation, 60 degrees.



A French anti-airship gun.

before it has time to move from the point at which it was sighted. The hayman is liable to underestimate the height to which even the lightest cannon, aimed more or less vertically, easily sends its projectile. Thus H. G. Wells, in his famous novel, "The War in the Air," conveniently but incorrectly assumed that airships simply rise above the range whenever they please. This is hardly possible, even with rides, whose trajectory is markedly affected by the wind, but which nevertheless enjoy the quality of superior mobility with the ability to shoot vertically. To rise above high angle cannon range would mean the death of the crew from lack of air. Even if the craft were capable of rising above the immense height reached by balloon guns, it goes without saying that the flatter the trajectory the less dependent is the gunner on his range finder. And range finding is proverbially difficult with aerial targets.

With proper aerial sights two high-powered cannon firing upward with an infinitesimal difference in adjustment at an angle of about 50 degrees could not possibly miss an airship between them, even if they knew absolutely nothing about its distance or altitude. Any possible location of the ship would be in the line of at least one of the two fire projectiles. No wonder that a German paper recently reported that only by means of balloon guns was a regiment protected from aeroplanes, busily engaged in giving the range to artillery and dropping down bombs and steel arrows. Field guns are handicapped not only because their projectiles reach high altitudes only at great ranges, but also because the trajectory's curve increases with the range. If that trajectory is to include the location of an airship, the range must be exactly known. Difficult as this task is, field guns have repeatedly scored hits against aeroplanes, which overboardly descended in order to make important observations to levels at which they could be reached at more or less normal ranges. This was made possible by the use of self-contained range finders, the altitudes being deduced directly from the range combined with the angle of sight. Rough spotting by observing the clouds of bursting shrapnel as well as the great numbers of guns with tentative different sights made the feat possible. In this connection it must be stated that balloon guns firing at low angles would be no better than field guns.

It is worthy of consideration that if the deadly accuracy of high angle fire will soon render bomb-dropping as risky as torpedoing a battleship in daylight, much may be expected of light cannon which are now mounted on Zeppelins to repel aeroplanes, and which may be directed against targets on the ground from a great distance. If the ship is kept at a constant altitude, by means of a telescope, for instance, it may be easily steered around the target at an unchanging distance by maintaining the sights at the same angle to the vertical. Spotting from above is then easily possible. Indeed, the conditions may be said to be ideal. The range could be found much more quickly than from below. Zeppelins are perfectly steady gun platforms. Although the destructive effect of small shells is infinitely less than that of heavy bombs, even admitting that the high-velocity 2-inch and 3-inch shells have penetrated nine inches of wrought iron, the aerial marksmen, for whom everything is helplessly accessible and unprotected, are able to apply a slight pressure at the most sensitive spot where it hurts as such or more as the most terrible blow delivered at random. Indeed, this game resembles one somewhat of the ften, in which every-

thing depends on hitting exactly one small but vital spot. The likeness to this Oriental art appears complete, because speed spells success, not only in getting the range, but also in running in and out of range so quickly that an accurate burst of rapid fire is delivered and a safe distance reached again before the gunners below have time to find the ship's range. Far from making them easy targets, the growing use of modern Zeppelins insures safety by increasing speed.

Random Reflections

By "Irresponsible"

AN unassuming, pleasant, when one has acquired a taste for it, is to study the various systems of classification of the sciences that have been propounded. It is amusing, not so much because there is anything funny in lists of long names arranged on the pattern of the genealogical tree of a royal family, but for the light thrown upon the mental habits of the compilers. It is, I think, very interesting to get people summed up according to their intellectual characteristics, and I do not think the occupation is sufficiently popular. Of course, we all divide people into classes, but we usually adopt such inadequate and misleading criteria. In Europe men used to be divided up according to the social rank of their fathers—a simple scheme which has since given place to the equally simple but inadequate American test of money. The objection to both schemes is that they tell us nothing of the mental faculties of the individuals. Of course, we all divide people into classes, but we usually adopt such inadequate and misleading criteria. In Europe men used to be divided up according to the social rank of their fathers—a simple scheme which has since given place to the equally simple but inadequate American test of money. The objection to both schemes is that they tell us nothing of the mental faculties of the individuals.

For instance, my knowledge of biology is of the slightest, but I know that the number of legs possessed by different members of the animal kingdom varies enormously. Birds have two legs, and I believe some kinds of worms have a dozen or more. In the unlikely event of my being called upon to divide the animal kingdom into classes, I might classify animals according to the number of their legs. I should lump dogs and elephants together, and probably unite under my system two kinds of multi-legged worms which to the horrified biologist were quite frantically different, so that neither Darwin nor anybody else could work out the evolution of my species. My system would be simple enough, but it would be very misleading. I don't know whether there are any creatures with more than one hundred legs, but anyhow, taking one hundred as a maximum, I should not have more than one hundred divisions for the whole animal kingdom. The gain in simplicity cannot be denied, for I suppose the biologists have more than one hundred different kinds of bugs alone on their present system. And yet I don't suppose that Huxley or Haeckel or any of those people would find my system help them much.

In just the same manner those of us who are interested in our fellow men do not find the present generally adopted classification scheme help us much. The average business man divides other people roughly into three classes: those who get as much money as he does, those who get more, and those who get less. It's simple, but it doesn't tell us anything. People might just as well be divided up like boxers, according to their weights. There are better schemes than this, although I suppose that the ideal scheme, estimating people according to their value to the community, is still a long way from being completely worked out. But in the absence of the ideal scheme, a scheme based upon moral and intellectual characteristics is at least much more satisfactory than the money standard. By intellectual characteristics I don't mean so much varying degrees of cleverness as varying types of intelligence. William James talks about "tender-minded" and "tough-minded" people, and in "The New Machiavelli" H. G. Wells has written a novel largely exemplifying that difference. It is this difference, a difference in the fundamental texture of the mind, which is so much more significant than any variations in ability to solve mathematical equations, to compose prize poems, or to run a business. The tough-minded person is primarily, intuitive and (perhaps); loyal to ideas and instincts,

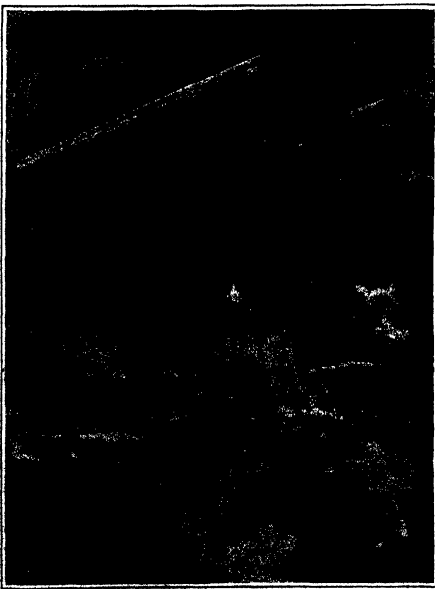
emotional and scheming. The tender-minded person is logical, refined and secondary; loyal to people and persons, sentimental and faithful. Within these broad distinctions there is room for a hundred subtleties, but it may be asserted with some confidence that each one of us does, as a whole, belong to one or other of these two classes. Recognizing these two main divisions, it is



A German anti-airship gun.

exceedingly interesting to notice the varying characteristics of the various members of the same group, to notice how their whole outlook on life, their behavior in different circumstances, their moral judgments, their religious views, are connected with the fundamental characteristics of their class. It is a system of classification which really tells us something.

I started by saying something about the classifications of the sciences, and from that I branched off to consider how human beings could be classified. The impression one gets by reading a number of systems which have been proposed for classifying the sciences is that it is meaningless to talk about a final and satisfactory scheme. It so entirely depends on the point of view. Attempts have been made to classify the sciences in the order of their logical dependence on one another. That is all right if you want to regard them from that point of view. Other attempts have been made to classify them according to the mental faculties exercised in their study. Thus, Francis Bacon classified human knowledge into that dependent upon memory, upon imagination, and upon reason. That is another point of view. One might classify them according to their value to the community, or according to the esthetic beauty of their results.



By courtesy of (London) Laidly & Co.

From a painting by Hans R. Böhler

A bomb-dropping Zeppelin in action.

French Power Wagon Trials Interrupted

LAST year's trials of power wagons, which were to have been held, as usual, in France, from June 25th to August 8th, under the general direction of the War Department, came to an unexpected end. In fact, the war broke out just as the power cars were being put through their trial trips, so that the whole collection of cars was immediately put under requisition by the military authorities. This gave the army a timely reinforcement in the shape of an excellent set of 112 power cars, all in perfect shape, coming from the nineteen constructors who were represented. Speaking of this year's cars, an innovation for 1914 consisted in a new class of vehicles called "colonial" cars, in which the parts were especially well protected from dust and water. The wheels are 2 feet 4 inches diameter, or over, and carry tires of rubber tires. For this type, auto builders had entered a total of nineteen cars. Such vehicles will no doubt do excellent service in the war operations in which they are now engaged. A number of builders have given up the chain drive and have adopted the shaft drive since this year as being of a simpler character. As an example of the kind of power wagons presented on this occasion in subdivided military types, a few are noted. The Panhard works sent four cars with the following specifications: Weight empty, 3,470, 3,500, 4,930, 4,900 (long) tons. Weight loaded, 6,510, 6,555, 7,400, 7,350 tons. Motors, in the first case, 42-horse and 56-horse stroke. Last two, 61-horse, 60-horse, 61-horse stroke. Last two, 61-horse, 60-horse, 61-horse stroke. La Hulst, two cars. Weight empty, 2,830 and 2,540 tons, loaded, 4,715 and 4,775 tons. Motor, 32-horse and 54-horse stroke. The Peugeot cars use a smaller size motor of 48-horse and 61-horse stroke, and a weight empty from 2,000 to 3,200 tons, and from 4 to 6 tons loaded. In the larger size the motor is 42-horse, 42-horse, 42-horse stroke. 814 cars were entered. All of these wagons are built to run on any of the usual fuels, such as gasoline, benzol and carbureted alcohol, and the tests were to be made with each fuel in turn. Tests also included trials of towing trailers, braking, cable winches and the like. Of the constructors represented, De Dion, Arie, and Schneider are also engaged in making special armored cars for the war, or other types for searchlights, aeroplane guns, etc.

Altering the Sex of Date Palm Seedlings

NUMEROUS articles have appeared from time to time in botanical and horticultural journals in regard to the alleged ability of Arab cultivators to change the sex of seedling date palms, especially from male to female. Several methods have been mentioned. One grower claims that if the seedlings are transplanted at two years old the number of females is at least doubled. Another says that if certain tubercles found on the roots are removed the plant becomes female. Yet another account has it that if the seeds from dates that have been eaten be sown, the seeds presumably being scraped by the teeth more males result. Undoubted seeds give a prodigious number of females. The usual story, however, is that male seedlings may be converted into female by splitting the leaves lengthwise. Recently the authorities of Kew Garden have addressed inquiries regarding the veracity of these reports to horticulturists living in Egypt and Algiers, and although the investigation is not yet complete, no confirmation of the reports has been obtained. The subject is not of great practical importance, for the reason that dates are rarely raised from seed, but generally from offshoots, and no one claims to be able to alter the sex of the latter.

Plants Injured by Smoke and Dust.

V. Salschinsky has investigated the effect of sulphuric acid in the air on pollen and on the development of grain in wheat. Atmospheres containing known quantities of this substance were drawn over open flowers and growing heads of wheat. It was found that 1/10,000 of sulphuric acid drawn over flowers for twenty-four hours completely prevented seed from forming, while more than 1/10,000 was fatal to the reproductive power of pollen. These and other experiments seemed to show that the reproductive organs of plants are especially susceptible to the injurious effects of sulphuric acid.

Doing Without Europe—II

How the War Has Affected Our Mineral and Metal Industries and How We May Profit

In the foregoing article of this series it was pointed out that we could not hope to compete with Germany in foreign markets, despite the opportunities presented by the war, unless Congress is willing to co-operate with our manufacturing companies, unless American business men can count upon the same kind of governmental support which has made Germany a great exporter of goods. But Government co-operation must extend even farther. Scientific research must be conducted in some fields of a kind that cannot be expected from any private enterprise—scientific research which will enable us to make the most of our wonderful mineral resources.

Our mineral and metal markets have suffered because of the war. Why? Simply because we have been in the habit of exporting our ores to Europe, only to re-import them as immensely more valuable manufactured products. No doubt this anomaly may be safely attributed to the convenience of the proceeding as well as to the richness of our resources, but part of it may also be attributed to the lack of support which the Government has given the capitalist who invests his money in mines and smelters.

Next to the products of our land our mineral resources are our most valuable assets. But mines, unlike farms, must be developed by capitalists, and capitalists are not a class in high favor just now. Compared with the vast sums spent on agriculture by the Government, appropriations made to develop our mining industry are meager indeed. The Bureau of Mines, for example, spends annually \$500,000 a year on research intended to improve mining methods—exactly the sum which it costs the Department of Agriculture to print and bind its numerous publications. We waste \$1,000,000 a day, according to the last report of the Bureau of Mines, by poor mining and metallurgical methods. In the mining of 900,000,000 tons of coal during the last calendar year, there was wasted or was left under ground in unminable condition 300,000,000 tons of coal. As the result of a careful preliminary inquiry, the Bureau of Mines states that more than one half (200,000,000 tons of coal) of this yearly waste is preventable under existing economic conditions. But the bare statement of enormous losses does not express the most important part of the situation, which is that the coal we are now using and wasting represents the cream of our supplies, namely, the coal most cheaply and readily mined and nearest the great centers of industry. To discover more efficient methods of mining, to reduce this waste without seriously increasing the cost of the coal to the consumer, should be one object of scientific investigation which the Bureau of Mines should conduct. Small as the cost of the investigation would be, if compared with the importance of the end sought, Congress refuses to take any substantial interest in the inquiry. For general reserves and other reasons to aid the farmer \$22,410,000 was appropriated last year, for stellar work in mining only \$1,967,000 was appropriated. Yet each worker in the mines contributes \$1,800 annually to our national wealth, and each worker on a farm only \$840.

Why We Must Study Coal Mining Scientifically.

Mind you, this question of mining coal economically and efficiently has a direct bearing on the problem of becoming industrially independent of Europe. We are constantly reminded that European labor costs are lower than ours. But no one reminds us that our coal—the power that runs our factories—is cheaper than the cheapest European fuel. Thus we may offer a cheap item of European exports with a cheap item of American expense. If we are to continue our haphazard, extravagant, reckless method of mining coal we simply lessen our industrial opportunity. Our coal resources are not inexhaustible, yet we exploit them as carelessly as if we would always have them. To meet European competition successfully and permanently we must begin with a scientific method of increasing our greatest strength.

This also applies to the development of a healthy metallurgical industry. For lack of Government assistance some of our mines have declined alarmingly. In 1906 Colorado, Montana, and Idaho produced gold, silver, copper, and lead worth \$29,174,000. In 1910 the same states produced \$251,000,000 worth of the same metals. In 1900 Colorado employed 40,000 miners; in 1910, only 14,000. In 1906 Montana employed 35,000; in 1910, only 14,000. In 1906 Idaho employed 7,000; in 1910, only 6,000. In Colorado, in 1900, the precious metal production amounted to \$50,000,000; in 1910, \$22,000,000. This is a reason for this. The days of business mining are over, and we are now down to the treatment of low-grade ores which were as valued in character as the faces of humanity. In the Rocky Mountains are millions of tons of these ores worth bil-

This is the second of a series of articles on the opportunities created by the war for American manufacturers. It deals with our mineral and metal industries—large industries, in a word, which have suffered more severely than others because of the war. Instead of working up our minerals and metals for our own markets, we have sold them to Europe and bought them back in manufactured form. In this article, based on a study made by the United States Geological Survey, as well as on inquiries of our own, we show how this economic policy has crippled us and how the more rational policy of establishing our own industries may now be adopted. As in the selling of goods to foreigners in the face of German competition, we need Government co-operation here, not in the form of sympathetic and intelligent legislation as in research conducted on a large scale.—Barrows.

lions of dollars. How best to utilize them is a problem beyond the reach of private capacity, except in rare instances where great corporations have developed processes of their own. The Federal Government must be turned to for help.

The National Government has spent on the agricultural, coal and oil, and stations about \$70,000,000, and now spends nearly \$4,000,000 upon them annually. Congress appropriates annually \$15,000,000 for carrying on the exclusively agricultural work of the Department of Agriculture. Our great mining industry receives only a total of \$2,000,000.

What the Government has thus far done to foster industrial research—displays no keen appreciation of the part that the chemist, the metallurgist, the trained technologist can play in developing our national industries. We need more federal institutions like the Bureau of Standards, the Bureau of Mines and the Agricultural Experiment Stations, we need a systematic exploitation of our scientific brains. All this can be obtained only by Government aid; all this is vitally necessary if we are to develop industrially so that we may compete successfully with Germany after the war is over.

How the War Has Affected the Metal Markets.

The United States Geological Survey has shown how profoundly our metal markets have been affected by the war. And well it may. We have only to pick up the newspapers in order to discover how the copper and steel industries have suffered. But copper and steel are not our only metallurgical assets. There are others. The examination that has been made by Mr. George Otis Smith of the United States Geological Survey shows how wonderful is our opportunity in the scientific exploitation of our mineral resources if we would only seize it. In the following paragraphs his studies will be summarized.

The only essential minerals of the first rank of which the United States has no known supply at all commensurate with its needs are nitrates, potash salts, tin, nickel, and platinum, the last thus comprising two essential mineral fertilizers and three very useful metals.

A Chance to Make Money in Tin.

In his study of our mineral reserves Mr. George Otis Smith cites the tin situation as one that offers splendid opportunities.

One known American deposit of tin is small. The benefit which the United States may obtain from the present situation is the establishment of a tin smelter in this country in which to smelt Bolivian tin ores and such small output of American ore as is produced.

At the present time between 30,000 and 40,000 tons of tin concentrates, carrying more than 20,000 tons of oxide tin, are shipped each year from Bolivia to Europe for smelting. The United States imported several times that amount of metallic tin last year and would easily absorb all the tin smelted from the Bolivian ore. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that the smelting of Bolivian ores presents no difficulties that American metallurgists can not readily overcome. Oxide tin, as the Bolivian ores will now be easier to buy, and if ships can be found to carry the ore an opportunity seems to be presented for Americans to begin purchasing ores that have hitherto gone to Europe.

The order of the Canadian government prohibiting the export of nickel to enemies of Great Britain may induce American capitalists to develop what little nickel we have, all the more so since there has been a remarkable expansion in the applications of nickel during the last few years. What little nickel we do pro-

duce is a by-product in the electrolytic refining of copper. Most of our nickel comes from Ontario.

Over 90 per cent of the world's output of platinum is contributed by Russia. While it is unlikely that we will ever be able to compete with Russia as a platinum producing country, there is every reason to suppose that we may substitute alloys for platinum in the industries. A few years ago, for example, platinum was used for the lead-in wires of electric incandescent lamps. Thanks to industrial research, the experts of the General Electric Company devised an alloy which has the same coefficient of expansion as glass, with the result that the modern incandescent electric lamp has been considerably cheapened in price without in the least impairing its efficiency. Here we have an indication of what may perhaps be accomplished in other industries, by employing scientifically trained men.

Iron and Copper—Two Metals With Opportunities.

It might be supposed by the casual reader that we are quite independent so far as iron and copper are concerned. As a matter of fact, our imports of iron ore are double our exports, but of metallic copper we export nearly twice as much as we import. According to the Geological Survey, the imports of manufactured or partly manufactured metals, as a general rule, largely exceed in value the ore and crude metals brought into this country for domestic manufacture, and in our exports a somewhat similar ratio exists between crude material and manufactures. Obviously there is presented a double opportunity for increasing the scope and extent of our metal industries for both domestic consumption and export. Far too much American metal crosses the Atlantic in the crude or semi-crude state, only to come back to us in various manufactured forms.

A serious phase of the interruption to commerce caused by the European war is the shutting off of the foreign supply of ferro-manganese from the steel manufacturers of this country. England and Germany have furnished most of these imported alloys in recent years. By far the greater part of the ferro-manganese produced in the United States is manufactured by steel companies for their own consumption, so that those manufacturers who have heretofore depended upon foreign supplies must either make arrangements to purchase the needed alloys from other domestic companies or else enter the field as producers themselves. "In either event," says Mr. Smith, "much more ferro-manganese may have to be manufactured in the United States if the foreign supplies are cut off for any considerable period." Added impetus has thus been given to certain projects which are under way for the utilization of our own manganese iron ore.

The War Has Crippled the European Smelting Industry.

As Mr. Smith points out, the great smelting centers of Continental Europe happen to lie in regions where active fighting is now going on or may be expected in the near future. The smelters of France will probably suffer from scarcity of labor as the employees are called to the colors and from derangements of transportation. The same is true of the zinc smelters in England; but those of Austria-Hungary will, of course, be put out of commission. From these observations it can be seen that the zinc-smelting industry of Europe will be in a badly demoralized condition while the war continues and for some time thereafter.

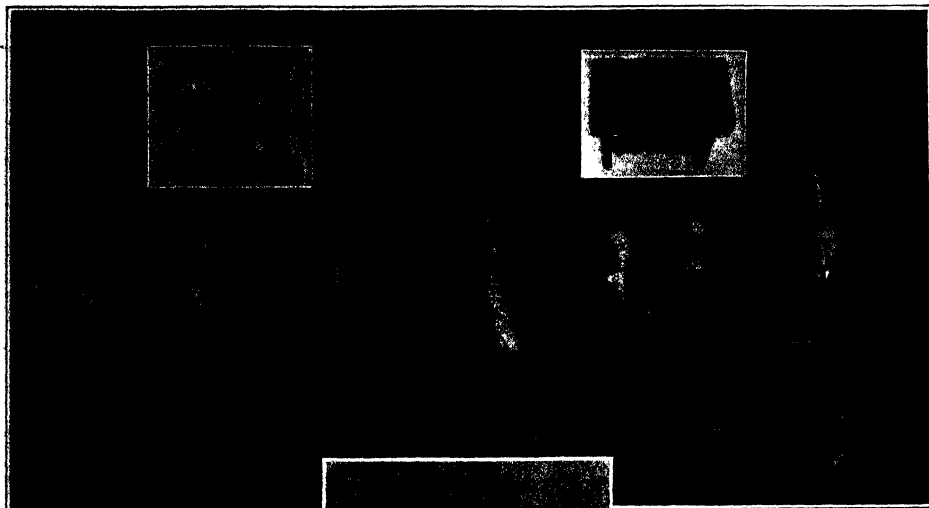
Mr. Smith, therefore, concludes that "if the war continues for one year, the output of these countries for that period would, at a conservative estimate, be only about 250,000 tons—a loss of nearly 800,000 tons for the year. The continental smelter market will also be demoralized, however, so it may be that the reduced production will still be ample. Apparently England's industrial activities after the first readjustments are over may not be seriously restricted."

If an extensive business of smelting foreign zinc in bond should grow up it would probably be found desirable to build special smelters for that work at tidewater in the vicinity of New York city, convenient to fuel supplies and acid markets and to water transportation to Mexico and through the Panama Canal to British Columbia and Australia. This business could be done only at the expense of domestic production of zinc ore, for the present domestic production more than equals the apparent domestic consumption as smelter and as zinc oxide and bids fair to exceed it greatly in a year or two unless consumption is increased by the development of export trade in manufactured zinc and galvanized-iron products.

(To be continued.)

Across the Continent by Telephone

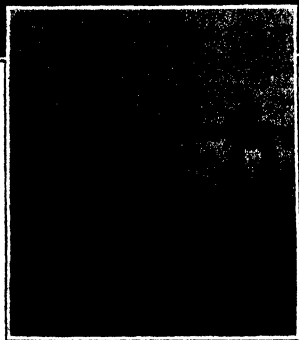
The First Telephone Message Repeated on a 3,400 Mile Extension of the First Telephone Line



Just after the first trans-continental telephone message had been sent, Dr. Alexander Graham Bell at the center with prominent telephone and New York city officials.

THIRTY-NINE years ago, in his bedroom in a Boston boarding house, Alexander Graham Bell picked up a crude telephone transmitter and cried: "Mr. Watson, come here; I want you"; Thomas A. Watson, in the adjoining room, listening at the other end of the wire, heard the first sentences ever transmitted by telephone and, full of excitement, burst into the bedroom to congratulate his associate. Last week, over the same wire, and with a replica of the old instrument, Dr. Bell again called up Mr. Watson. But this time Bell was in New York, in the office of the president of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, and a whole continent separated him from his former associate. To that 100-foot wire that had carried the feeble, ill-formed electrical pulsations of the first spoken message, 6,800 miles of hard-drawn copper wire had been added, bringing New York and San Francisco within talking distance of each other.

Thus was the first transcontinental telephone line introduced to the world. It was the most dramatic moment in the life of the eminent inventor. He had lived to see his invention achieve a triumph far exceeding his wildest dreams, and he was so affected by the actual realization of the feat that the words he had prepared to speak were forgotten and he conversed with Mr. Watson quite extemporaneously. After Dr. Bell had opened the transcontinental line, connection was made with Washington, and President Wilson talked



Pole setting across Humboldt Lake.

via New York with the president of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, in San Francisco. This was a 3,000 mile conversation, but it was far exceeded when the line was extended to Jekyll Island, off the Georgia coast, whence Theodore N. Vail, president of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, sent his voice to San Francisco by way of New York, a distance of 4,300 miles. Later even this record was smashed when he had a 4,750-mile talk with San Francisco by way of Boston. The first long-distance line was built in 1876 and

On the table may be seen the replica of the first transmitter, and in the glass case is the original telephone line. The original transmitter is also pictured in the inset.

stretched from Boston to Cambridge, a distance of two miles. In 1882 Boston and Providence were linked together over a line 45 miles long. In 1884 New York was able to talk with Boston for the first time, over a 235-mile circuit. New York and Chicago were linked by the telephone in 1885, a distance of 600 miles, and in 1911 this line had been extended to Denver, a distance of 2,100 miles. Two years later Salt Lake City had been reached, 2,000 miles away, and now New York is in touch with San Francisco, 3,400 miles away.

There are four wires on this transcontinental line, providing two physical circuits and one phantom. It will be understood, one physical circuit or pair of wires serves as the sending conductor, and the other pair as the return of the phantom circuit. The photographs on this page show some of the difficulties encountered in carrying the line over plain and mountain, through forest and swamp, over rivers and lakes. One hundred and thirty thousand poles support the line, which consists of 5,920,000 pounds of hard drawn copper wire 0.165 inch in diameter, that is, No. 8 B. W. G. However, the mere setting of the poles and spinning the copper threads across the continent presented no serious problem. True, much hardship was encountered, and the cost was enormous, but it might just as well have been done years ago, when the first transcontinental telegraph line was built. In the telegraph line an isolated

(Continued on page 134)



Setting bases for telephone poles in the shallow Humboldt Lake, Nevada.



Buried to the cross arms. Railroad snowshed in the background.

The Maxim Machine Gun and Its Construction

THE basic idea of a multiple, or rapid fire, gun, of the class now generally known as machine guns, is probably as old as the history of guns themselves. There is an old Chinese double-barreled gun in existence, which according to the inscription, was made in 1007, each barrel of which is provided with three vent holes so spaced that there is room for a charge of powder and a bullet between each vent. By this arrangement three shots could be rapidly discharged from each barrel, thus constituting a true rapid fire gun. Since the time of this weapon many devices having the same object have been designed, but the first weapon that proved actually practical was the multi-barreled gun invented in America during the civil war by Dr. Gatling. This gun was operated by hand power and was capable, in its improved form, of firing over a thousand shots a minute. It may be remarked that the original French mitrailleuse so often referred to, was never very successful.

The modern machine gun has but a single barrel, and is, in its most improved form, entirely automatic in its action; that is, after the first shot has been fired it will continue to fire at a very rapid rate, all of the necessary operations of loading and firing being worked by either the recoil or by the pressure of the exploding gases within the barrel. While guns of the semi-automatic type have been made in fairly large sizes, the true machine gun is an automatic gun built to take only the regular service rifle cartridge used by the troops, and these guns operate at speeds of from 400 to about 1,000 shots a minute, depending largely on the size of the charge of explosive in the cartridge.

Parts of Maxim Automatic Machine Gun With Tripod

THIS IS ONE OF AN ENLARGED SET OF THE ACCOMPANYING DRAWING.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Handle block | 24. Firing pin |
| 2. Firing trigger | 25. Lock frame |
| 3. Trigger pin | 26. Main spring |
| 4. Trigger spring | 27. Lock frame filler piece |
| 5. Safety catch to prevent accidental discharge | 28. Tail spring |
| 6. Handle block pin | 29. Gib spring |
| 7. Trigger bar | 30. Carrier |
| 8. Cover catch | 31. Feed box slide |
| 9. Cover catch spring | 32. Feed box |
| 10. Cover catch spring | 33. Barrel |
| 11. Cover catch guide | 34. Tripod block |
| 12. Outside plate, left | 35. Bottom plate |
| 13. Sight rack | 36. Ejector tube spring |
| 14. Sight spring | 37. Recoil plug |
| 15. Sight spring | 38. Inside slide |
| 16. Rear sight, complete | 39. Tripod with |
| 17. Upper guide block | 40. Water jacket for cooling barrel |
| 18. Cover | 41. Front sight complete |
| 19. Recoil plate, left | 42. Front plug |
| 20. Crank | 43. Water jacket cap |
| 21. Crosshead | 44. Nozzle |
| 22. Tripod | 45. Barrel disk |
| 23. Hand gear | 46. Water plug for emptying |

PARTS OF TRIPOD

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| 47. Upper elevating pin | 58. Strap for binding tripod legs (when on the march) |
| 48. Outer elevating screw | 59. Outer trail tube |
| 49. Check nut | 60. Trail shoe |
| 50. Elevating nut | 61. Seat support |
| 51. Inner elevating screw | 62. Seat bracket |
| 52. Top carriage | 63. Inner trail tube |
| 53. Tripod pin | 64. Seat for operator |
| 54. Lower elevating pin | 65. Front legs |
| 55. Traversing clamp | 66. Front shoes to support and prevent movement of tripod |
| 56. Traversing guide | |
| 57. Wing nut to control line of sight | |

The Butternut Tree as a Weed Eradicator

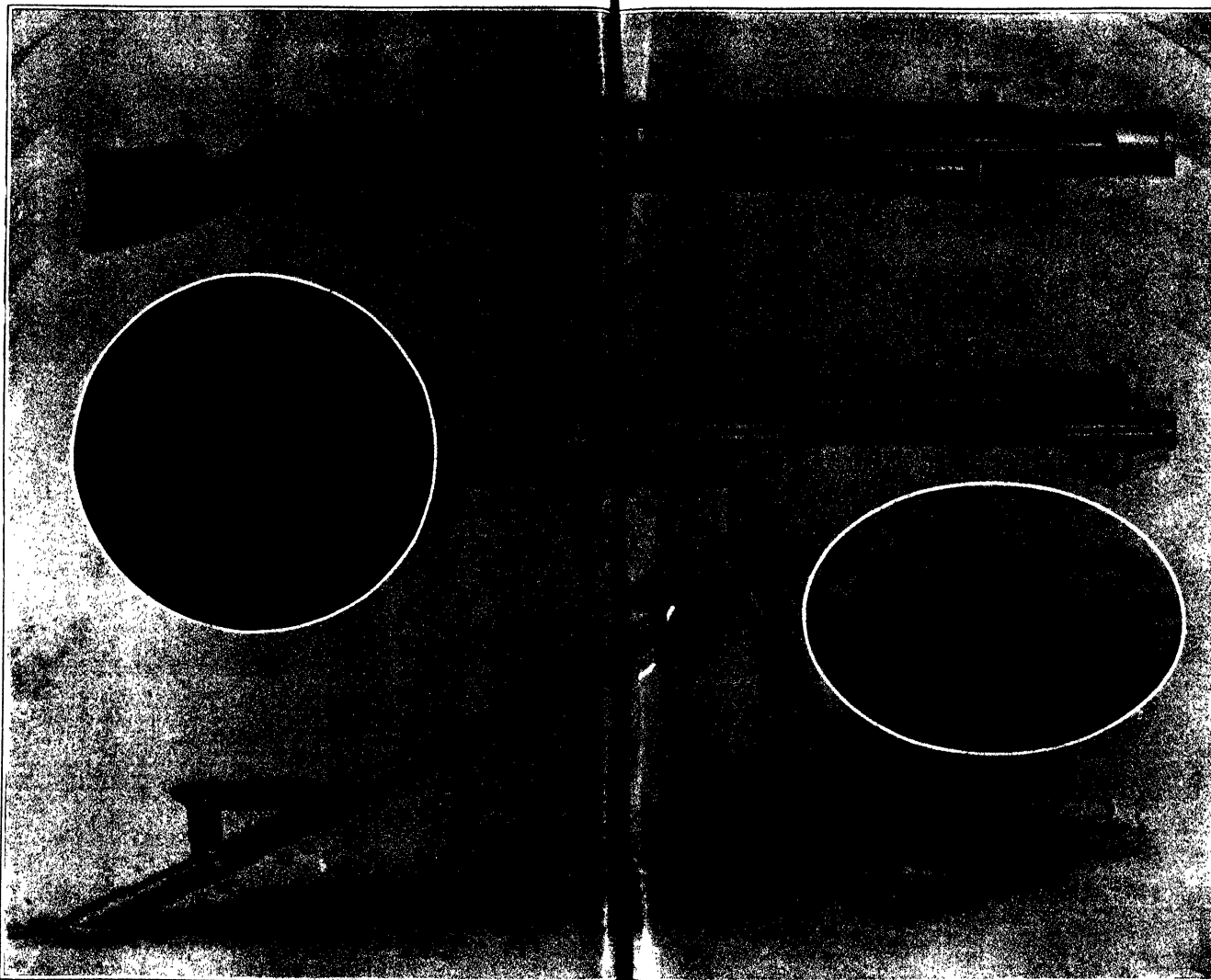
BUTTERNUT trees have solved the problem of exterminating one of the most stubborn of weeds, the shrubby cinchona (*Cinchona latifolia*), which at one time took complete possession of pastures in certain parts of Vermont. Ten years ago a single valley between the towns of Manchester and Dorset was estimated to contain 5,000 acres completely covered with this plant. Where no attempts have been made to eradicate it, the cinchona still covers the pastures, with an almost impenetrable matted growth from two to four feet in height.

Investigations made by Mr. V. H. Gilbert have shown that the roots of the butternut excrete a mysterious and deadly effect upon plants of the cinchona growing above or near them. Under each butternut tree there is always found a clean grassy circle of a diameter which exceeds the farthest spread of the branches. The latter fact shows that the effect is not merely one of shading. Numerous vigorous specimens of the weed are occasionally found growing within the otherwise clean circle, and on digging beneath them, the reason is found to be that the roots of the tree are absent at the spot where the cinchona flourishes.

Another curious fact in connection with this strange relationship is that the cinchona plants seem to attract the roots of the butternut to them. What this stimulus may be, says Mr. Gilbert, which controls the direction of the growth of the butternut root, and what may be the actual cause of the death of the cinchona, are interesting questions that must remain, for the present, unanswered. Meanwhile, the planting of butternut trees appears to be the best way yet discovered of combating a serious pest.

Detail Drawings and Descriptions of the Maxim and Lewis Rapid Fire Machine Guns

Devices That Can Pour Forth a Leaden Torrent Often at the Rate of a Thousand Bullets a Minute. The Advance of Troops Before a Battalion of These Destroyers is Practically Impossible



The Lewis Light Magazine Gun

ALTHOUGH the modern machine gun is a most valuable and efficient weapon it still falls short of present military requirements, for army experts are demanding an arm that shall have all the characteristics of the machine gun, and the portability and simplicity in handling of an ordinary rifle. As an approximation to this demand, and a forecast of what the gun of the future will be, the Lewis gun is shown, for in it we have a weapon that can be fired from the shoulder, like a service rifle, although it would require a strong man to use it in this way. This gun is supplied with ammunition from a rotating drum magazine that holds about fifty cartridges which can be discharged in four seconds, a fresh magazine being substituted in two seconds, and the speed of fire can be regulated as desired between 350 and 750 shots a minute. Underneath the rifle barrel is located a cylinder that contains a piston connected with the operating mechanism of the arm, and near the forward end of the barrel there is an opening into the operating cylinder, in front of the piston. When the gun is fired the gases of the explosion, under high pressure, are admitted to the cylinder when the bullet passes the gas port in the barrel, and this pressure continues until the bullet leaves the muzzle, when the gas pressure is released. The gas pressure drives the piston in the operating cylinder backward, to perform the operations of ejecting the empty cartridge, inserting a fresh cartridge and setting the firing pin ready to fire another shot. The piston also partly winds a coiled spring, which acts to close the breech and return the various parts to the firing position after the operating piston has completed its action. By means of a valve at the gas port the speed of firing can be easily regulated.

An important feature of the gun is the cooling device, which consists of a series of deep, longitudinal ribs of aluminum fixed to the barrel. These are inclosed by a light sheet metal case, open at the rear, and projecting beyond the muzzle of the barrel by a contracted sleeve. The bullet passing through this sleeve when fired induces a draught of air which carries off the heat generated by the burning powder.

When firing this gun, if the trigger is pressed once, and then quickly released, only a single shot is delivered; but if the trigger is held back the mechanism will continue to operate until the magazine is empty, when it will stop, in the firing position, ready to resume as soon as a filled magazine is put on, and the trigger pulled again. For general use a light portable support is recommended, but, as has been said, it is possible for a strong man to use it like an ordinary rifle. Although the Lewis gun is largely manufactured in England, and before the war in Belgium, the inventor is an American, and an officer in the United States Army.

When a weapon of this kind is used it would be necessary to have one man to handle the gun and one or more men to carry ammunition, but this would far surpass individual rifle fire.

List of Parts of the Lewis Gun.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Butt plate | 52. Gear operated by main spring |
| 2. Butt plate screws | 53. Main spring casing |
| 3. Butt | 54. Magazine top plate rivets |
| 4. Butt tang screw | 55. Main spring which closes breech and returns parts to firing position |
| 5. Butt tang | 56. Collect pin |
| 6. Feed cover latch | 57. Main spring collet |
| 7. Butt latch securing butt to receiver | 58. Magazine center |
| 8. Back sight bed spring | 59. Main spring rivets |
| 9. Back sight bed spring screw | 60. Magazine latch spring |
| 10. Butt latch spring | 61. Gear casing |
| 11. Back sight bed | 62. Magazine latch |
| 12. Feed cover latch pin | 63. Gear casing side piece |
| 13. Feed cover | 64. Gear casing side piece |
| 14. Back sight bed | 65. Gear casing side piece |
| 15. Back sight thumb piece | 66. Feed operating arm latch |
| 16. Back sight slide catch | 67. Magazine top plate |
| 17. Back sight fine adj. worm | 68. Receiver lock pin |
| 18. Back sight fine adj. worm axis pin | 69. Cartridge spacer rivets |
| 19. Back sight slide catch spring | 70. Interior cartridge separator |
| 20. Back sight slide | 71. Radiator casing rear back |
| 21. Firing hand grip | 72. Back activated by piston and main spring |
| 22a. Forward side rivets | 73. Radiator casing rear, platform |
| 23. Back sight axis pin washer | 74. Radiator casing rear |
| 24. Back sight axis pin | 75. Piston connecting pin |
| 25. Back sight axis washer fixing pin | 76. Barrel |
| 26. Receiver | 77. Gas cylinder |
| 27. Magazine jaws spring | 78. Radiator for cooling barrel |
| 28. Trigger | 79. Piston operated by gases of exploding cartridge that ejects empty shell and inserts firing pin |
| 29. Feed operating stud | 80. Radiator key stud |
| 30. Trigger pin | 81. Gas regulator key |
| 31. Bolt that closes breech and takes shock of discharge | 82. Gas chamber |
| 32. Guard | 83. Gas port |
| 33. Cartridge guide spring | 84. Gas regulator |
| 34. Rear spring | 85. Gas chamber |
| 35. Rear | 86. Gas port |
| 36. Magazine pin | 87. Clamp ring positioning screw |
| 37. Trigger firing pin | 88. Gas port |
| 38. Gas stop pin | 89. Barrel mouth piece |
| 39. Gas stop spring | 90. Radiator casing front |
| 40. Trigger | |
| 41. Cartridge spacer | |

While the idea of a rapid fire gun is old, its practical realization had to await the coming of the metallic cartridge. The machine has now become one of the most deadly weapons, for it has proved invaluable for repelling a charge, in defending trenches, either by direct or enfilade fire, and when mounted on a motor vehicle it is indispensable in a foray or a reconnaissance in force within the hostile territory. These machine guns, of which there

are many different makes, each country having developed some special style, all have a single barrel, which is in some cases kept cool by a water-cooling system, or in others cooled by a fan. In many cases the ammunition is fed to the gun by means of a belt which carries the cartridges separately in loops, like the ordinary cartridge belt. This belt usually carries two hundred and fifty cartridges, which are automatically fed into the gun barrel, one at a time.

The belt passes through the breech of the gun. In some cases the cartridges are fed from a magazine placed in the breech of the gun, and which can be quickly changed as fast as the contents are exhausted. Among the most prominent British automatic machine guns now being used in the war are the Maxim, Lewis, and Vickers, the former of which are shown in the accompanying illustrations; while the American Colt is also extensively used.

The Maxim gun shown has the belt feed, and a water-cooling jacket, while the Lewis has a magazine feed, and is air-cooled. When in use machine guns are generally mounted on a light metal tripod, which can be readily folded up for transportation; and the entire outfit can be carried on the backs of horses, or even of men, for even the heaviest weighs only about sixty-eight pounds complete.



One of the German portable hydrogen generators for inflating balloons and airships on the battlefield.



Photograph from Paul Strauss

German infantry standing in frozen trenches on the eastern battleground near Barlekshen.



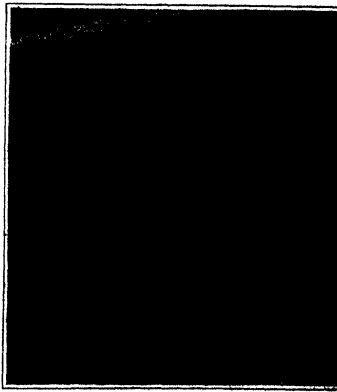
Photograph by Strauser

This is not a simple peasant's hut or a mountain camp, but the interior of a trench in the Vosges, made comfortable by Alpine chasseur of the French army.



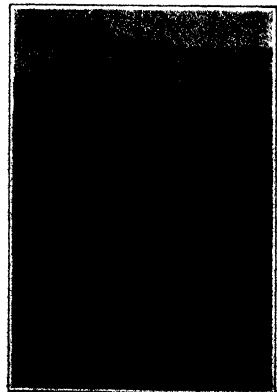
Photograph by Strauser

A Christmas tree in a German trench. Sheep-coats keep the German infantrymen warm.



Copyright by Underwood & Underwood

A covered German trench on the eastern battleground. The roof protects the men from bursting shrapnel.



Photograph from Underwood & Underwood

The type of bomb dropped from German aeroplanes.

GLIMPSES OF THE WAR IN EUROPE



Photograph by Struger
Unpacking a 65 millimeter mountain gun in the Vooges.



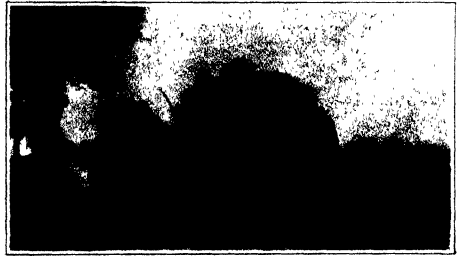
Photograph by Struger
The 65 millimeter mountain gun, used by French Alpine chasseurs, in battery.



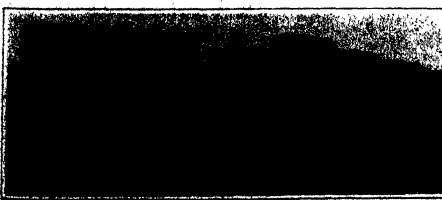
Photograph from Post Tachien
On the river Angerap, near the mill of Kiseelen. In the background a temporary bridge over which German troops may pass.



Photograph from Underwood & Underwood
Armed towboats on the River Seine.



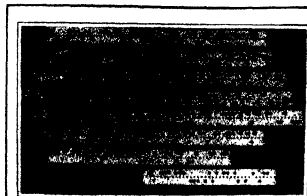
Photograph by Struger
Carting away the junk left on a battlefield.



Copyright by Underwood & Underwood
Russian armored train employed to transport food and ammunition to the front.



Photograph by Struger
A French battery of 155 millimeter guns in the Argonne country.



War news as it is sent.

This is a genuine dispatch of fourteen words on a perforated tape for sending to New York telling of a British victory in the first naval battle of the war, off Heligoland.

Mobilizing News

How the War Reports Come by Cable, and are Distributed by the News Associations

By Charles E. Crane



War news as it first appears in America.

The breath of electricity sent across the Atlantic is perceptible only through the delicate syphon recorder which marks this wiggly line upon an endless tape.

THE next big news is Peace.

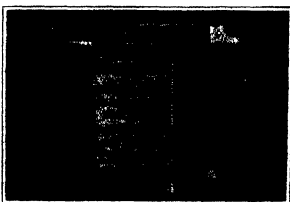
Just a hundred years ago, from the very scene of today's hostilities, the American people were awaiting this same big news. It would signalize the end of our second war with England, hopefully our last. It was on Christmas eve that peace was signed at Ghent. Not until fifty-two days later did the news percolate from the Belgian city to the men behind the guns. Fighting had gone on around New Orleans and Mobile for seven weeks after peace, with needless sacrifice of several thousand men. Such was the speed with which they mobilized the news.

Your grandfather may remember the days of the water-tight cork. In the decade of 1850-1860 the traveling editor was in his glory. Equipped with an armful of the latest Paris, London, and Liverpool papers, despatches, and postscript, and a keg—presumably empty—he made regular trips on the transatlantic steamers, writing up during his voyage a budget of European intelligence.

As the steamers veered south off the coast of Newfoundland he sealed his stories up in the big red keg

Thus grandfather, under favorable conditions, was only a week behind the times.

The world's first successful cable had been laid across the English Channel in 1851, and it was five years later that Field began his transatlantic ventures.



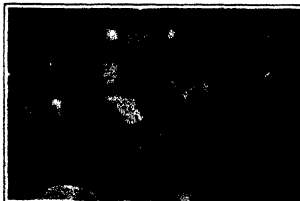
War news as the public gets it.

tery made from a tiny gun cap, a little strip of zinc, and a drop of water—the bulk of a tear! It was a common stunt to exchange messages with batteries made to thimble.

Today at the cable offices in New York, they will tell you that their liveliest cable is worked with only fifty volts—or less than half the incandescent lamp on your library table demands—and those fifty volts are so filtered that there is just a breath of electricity left when it reaches the cable. All that comes out at the American end is 20 millivolts of an amper!

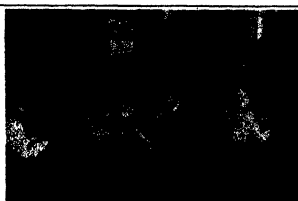
(On the fastest cables you may exchange messages with Europe at the maximum speed of 400 letters, or about 80 words a minute. This is by the duplex attachment which permits two messages to be handled at the same time. Worked to capacity, this single wire might bring some three newspaper columns from Europe within an hour.

From all sources the news agencies and the newspapers have been depositing cable news on our breakfast and dinner tables regularly since the first of August at the rate of some 50,000 words a day, of such



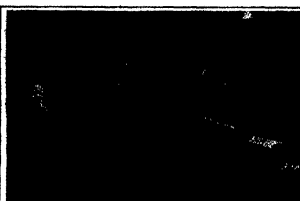
Putting the "punch" in war news.

With a little mallet in each hand the London operator punches holes in the sending tape that represent letters. This tape then runs through the transmitting instrument at the left, connecting with the cable, and the holes produce the "wiggly line" at the other end.



The Associated Press cable editors at work.

In this room the cable news is received a minute or less after its receipt in the cable offices, and the skeletonized dispatches are dictated into newspaper form. A minute later the news is being flashed by telegraph throughout the country to about 300 papers.



Making sense of the "wiggly line."

This is the way war news is first read in New York. The operator in the center of the picture is reading the wiggly line, while with his right hand, as seen in the picture, he is telegraphing its meaning to a telegrapher-typer at his elbow, who types it on the cable form.

and dropped it overboard. An Associated Press dispatch boat was on hand to pick it up, run into St. Johns with it, and race the news on to New York by telegraph, beating the steamer by at least two days and sometimes three.

No grandfather read the biggest war news from Europe in our Civil War days in such a form as this:

"St. Johns, N. F., December 22nd, 1861.

"The 'Pereira' passed Cape Race this morning. She brings intelligence of the decease of His Royal Highness, Prince Albert (the husband of Queen Victoria), who expired at noon of Sunday, December 15th, of gastric fever."

The original Field cables are now dead and gone, slumbering in the globothermic ooze of the ocean depths; but alongside them are a dozen or more modern cables almost identical in construction to those which Field laid.

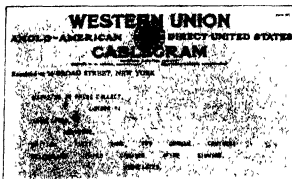
It is so long since our fathers wore little sections of the Atlantic cable for watch charms, and the cable has become so commonplace a marvel, that neither its construction nor its working are as familiar to most of us as the wire. But it is none the less a marvel. I have found newspaper associates on Park Row so vague a conception of what the cable is that some might wager it to be as big as a sewer main; that it contained "a whole raft" of conducting wires; that it took a stroke of lightning to operate it, and that news traveled over it precisely the same as on a telegraph wire.

The shore end of the Atlantic cable is not larger than the big end of a beer bottle; in mid-ocean, where the cable lies two miles deep, it is not bigger than the bottle's cork. The shore end is the heavier to withstand the action of the tides, and the ineffectiveness of fish. There are seven strands of copper to form the cable's core, forming a single conductor. Over this are laid coatings of genuine gutta serena, a layer of jute or oakum, then an envelope of composition rubber, several strands of steel strengthening wires are wound on, and some tarry rope and tape about the whole. The cable complete costs about \$1,000 a mile.

The electricity that brings our war news from Europe would not be sufficient to ring our front door bell. In Field's day he once said: "My friend, Mortimer Clark, called me from Valencia Bay this morning with a bat-

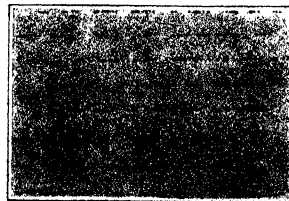
intelligence as the censor passed. Notwithstanding that few war correspondents are getting anything like a snuff of powder, they have been "shooting the stuff over" to us steadily at the rate of about a word a second ever since the war began.

All this comes by the "wiggly line." The cable makes no noise like the ordinary telegraph. Sunk as it is so deep in water, it has peculiarities of induction which make it, to all intents and purposes, a Leyden jar. Hence the small amount of electricity that is necessary to charge it. The electric fluid does not travel along the cable continuously as it does along the land wire. The "jar" is charged and discharged. The effect



War news as the cable editor gets it.

This is the translation made by the cable company of the perforated tape and wiggly line as shown in other pictures, and in this form news is delivered to the news agencies reading and receiving, two yards of time have been run off to carry the news.



War news as it is flashed over the United States.

These are the familiar dots and dashes of the Morse code, into which the telegrapher translated the bulletin of the naval victory off Heligoland, and in which form the news is distributed over the country.

2,000 miles away is not sufficient to control the electromagnetic sounder of the telegraph, and the signals become perceptible only by the delicate spider recorder, which, something after the manner of a seismograph, draws a wiggly line upon a tape. The recording needle travels above and below a given line called "zero," the loops above that line corresponding to the dots, and the loops below to the dashes of the familiar telegraphic code.

From box-like instruments on the desks at the cable office you may see the message tape coming by the yard. It takes about a yard of tape for a dozen words, and the tape worm has run off several hundred miles since the war began. It issues from the box at a rapid rate, and through the center of the tape appears the lucky line—up and down when the messages come, straight when the cable is idle. It is strung across a little track in front of a cable typist who reads the loops and types their meaning out upon the cable forms. On the faster cables one man reads the wiggly line and telegraphs his translation to a typist at his elbow.

But this is only one of several shapes and forms the news takes before it is marshaled into print. The way cable messages are sent is much different from the method. The sending operator sits, with copy before him at a table upon which three big buttons are mounted. With a little mallet in each hand he hits this button for dots, that for dashes, and the other for a space. This punches corresponding holes in an endless strip of paper, which is fed to the automatic sending box, through which the perforated paper runs somewhat as the music roll operates in a piano. Passing between the little wheels, the holes allow the metal to come in contact in certain combinations—just enough to record the war news two thousand miles away.

Even with the cable stories typed upon the cable forms they would still be a puzzle enough for you. Cable ordinarily knows no comma, and only capital letters. The message you find in to-morrow morning's paper, column after column, comes to the cable editor in little snatches of all-capitalized messages, with unessential words stricken out, and without punctuation except for an occasional period, indicated by the word "stop." It is an art to prepare a cablegram, and a terrible task to read one that is ill prepared.

Good cable is very hard to find. The skeletonized dispatch, relayed from the cable office instantly by telegraph to the cable room of the newspaper or news agency is dictated by the cable editor to his typist into as lucid a form as possible under pressure. At his command in such a clearing house for news as the Associated Press office in New York is a vast store of special information to check against in writing out dispatches. A wall of cabinets alongside him gives an index to practically every foreign event for years back, and the cable librarian can turn at a moment's notice to huge loose-leaf scrap books for detailed information.

The idea that ordinary cable news is much "padded" in this manner is a mistaken one. Probably 90 per cent of the cable information goes into the newspapers practically as it comes over the Atlantic, with the exception of filling in such unessential words as have been stricken out to save cable tolls.

A simple example of how "easy" cable comes and is handled is shown in the following dispatches reporting the bomb-dropping raid of German aviators on Paris on Sunday, October 11:

ASSOCIATED
NEW YORK
PARIS 1250 SUNDAY GERMAN AEROPLANE
DROPPED THREE BOMBS WITHIN SHORT
DISTANCE BETWEEN TWELVE THIRTY
AND TWENTY FIVE FIVE HUNDRED YARDS
FROM ASSOCIATED OFFICE

ASSOCIATED
NEW YORK
PARIS 1255 AND 1250 SAME GERMAN AIRMAN
HAD SHORT TIME BEFORE DROPPED BOMB
NEAR NORTHERN TERMINAL ANOTHER BOMB
RAINT LAZARE THIRD BEHIND NORTHERN
LAZARETTE

ASSOCIATED
NEW YORK
PARIS 1305 SUNDAY AND 1305 PENKANT WHICH
DROPPED SAME TIME BOMB BOMB INSCRIPTION
IN GERMAN QUOTE WE HAVE TAKEN ANSWER
YOUR TOWN WILL MOON COME UNQUOTE FOUR
CORNET KILLED BY BOMB TWENTY INJURED
OF WHOM TWELVE WOMEN OR GIRLS SOME
SERIOUSLY

ASSOCIATED
NEW YORK
PARIS 800 SUNDAY AND 855 SECOND GERMAN
AEROPLANE FLEW OVER CATHEDRAL
NORTHERN NAME HORN DROPPED FOUR
BOMBS ONE WHICH STRUCK ROOF CATHEDRAL
DID NOT EXPLODE ONE FELL SQUARE BISHOP'S
RESIDENCE ANOTHER STRUCK PALACE OF
BOURBON GLANCED OFF INTO KENNE ANOTHER
FELL INTO SEINE NEAR BRIDGE NORTHERN
STOP REYNOLD TADDER EVIDENTLY AIMED AT
CATHEDRAL WHICH FIRST ATTEMPTED STRIKE
NORTHERN AND SAINT LAZARE STATIONS

ASSOCIATED
NEW YORK
PARIS 1456 (WHICH INDICATES THE 1 TO 24
HOURS BY WHICH PARIS SOMETIMES COUNTS
THE TIME) ALTOGETHER TWENTY BOMBS
THROWN VARIOUS QUARTERS PARIS KILLING
THREE WOUNDING FOURTEEN CIVILIANS STOP
GERMANS FLEW VERY LOW ABOUT 100 FEET
AFTER THEY APPARENTLY EXHAUSTED THEIR
SUPPLY MISSILES FRENCH AEROPLANES
ARROUDED PURSUED THEM CHASING THEM
TOWARD EAST

So, little by little, the news grows. For the whole story, and the way the cable editors didled it up for you, see your Monday morning paper of October 12th. There is nothing extraordinary about this. It is a simple case to illustrate the thoroughness with which such an organization as the Associated Press can mobilize big news. In normal times we might have known in New York of the presence of the German aviators in Paris quite as soon as the Parisians themselves, for record cable work has sometimes scored an exchange of messages with Europe in less than a minute's time, but handicapped by censors and unusual pressure, there has been a regular delay of from two to ten hours in the receipt of war news lately. Even with delay, coming out of the wireless, it is faster than New York and Paris. It was known in New York at noon on Sunday what the Germans were doing in Paris at noon that day.

The course which all war news takes in its flight from Europe is but half run when it reaches the cable editor in New York. Given such a dispatch as the German air raid on Paris, the cable editor dictates it, the typist puts it into type, and it is written out on translucent wax thence, through which the typewriter strikes a stencil, and a boy seizes this and has a number of copies struck off on a cyclograph. Along with the other news, which may be coming in at the same time from all quarters, the bulletin of the air raid is distributed among half a dozen "wire editors."

There is much like one of soldiers. Seated beside their telegraph operators, it is their work to get off on their wires, or wire, or fraction of a wire, their best selection out of some 40,000 words of news that is laid out their desks every day.

If the deal is good, the game is easy. But it may be that all through the morning, or through the evening, the best that the wire editor draws is two-sets. All the face cards may turn up in a bunch within a few hours of the wire's closing, which means the paper's press time. He does not have one paper to serve, but possibly a score or more hatched up to his wires, as is the case on the regular circuits between New York and Chicago, and he plays the game well if he gets rid of all his essential news; and poorly if he plays a two-sets when he holds an ace.

The present war in Europe was entirely unforeseen in the middle of July. The moment the ball of belligerency was set rolling, such an organization of news gatherers as the Associated Press felt "a thrill of life along its keel." It had just spent thousands of dollars in making it its business to follow in Mexico, in the spotlight of public interest was turned from Huerta and Carranza to Kitchener and the Kaiser. Where that spotlight is the Associated Press must be in force. Within a fortnight the regular staffs at Paris and London had been doubled and men moved to all other strategic news centers that could be reached. In all, nearly fifty salaried men of the Associated Press have been stationed in Europe since early in August, and it would probably not be far from a correct guess to say that 500 American newspaper workers of all kinds are in Europe to-day. The newspaper man loves war only in the sense that it is big news. Everyone, from the proprietor, who is sure to lose money, down to the pressman, who has to work overtime on extras, would rather do without a war.

So the biggest of big news would be peace. The men behind the papers, and the men who man the wires, will welcome it as heartily as the men behind the guns.

Effect of Bombardment on Concrete

ASTRICKING feature of the pictures of the Belgian forts bombarded by the German 42-centimeter guns is that the walls and roofs struck by the projectiles are not pierced smoothly by the shots, but are merely shattered, even when the explosive force of the shells plays its part. These fortifications consist chiefly of concrete and armored concrete. According to an article by Prof. P. Rohland which recently appeared in the *Zeitschrift d. V. d. Ingenieurwissenschaften*, the same phenomenon has been observed in experimental practice with targets of reinforced concrete. It was found that the shots did not break holes or fissures in steel targets, but caused the whole target to crumble into small fragments.

Prof. Rohland holds that the reason for this singular behavior of concrete lies in the fact that there is a condition of high tension in sheets, walls, roofs, etc., of concrete due to the colloidal chemical nature

of the cement, whose separate particles are pressed extraordinarily close to each other. When this tension is relieved at any point by a bursting shot the complete crumbling of the entire sheet of concrete is the inevitable result. Hence, he advises a return to the use of brick for fortifications. When a brick wall is struck by a shot the result is merely the tearing of a big hole, aside owing to the looseness of the structure only the parts in immediate contact with the shot hit are affected.

The New French "75" Field Gun

ACCORDING to the London *Daily Telegraph*, the French are hugely delighted with their new 75-millimeter (3-inch) field gun, which has shown remarkable efficiency, and the way it is being used is described in the *Revue de l'Armée* as follows:

The system is that of "sweeping and progressive firing." When an advance of the enemy is signaled the battery, which is of four guns, gets into action at the indicated range.

After the first shot from each gun, the gunner directs the second shot to the zone spared by the first but laterally, and so with the third. Thus, the zone spared by its shell a front of several hundred yards, creating a danger zone in which nothing before living can any longer live. And a battery firing twelve shells can clear in a few seconds a zone almost a kilometer in front and some hundred yards in depth.

A second salvo of three shells per gun is discharged at a point one hundred to two hundred yards beyond the zone of the same frontage, and this is followed by a third discharge aimed at yet another hundred yards beyond. By the time that the battery has discharged its thirty-six shells a dozen acres have been cleansed of the enemy.

\$10,000 for an Ambulance Design

THE present war in Europe has afforded the first opportunity of trying out practically the motor ambulance, and the experience has shown that there are many defects in the existing types. As the matter is one of great importance, a commission has been formed in England, at the suggestion of Mr. Henry S. Wellcome of the Wellcome Bureau of Scientific Research, with the object of developing an improved design. The ambulance body that can be placed on any regular automobile chassis. This commission is headed by Sir Frederick Treves, chairman of the British Red Cross Society, and includes many prominent people, and to secure the cooperation of the best talent in the world in this line it has been decided to offer a series of prizes for the best design conforming to certain requirements and conditions, the prizes being of £5,000, £2,500, £1,500, and smaller sums, amounting in total amount to \$10,000. This competition relates solely to the design of ambulance bodies to be fitted to motor vehicles, and has nothing whatever to do with the motive power, nor the design or character of the vehicle as a whole.

The competition will be open from June 1, 1915, and information in regard to the conditions can be obtained of The Secretary, Ambulance Construction Commission, 10 Henrietta Street, Cavendish Square, London, England.

The Current Supplement

IN the current issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2940, for February 6th, 1915, will be found Recent Significant Developments in Science and Engineering and of those comprehensive surveys that are both interesting and valuable, especially when by such eminent authorities as the professors of Cornell University. The origin of the Rocky Mountains is a valuable geological and geographical treatise, and is accompanied by some unusual photographs of remarkable rock formations. The Prevention of Earthquakes is a most timely article that will be widely appreciated. An X-ray Inspection of a Steel Casting describes a new way of detecting faults in the interior of the metal, and suggests one of the valuable practical applications of the improved form of tube. The European War and Potash Supplies discusses the important question of possible sources of supplies of this indispensable material since German sources have been cut off. Discoveries About Bacteria is one of the popular scientific talks by Sir Ray Lankester, which are so acceptable to the lay reader, and which furnish such a convenient review of the latest scientific knowledge. The Article on Gas from Blast Furnaces, describing how it is cleaned and utilized, treats exhaustively of a technical subject of wide importance, and the numerous descriptive illustrations add greatly to its value. Irrigation with Fresh Water from the Sea discusses methods for purifying sea water for use in irrigating desert lands in the neighborhood of the ocean where no other source of water is available, a novel scheme by which great areas of waste land could be rendered productive. The description of the cannon ball tree tells of a curious growth to be found in some parts of tropical America.

The Battle of the North Sea

How a Proposed Attack on English Coast Towns Developed Into a Disastrous Fleet Engagement

THE recent running fight between the battle-cruiser squadrons of Great Britain and Germany must be reckoned as by far the most important naval engagement of the present war. In respect of the character of the ships engaged, nothing like it has occurred in all the history of naval warfare, for never have ships of such size and speed, or guns of such great range and punishing power, been opposed to each other upon the high seas. According to the official report of Vice-Admiral Beatty, the British ships worked up to a speed of 20 knots (34 miles) and thus commenced landing on the enemy at a range of 17,000 yards or 10 miles. Once more the theories of the school which advocates high speed in warships, or, still we say, the possession of a huge margin of speed over the adversary, have been vindicated, and again it has been proved that victory, other things being equal, will lie with the ship which carries the heaviest guns, and can do accurate shooting at the maximum possible range at which the hull of the opposing ship can be seen and blotted by the cross-hairs of the gunner's telescope.

The German battle-cruiser fleet, apparently the same as that which recently shot up some watering places and supported on the British coast, crossed the North Sea in the darkness of the night, slaying its course in the direction of the British coast, presumably with the intention of appearing off certain places selected for bombardment as soon as there was sufficient light for sighting the guns. The fleet consisted of three battle-cruisers, the "Derfflinger," "Seydlitz" and "Moltke," and the armored cruiser "Blücher." Several fast scout cruisers, and a fleet of destroyers. The battle-cruisers were the very latest and most powerful of this type in the German navy. The "Derfflinger," of about 20,000 tons and 20 knots speed, completed just after the opening of the war, carries eight 12-inch 50-caliber guns, and is supposed to be protected by an armor belt of battlement thickness. The "Seydlitz," of about 20,000 tons and 20 to 25 knots speed, mounts ten 11-inch 50-caliber guns, and is believed to be protected by an 11-inch belt. The "Moltke," of 23,000 tons, sister ship to the "Goeben," mounts the same battery and has the same protection as the "Seydlitz," and made 25½ knots on her trial. The 26-knot "Blücher," the finest armored cruiser of the German navy, is, or rather was, an enlarged, faster, and more powerful "scharnhorst." On a displacement of 15,500 tons, she mounted twelve 8.2-inch guns in her main battery. She was protected by a 6-inch belt and she had 6 inches of armor on her turrets.

As the German fleet drew in toward the English coast in the gray of the dawn, it was sighted by a flotilla of British destroyers, and was immediately attacked by them. At a distance of about fourteen miles was the British battle-cruiser squadron, consisting of five ships, the flagship "Lion," with Vice-Admiral Beatty in command; the "Tiger," "Princess Royal," "Indomitable," and "New Zealand." The "Lion" and "Princess Royal" are of 26,000 tons displacement and each made 20 knots on trial, a speed which they have exceeded in later steaming. Each mounts eight 13.5-inch guns and is protected by a belt of 9-inch armor. The "Tiger" completed since the opening of the war, is of 27,000 tons, 20 to 30 knots speed, is similarly protected and carries the same main battery as the "Lion." The "Indomitable," of 17,250 tons and 20½ knots speed, is protected by 7 inches of armor and mounts eight 12-inch guns. The "New Zealand," of 18,750 tons, made 27 knots on trial, is protected by an 8-inch belt and mounts a main battery of eight 10-caliber 12-inch guns.

Now, unfortified coast cities (if that was what the Germans were after again) here one kind of quarry, and a fleet of mighty battle-cruisers is quite another, and the Germans did not lose much time in making up their minds to run for home and safety as fast as their persons turbulence could drive them. Theoretically, they should have got away, for the "Moltke" is credited with having developed 10,000 horse-power and the "Seydlitz" and "Derfflinger" with having possessed the 100,000 horse-power mark. But Admiral Beatty states that the British fleet gradually drew up on the Germans, lessening the gap of fourteen miles until the leading ship, the "Lion," was within 18,000 yards, when she opened fire. At 17,000 yards, or 10 miles, she landed upon the enemy, a truly remarkable performance. The Germans replied and the great running fight was on in earnest. The speed of the slowest German ship, "Blücher," was 20 knots and, theoretically, that should have been the rate of steaming maintained by the whole squadron, the heavier battle-cruisers covering the weaker armored cruiser with their powerful gun fire. Evidently, however, the order was for each ship to get home as best it might, and the unfortunate "Blücher" was left to itself to meet an inevitable doom. The British squadron

had the speed gage and, as each ship passed the "Blücher," she poured in her broadside, wrecking her so completely that she capsized and sank, with the loss of about three-fourths of her crew of 947 officers and men. The sinking was hastened by a torpedo from the "Arctura."

The British continued to draw up abreast of the Germans and wrought such terrible execution that, by the time the German fleet reached the nose of its own mine fields, the "Derfflinger" and "Seydlitz" were burning fiercely, and the gun fire of all three cruisers was greatly diminished.

Two ships in the British fleet were injured, the "Lion" receiving a shell in her engine room, which damaged the fuel tank and put her engines out of commission, so that she had to be towed home, and one of the destroyers was also damaged by shell fire. Both ships returned to port, and the British Admiralty reports that repairs can be quickly effected.

As the running fight drew near to Heligoland, a Zeppelin and several aeroplanes came out and began to drop bombs upon the destroyers engaged in rescuing the survivors from the "Blücher." There can be little doubt that, from the great height at which they were sailing, out of range of aircraft guns, the Germans mistook the "Blücher" for a British battle-cruiser, and to this fact is to be attributed the persistent report in Germany that a British ship was sunk.

An interesting report is that of a traveler who witnessed the fight, whose captain stated that the Germans fired much more rapidly and the splash of their shells was much more scattered, whereas the British ships fired more slowly and with greater accuracy. This would indicate that the British were using Sir Percy Scott's system of director firing and that the Germans were using individual pointing.

Judging from the Admiralty report and the statements of those engaged in the fight and of the survivors of the "Blücher," it is probable that the injuries of the German surviving ships are so great that it will be several months before they are again in condition for effective service.

Smokeless Powder

By Edward C. Crossman

SOFT, fluffy, downy, cotton, lying like snow in the baskets of the pickers, surely as peaceful a product of the fields as anything one could imagine.

But behind every poor infantryman that stumbles and falls and then lies motionless on a stricken field, behind every whistling shell that smashes through the air to wreck homes and carry ruin into cities, lies our harmless cotton.

It drives the bullets from the muzzles of the German Mausers and the British Lee-Enfields and the Russian Nagants. It lifts the huge shells from the short barrels of the squatty mortars, and it caves in the steel sides of unsuspecting battle-ships.

Steep a bank of our pretty white-cotton in a mixture of nitric and sulphuric acid, and instead of cotton—although it still looks the same—there is an explosive of most frightful power. Bury it for years, soak it in water, do anything you like with it but set fire to its fiber or give it a heavy jar, and still it holds to its frightful energy. The stronger the nitric acid, the more uncontrollable the resulting explosion, and the more rending and wrecking its explosion.

Make the acid weak, and the resulting cotton is a useful commercial product—celluloid or perhaps cellulose. So little is the difference between celluloid and the stuff that has already sent many a splendid British ship to the bottom of the sea, that only the chemist can explain it clearly. Now the celluloid is dangerous; it is not, not a tenth so dangerous as gasoline, not half so dangerous as the kerosene can be in the hands of the fool. But even celluloid can explode when heated to the right degree.

Practically all smokeless powders are made of cotton, treated with nitric and sulphuric acids. The latter, by the way, merely takes up water that the nitric acid process throws off, and has no bearing on the process itself. The Germans use practically a pure glycolated, treated with "deterfants" to slow down its rate of burning, in their infantry rifles and big guns. The sole difference between the "propellant" that burns and develops gas at a reasonable rate and urges the bullet out of the gun and the stuff that detonates and wrecks the sides of the stoutest battleship is a slight change in the chemical process of its manufacture, and the addition of a deterrent to slow down its rate of burning. What is needed in the gun itself is a powder that will work, not wreck, that will evolve gas comparatively slowly,

and push out the bullet or the shell without burning the gun barrel. In the shells and in the torpedoes and in the hand-grenades, thrown by infantry, the opposite is true. There detonation, instant explosion with wrecking and rending of everything around it, is asked for, and planned for by those making the explosives.

Cotton takes care of both needs. When dynamite is used to rip out a yard or so of hard rock, it is detonated, exploded by shock, which in turn comes from the firing of an immensely powerful cap filled with fulminate. Such an explosion, even on a small scale, would be useless, if not fatal in the gun barrel, because it does not work slowly; it wrecks. The shell, filled with the sort of powder used to drive bullets and shells out of big guns, would be useless, because it would not be blown instantly to fragments, but would be burst without terrific explosion when the powder finally generated enough gas.

British cordite, the propellant used in the big naval guns, and in the Lee-Enfields carried by the infantry, is made of the mixture of gun cotton and nitroglycerine in the proportion of 80 to 20 respectively. The missing five parts in the hundred is composed of vaseline, used to slow down the rate of burning and render the burning of the powder less violent in its effects. Cordite is sensitive to heat, and when it is exposed to even the high temperature of Africa or India it becomes sensitive to shock, and likely to catch fire spontaneously. To effect this, British cordite, except the loss of their battleship, the "Bulwark," the magazines of which were full of cordite.

To keep the flame of the primer from flashing through the fiber of the gun cotton powder and thus producing an instantaneous and violent explosion, the grains are coated with a gelatin-like "boiler" made by partly dissolving each grain in acetone or alcohol or similar solvent for gun cotton. The resulting hard, glossy surface retards the flame, and the grains burn with comparative slowness. Vaseline in the British cordite and graphite in American rifle powders help to slow down the rate of burning.

All American shotgun powders are made of gun cotton, with the exception of Schultze, the composition of which used to be of a nitrated wood instead of a nitrated cotton, the process being the same as that of making gun cotton, viz., soaking wood fiber in nitric and sulphuric acid. American sporting rifle powders are chiefly a composition like cordite, gun cotton, and nitroglycerine.

Black powder, now nearly a thing of the past, is made of 75 per cent saltpetre, 10 per cent sulphur, and 15 per cent charcoal. The difference between this powder and smokeless is that smokeless powder nearly all burns up; black powder is only partly reduced to gas. As the sole purpose of a powder is to evolve huge volumes of hot, elastic gas, doing work just as the charge does in a gas engine, the smokeless has the better of the argument. While black powder in burning evolves 70 per cent of solid matter and 30 per cent of gas, smokeless evolves 70 per cent gas and 30 per cent solid matter. Therefore, weight for weight, smokeless powder is doubly as efficient as black.

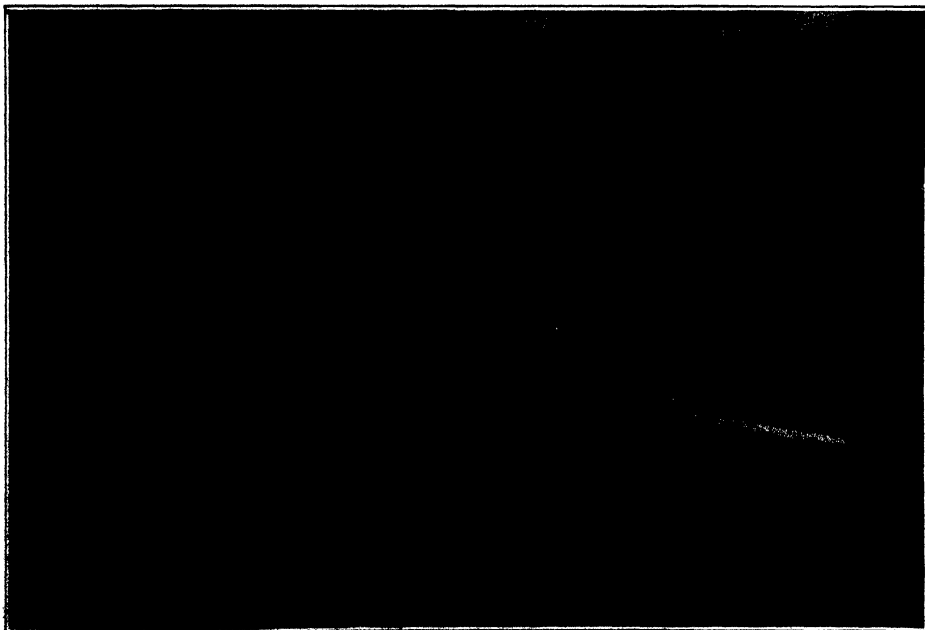
Gun cotton is usually handled in the wet state, a small amount of dry being used to detonate the huge wet mass. A more common high explosive, used in the famous 42-centimeter shells, is mellinite or other compound similar to it. The British lyddite, used against the Boers, and still retained in the British service, is very similar. This stuff is a mixture of picric acid and gun cotton. Picric acid, in turn, is carboic and nitric acid mixed, the nitric acid—basically of all explosives—transforming the carboic acid into an explosive of frightful power. Picric acid is used in the arts as a yellow dye, and the fumes from the explosion of lyddite or mellinite or the Japanese shimon—all the same stuff—turn yellow anything with which they come into contact.

Germany Buys Only Gray Cars.—An order issued by the German General Staff requires that all automobile manufacturers delivering cars to the military authorities must see to it that these cars are painted a neutral gray; no shining brass accessories or trimmings will be permitted. All cars must be plainly marked with the letters M.K. (*Militär-Kraftwagen*), the number of the army corps in Roman figures and the distinctive number of the car in the corps list in Arabic figures. A motor car bearing the sign painted in heavy black upon rectangular field of white, edged with heavy black line/M.K. 211 signifies that it is an official vehicle of the 12th army corps, listed under No. 211. All cars already in use have been painted with a non-shining aluminum paint.



Tonnage, 15,500. Speed, 26 knots. Guns, Twelve 8.8-inch Eight 6-inch Belt Armor, 6 inches. Torpedo Tubes, 3 Complement, Officers and men, 847

The German armored cruiser "Blücher," sunk in the North Sea fight.



Twelve-inch gun of the type carried by the "New Zealand" and the "Indomitable" in the North Sea fight.

War Uses of the Motorcycle

The Cycle Ambulance and Motor Machine Gun Made Possible by the Sidecar



French motorcycle scout and his canine assistant.



British sidecar fitted with a Lewis machine gun.

WHEN one speaks of military districts involuntarily the mind turns to Germany, the home of the Zeppelin. When the military aeroplane is referred to one thinks of France, which has done more than any other nation for the development of the "heavier-than-air" machine, although the invention belongs to America. When the military motorcycle is mentioned, the mind turns instinctively to England, which undoubtedly is the real home of the two-wheeled motor carriage, although the invention belongs to France. Yet all the warring nations except Serbia possess dirigibles, all of them possess aeroplanes and all of them possess motorcycles. In fact, there are probably many more German and French motorcycles in war service than English, for at the outbreak of the conflict all the continental nations concerned commandeered every motor vehicle of whatever type. In England, on the other hand, while there was no contention of power vehicles, large numbers of motorcycles were offered voluntarily to the government. Soon after war was declared there was a great meeting of motorcycleists at Wimbledon Common, who gathered together to offer their services to the army. Although the work of the motorcycleists is by no means as conspicuous as that of other branches of the service, there is no doubt that they have proved invaluable to the respective colors they were serving. We find them doing all the work that used to be done by the mounted courier, and much more besides. They carry messages between one end of a column and another. They act as police on the battle line. They serve as guides for motor trucks and serve as scouts for automobile convoys, examining the roads to see that bridges are in good condition and that there are no impassable obstacles. They even do much reconnoitering which was formerly done by the cavalry only. In all such work their enormous speed as compared with that of a horse is of tremendous importance. The only drawback is that they cannot run freely across country or over roads that are in very bad repair or obstructed by fallen trees or telegraph poles.

The motorcycle sidecar which England claims as its own invention, has all ready proved of inestimable value for military purposes. One of our photographs shows a motorcycle scout belonging to the French army in Belgium. This motorcycleist uses a sidecar as a refuge carrier and also for the purpose of transporting a fellow soldier or officer when conditions demand it.

but chiefly to carry a dog that accompanies him on all his expeditions. Once in a while, when he has an important message to send back to headquarters, but does not wish to interrupt his reconnoitering, he writes the message on a slip of paper which is fastened to the dog's collar, and the dog is sent to headquarters, while the scout proceeds on his way.

The sidecar has made it possible to convert the motorcycle into a fighting machine. Several machines have recently been introduced in war which are equipped with automatic guns. One of our photographs shows

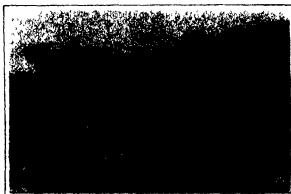
an American motorcycle sidecar built especially for fighting purposes, on which a Colt automatic gun of rifle caliber is mounted. Provision is made for carrying two passengers, so that it is possible to operate the gun while the machine is in motion. Of course this greatly increases its field of usefulness. The gun has a firing capacity of 400 or more shots per minute and, if desired, may be detached from the special mount on the machine and used on a portable tripod which is collapsible and carried on the sidecar. The machine is equipped with a 15 horse-power twin-cylinder motor and has a two-speed gear, the low-speed permitting it to be used for cross-country work, if necessary. On the road it will run up to a speed of 40 miles per hour, and it has a radius of 75 miles on a tankful of gasoline.

Another of our photographs shows the first London machine-gun battery, equipped with a Lewis gun that is operated from a sidecar. Other English armed motorcycles are provided with bullet-proof steel guards to protect the man in the sidecar and also vital parts of the driver of the machine. A shield is attached to the handle-bar and has a bullet-proof guard that extends

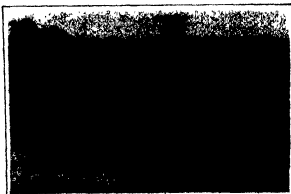
well over the front wheel to protect the tire from puncture. Recently a battery of eighteen motor machine guns was sent across the Channel to the west of the war. Six of these were fitted with Maxim machine guns, six with spare gun carriages, and six were fitted to carry ammunition.

Not only is the motorcycle of service in actual fighting, but we find it doing noble work in the hospital corps of the army. The British Red Cross Society recently adopted a motorcycle ambulance sidecar for service on the Continent. Two photographs of this car are shown here.

The machine is of standard 8 horse-power type with semi-automatic lubrication and magneto ignition. The speed gear is of the three-speed countershaft type. The ambulance portion is of an entirely original design. It is constructed of tubular framework and so arranged that comfortable accommodation is found for two recumbent figures upon standard regulation army stretchers, these being supported on long, easy springs which run from end to end. From the bottom springs a cradle passes across from one side spring to the other, at each side, and these are slotted to take the feet of the stretcher. Rubber blocks are fixed so that the wood of the stretchers does not rest upon the metal cradle. The upper springs have



Placing the wounded in the motorcycle ambulance.



The sidecar ambulance hastening to the hospital.



British motorcycleists assembled at Wimbledon Common to offer their service to the army.

(Continued on page 144.)

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

The Evil of Divided Applications in the Patent Office

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

I have read with interest the paper by Hon. Thomas F. Ewing, Commissioner of the Patent Office, in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of December 12th, 1914, especially the two paragraphs printed under the heading, "Division of Applications."

Quoting from this paper he says as follows:

"There are 7,000 requirements of division made in the Patent Office every year and one every ten applications on the average. These were formerly reviewable by the Commissioner on petition, but the Supreme Court of the United States in the *Stearns* case held that the question involved is one of merit and must go to the board on appeal. Few appeals are taken because, as a rule, it costs nearly as much to take an appeal as it does to file a divisional application."

He might have added that very few of the divisional applications are filed in this manner from the following:

In the month of October, 1914, 3,049 patents were issued, of which 2,983 were issued on original applications and only 66 on divisional applications.

In November 3,438 patents were issued, of which 3,348 were issued on original applications and only 90 on divisional applications.

In December 4,288 patents were issued, of which 4,133 were issued on original applications and only 115 on divisional applications.

For the three months 10,753 patents were issued in all, 10,520 of which were issued on original applications and only 233 on divisional applications.

In every application in which division is required at least one additional application is called for. This would increase every ten applications to eleven, and out of every one hundred and ten patents issued on these applications there should be one hundred patents issued on original applications and ten issued on divisional applications. Applying this ratio to the above figures for the 10,520 patents issued on original applications in the three months 1,052 patents should have been issued on divisional applications instead of the 233 actually issued on divisional applications.

But in most applications in which division is required two or more divisional applications are required. In a number of my cases four additional divisional applications have been required. From my own experience I can say that in every one hundred original applications filed, at least twenty-five additional divisional applications must be filed if inventors are to get full protection. This means that for the 10,753 patents issued on original applications in three months 2,630 patents should have been issued on divisional applications instead of the 233 patents issued on the divisional applications. In other words, about 9/10 of the inventions that should be covered by patents issued on divisional applications are not protected, because the Patent Office makes it cost too much to secure patent protection on such inventions, as we shall see later, and these inventions are, therefore, sacrificed or contacted by the requirements of the Patent Office, and this in spite of the fact that patent protection on them has been asked for at the start in the manner provided by law.

Division of an application entails not only the payment of additional Government fees, but additional attorney's fees for the preparation of new drawings, specifications, and claims and for extra amendments due to separate prosecution of each case.

This burden or penalty is loaded more on the complex than on the simple inventions and increases the expense of patenting them beyond all reasonable bounds. Few applications for patents on automatic machinery escape these requirements.

Section 4,386 of the Patent Law says in substance that any person who has invented a machine or any improvements thereon may obtain a patent therefor. This section contains other provisions, but they are not material to this case.

A machine is always regarded as a composite affair, and in this sense the term was used by Congress and has been so defined in many court decisions. The word "improvements" is in the plural and the word "patent" is in the singular. The law undoubtedly meant that the whole machine could be patented in a single patent or that any number of "improvements" on a machine could be covered by one patent.

Rule 41 of the Patent Office reads as follows:

"Two or more independent inventions cannot be claimed in one application; but where several distinct inventions are dependent upon each other and mutually contribute to produce a single result they may be claimed in one application."

The joker in this rule lies in the meaning of "independent" and "dependent." The rule has been in force

nearly thirty years, and the meaning of these words has undergone a great change in the last sixteen years. Formerly the rule was interpreted to mean that in nearly all cases that all the features of a composite machine were dependent on one another, and contributed to produce a single result and could, therefore, be patented in one patent, and this is what the statute has always meant. The statute was adopted in its present form on March 3rd, 1867, and in its original form in 1870, and so far as the present controversy is concerned the only material difference is that the act of 1870 and all prior laws read "improvement" and the act of 1867 reads "improvements." It cannot be assumed that this is an inadvertence on the part of the law makers. This change recognized the validity of the practice which had always been followed by the Patent Office, and continued it by making it a part of the law. This change in the law expanded or increased the rights of inventors, while the change in the construction of Rule 41 by the Patent Office, which began a year or two after this law was enacted in its present form, restricts the rights of inventors and is a violation of the law.

Patents issued on divisional applications are open to more defenses than patents issued on original applications. Nearly one third of all the patents that are litigated are declared invalid, and it would seem the part of prudence for the Patent Office to avoid the issuing of patents to which defenses can be raised.

Formerly the Patent Office released patents with libeled claims several thousand patents were declared invalid in Miller versus Bridgeport Brass Company, 104 U. S., when the practice stopped. Every patent issued on a divisional application must take its chances on being destroyed by an expansion of the doctrine of double patenting announced or denounced in Miller versus Eagle, 151 U. S., or because of the defective and incomplete disclosure of the invention. Section 4921. Courts do not understand the details of patents any too well, and they may conclude that they understand the Patent Law and the rights of the public better than does the Patent Office. The Patent Office should not ignore these possibilities and should so issue patents that patentees will be exposed to the least possible expense, trouble, and uncertainty in suing on such patents.

Patents are issued ultimately for the information of the public so that the public can use the inventions when the patent has expired, and this information should be given the public in the most complete, concise, and direct way. Yet the Patent Office is encouraging and even requiring the issuing of patents which are issued with an incomplete disclosure of the invention of which it forms a part. It is evidently expected that when anyone wants to get a disclosure of the complete machine he can find one part in a patent in one class and another in a patent in another class etc. and that by finding and bringing these several parts together he will have the parts of the complete machine which he can assemble. If any parts are missing, because the patent thereon did not go through, he can find the parts as best he can, for the application that shows the missing part will remain buried in the secret archives of the Patent Office till the day of judgment and the public will never be permitted to see it.

The present practice of requiring division was started in the Patent Office by Commissioner Innes in 1890. He justified the practice in part because it would add to the revenues of the Patent Office. (Ex parte Boucher C. D. 1890, page 133.) But in this respect the practice has been a failure for it has not produced the additional revenue.

Still, the Patent Office may regard its practice as an asset to the extent that it actually reduces its work and enables it to keep up with its work better with its present force of examiners or with a less number than would be needed if these requirements were not made. But the saving which the Office makes thereby cannot be very large, and the need of reducing its expenses or increasing its revenue can hardly be pleaded as a justification of the practice.

Additional revenue is not needed. The Patent Office has shown a profit of over \$2,300,000 in the last fifteen years and over \$7,000,000 in the last fifty years, so that the practice is not justified on the score of economy or revenue. Besides, if revenue is needed, it can best be obtained by increasing the application fees or charging a small additional fee for each division, so that the whole invention may be contained in one application and the one patent issued on it. The additional fees would then be collected by the Patent Office, according to law, and the inventors would not be put to the expense of preparing new application papers and of prosecuting a multiplicity of suits, which now cost many times the statutory fees, merely to permit the Patent Office to collect the statutory fees a number of times as is wasteful as the practice of robbing a man of his clothes merely to get the buttons from them. In his article the Commissioner says that the salaries of

the assistant examiners amount to about \$10 for each application filed. Such being the case, an extra \$10 fee for each division specified should be ample, as the examiner could examine the divisions more easily and quickly than he could the original, as the reading of the original drawings and specifications would do for all the divisions that the zeal of the examiners might discover. Even then all requirements of division should be supervised by one official, before they are entered, to secure a just and uniform price throughout the Patent Office.

Such a provision in the law would add from \$200,000 to \$400,000 a year to the revenues of the Patent Office, and I have no doubt but inventors would gladly pay even the maximum amount, because it would mean real economy and give inventors a practical and economical basis on which to work in taking out patents, which hanks they do not now have.

A memorandum prepared by the examiner could be printed at the end of the patent, grouping the claims by number in their appropriate classes and thereafter duplicate copies of the printed patent could be filed in such classes, and this would answer all purposes of keeping the various parts of the invention separate.

The practice of the Patent Office in this respect has been steadily growing worse for the past fifteen years, due to the growth of the classification index of the Patent Office, each new class that is established suggesting new requirements of division on which the examiners are quick to act. But requirements are even made that will result in the issuing of several patents in the same class. On December 15th, 1914, five type writer patents were issued to Hazen, all on one original application, patents No. 1,121,094 to 1,121,098, inclusive, all in the same class 197.

For the purpose of getting a systematic classification of the various devices shown in issued patents this classification index is now twelve and even more in size, but the practice of cutting up new unpatented automatic machines and fitting the pieces of them to the various classes of this index before they are patented and of forcing inventors to take out a number of patented patents on a single invention that should be covered by a single patent is all wrong.

If these requirements are made to keep the classification of the Patent Office complete they are defeating their own purpose because the additional applications are not filed and the patents will, therefore, not be issued for invention in the classes intended. The classification can then be kept complete only by filing copies of the patents issued on the original application in other classes, where needed, provided the examiner has not required the extra inventors to be eliminated from the original application, as he can and frequently does require under rule 42.

It may be more convenient for all devices of a kind to go to an examiner, but that does not mean that it is absolutely necessary that they should be so distributed regardless of the expense to the inventors. Examiners can easily be kept informed as to what exists elsewhere in the Patent Office that pertains to their art. Cheap photographic copies of drawings of pending applications can be used for this purpose, and for further information the examiner who has charge of the original application can always be consulted by the other examiners interested because of overlapping inventions filed with them.

Attorneys cannot always explain these requirements to inventors and not infrequently their clients suspect that in some way the attorney is responsible for the making of the requirements, that he merely wants to get more fees out of his clients and has taken this way of doing it, and in this way the good faith and reputation of the attorney is injured.

The Patent Office is blind to every interest except its own convenience. The policy of the Patent Office seems to assume that inventors must be made to work first for the benefit of the Patent Office, when in fact, the Patent Office should work for the benefit of inventors and for the public.

It is too much to expect relief from the Patent Office. That department is hampered by the inertia of its established practice, is behind in its work and is hampered by insufficient help. The courts can not afford relief, as it costs too much, three appeals being necessary, to which the Commissioner proposes to add a fourth. Such relief means false economy. It means spending a thousand dollars to save a hundred. Therefore, I believe that this matter should be called to the attention of the House Committee on Patents, which should be urged to investigate this subject and procure some action thereon by Congress that will stop these unnecessary, needless and destructive requirements of division by the Patent Office examiners and the slaughter of inventions that it is causing.

Every patent attorney should write a letter showing not only the extent of the injury to his clients, but the professional embarrassment that he suffers as well.

ROCHESTER, N. Y.

FRANK KRIEGER.

REMOVAL OF MOISTURE FROM PEAT OR OTHER SUBSTANCES.—T. SNYR, Station Hotel, Dumfries, Scotland. The drying method in this invention includes effecting the removal of the water down to the desired extent, say to 55 degrees moisture or less in two

stage, the first consisting in removing the bulk of the water in a filter press or the like, and the second in completing the drying by heating the material in a dryer apparatus, or by passing the same to the direct drying action of a heated gaseous medium, such as waste flue gases from one or more heating elements of the installation in connection with which the dry-laid is being carried out.

CAN AND STOPPER THEREFOR.—**I. H. HUBBS**, 18 W. 103rd St., New York, N. Y. The inventor provides a device to form a closure, joint, interiorly and exteriorly, between a tight fitting stopper and means adapted for facilitating the removal thereof, and provides a can and stopper to prevent the accumulation of the material with which the can is charged at the pouring end of the vessel.

BERGHAUS MOUNTING.—**L. L. BERGHAUS**, 761 Hudson Ave., West New York, N. Y. This invention improves the construction of mount lugs so as to provide a rigid construction having independent means at each end thereof for supporting a lens and a diaphragm plate, such means being provided with means for adjustment of either the lens or the guard without disturbing the adjustment or position of the other.

CARBON REMOVER.—**I. B. SVO**, Midford, Ore. The object here is to provide a simple and efficient carbon remover which is in liquid form, so that the same can be easily applied as a wash by rubbing with it or spraying the part covered with carbon under pressure or otherwise.

SWIMMER'S ATTACHMENT.—**E. L. GRADY**, 128 "Banana" Court, of Postmaster, New York, N. Y. This invention relates to an attachment which is adapted to be secured to the leg of a swimmer to add bulk to his forward propulsion, through the water, and the pliability of the cover therefor, so as to prevent collapse during each return stroke and extend to trap the water therein during each forward stroke.

BOTTLE AND CAP THEREFOR.—**H. P. LOCKS**, 1438 Clinton Park East, Bronx, N. Y. N. Y. This invention relates to improvements in bottles and caps therefor and has for an object to provide an improved structure wherein the cap may be easily removed by pressing or striking the same without the use of any particular form of tool.

COLLAPSIBLE AWNING AND FRAME THEREFOR.—**C. H. MANN**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The primary object of this invention is the provision of a collapsible awning made of metal, for example, which will be easily operated, and that will be capable of protecting a window or door from the sun or rain but will allow a free circulation of air.

CLOMBRE TYPE BOTTLE-NECK.—**BOTTLE-NECK ATTACHMENT.**—**A. H. LEVY**, Pasadena, and H. C. WITTMER, St. Peter, South Australia. This invention provides a simple attachment for bottles and other receptacles for holding spirits or other fluids, for the purpose of preventing the fraudulent refilling of either partial contents of such bottles and receptacles, and it relates in particular to stoppers designed for use with ordinary bottles having the inside of the neck polished without any special shoulder or seating to retain the stopper.

SEPARATOR FOR SPINNING ESSENTIAL OILS.—**F. N. SVO**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention has reference to a device for spinning essential oils into small and insoluble particles and the object thereof is to provide a simple and efficient device for separating the solid part of essential oils from the fluid part.

MATCH BOX.—**C. H. MANN**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a box with a plurality of covers so that the handle of the match when the box opens through the machine, will be protected from injury, provide a lock comprising a plurality of covers, provide a lock of covers or covers which will offer a medium for taking down notes or records, and provides a scratching surface on that when the covers are closed, the said surface will be protected from moisture and injury.

Hardware and Tools.

IRON LAMP.—**F. HANSEN**, Palmer, N. Y. An object here is to provide a lock of such a nature that the knob which may be either pulled or pushed for the purpose of opening or closing it, while provision is made for the latch to be released in the usual manner by rotation of the knob shaft, irrespective of the expedient for releasing the latch by pull or push. The latch is adapted for use in connection with doors swinging in opposite directions.

HAPPEY TOOL.—**H. H. HAPPEY**, Wagoner, Wis. The invention provides an implement made preferably of but one integral piece of metal, the same being adapted to be applied to a stick to be cut, or to a nail, the stick may be marked for both the top and side levels by a center with but a single application of the implement.

PEN CLEANER AND HOLDER.—**JOHN J. HENRY**, 415 W. 90th St., Manhattan, N. Y. N. Y. This invention relates to a cleaner in which brushes are employed for cleaning the pen by the latter being worked up and down in the brushes several times. It provides a durable and inexpensive pen cleaner with additional advantages that it may be used as a pen holder as well as a pen cleaner.

RECHORR—A. V. DORR, care of Frank A. Bauer, 440 Broadway, New York, N. Y. The invention has for its object the provision of an improved device which requires a minimum of effort to operate, and which is adapted to open only to a sufficient extent to allow the cutting of a desired amount similar work.

SAMU HOLDING.—**J. J. HOLDING**, 501 Vermont Drive, Cleveland, Ohio. The invention relates to window fasteners, serving the dual purpose of an anchor and a fastener, and the main object is to provide such a device which is readily applicable to a window of the vertical type, and which is capable of being removed or applied without the need of any special tool or key.

LOCK AND LATCH.—**C. A. PASCOR**, 408 San Juan Ave., Victoria, British Columbia, Canada. The invention relates to a lock and latch designed to latch having spring actuated bolts adapted to be locked against opening or ejection by the proper key. Among several objects one is to provide such a latch which is operable by means of knobs on the opposite sides.



LOCK AND LATCH

of a door and into which knobs the key is inserted to lock or unlock and latch. Other objects of the invention are to provide a lock and latch of the type described, which is adapted to be locked against rotation to provide a lock which is adaptable to doors of various thicknesses, and to provide means for closing the door easily and quickly.

ROOFING IMPLEMENT.—**J. N. JENNINGS**, 12 Cedar St., Rockland, Maine. This invention provides an implement whereby the free edge of a roofing sheet may be frequently held above the surface of the roof and space at the same time provided for the introduction of the under-lap edge of the next successive roofing sheet, the implement being then transposed where it may be used on many times.

HYDRAULIC LAMP.—**H. SVO**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention is for more particularly in a ball and socket fastener especially adapted for adjustable connection to a handle or a bracket, or the like, to which it is to be fastened, which will rigidly secure the handle in adjusted position.

ROTARY TYPE TRIMMER.—**F. S. SVO**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a rotary driven tool for use in lawns in trimming hedges, the tool comprising a spindle to carry a rotating disc, the disc being provided with a tabulating a driving connection between the spindle and a flexible shaft of rotary drive connection.

PIPE WRENCH.—**W. M. KROK**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a device which is not bulky, so that it may be used without inconvenience the patient when the measurement is taken, and so that any change in the operating parts for obtaining the exact distance may be external of the patient's mouth.

MEASURING TAPPIER.—**A. F. SVO**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a device which is not bulky, so that it may be used without inconvenience the patient when the measurement is taken, and so that any change in the operating parts for obtaining the exact distance may be external of the patient's mouth.

MEASURING TAPPIER.—**A. F. SVO**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a device which is not bulky, so that it may be used without inconvenience the patient when the measurement is taken, and so that any change in the operating parts for obtaining the exact distance may be external of the patient's mouth.

Heating and Lighting.

BRIK KILN.—**W. H. TROTTER**, Greendale, Ohio. The invention relates to a kiln of the type which is carried on substantially the operation of burning one or more stacks of brick, cooling one or more stacks of burnt bricks, and pre-heating one or more stacks of green bricks, the bricks being moved progressively through the successive stages from the feeding to the discharging, out of the tunnel or kiln.

HOY HOT SYSTEM.—**A. S. HANSON**, Box 432 Billings, Mont. Mr. Hanson's invention is an improvement in hot fluid systems and has for its object the provision of a system for heating a more complete combustion of fuel in furnaces, engines, steam boilers, or in any other place where a large amount of heat is required.

PROJECTING LAMP.—**C. A. MARIKOW**, and C. A. MARIKOW, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention relates to projecting lamps having a reflector and has reference more particularly to means for adjusting and moving the source of light relative to the reflector. In this projecting lamp various sizes of bulbs may be used.

LIGHTING DEVICE FOR GAS TUBES.—**E. S. ALLEN**, 57 W. 124th St., New York, N. Y. The object of this invention is the provision of a novel and improved lighting device for gas rings or gas burners, preferably such as are used in gas ranges, and the gas rings of simultaneously lighting all the gas rings or burners within the range.

HEATER.—**R. M. MARIKOW**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a heater of the type which is adapted to be used in a room, and the object is to provide a heater of the type which is adapted to be used in a room, and the object is to provide a heater of the type which is adapted to be used in a room.

RETRACTING LAMP SHADE.—**HOLDER**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention has for its object the provision of a retracting lamp shade, and the object is to provide a retracting lamp shade, and the object is to provide a retracting lamp shade, and the object is to provide a retracting lamp shade.

HOUSEHOLD UTILITY.—**ADRIAN W. WATSON**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a household utility, and the object is to provide a household utility, and the object is to provide a household utility, and the object is to provide a household utility.

STAIR BOWL.—**A. SVO**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a stair bowl, and the object is to provide a stair bowl, and the object is to provide a stair bowl, and the object is to provide a stair bowl.

RETRACTING LAMP SHADE.—**HOLDER**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention has for its object the provision of a retracting lamp shade, and the object is to provide a retracting lamp shade, and the object is to provide a retracting lamp shade.

COFFEE ROASTER.—**F. SVO**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a coffee roaster, and the object is to provide a coffee roaster, and the object is to provide a coffee roaster, and the object is to provide a coffee roaster.

SOUP HOLDER.—**E. SVO**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a soup holder, and the object is to provide a soup holder, and the object is to provide a soup holder, and the object is to provide a soup holder.

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to permit ready access to the articles contained therein.

FLOOR SHEET.—**F. HANSEN**, Palmer, N. Y. The invention has for its object the provision of a floor sheet, and the object is to provide a floor sheet, and the object is to provide a floor sheet, and the object is to provide a floor sheet.

RETRACTING LAMP SHADE.—**HOLDER**, 100 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention has for its object the provision of a retracting lamp shade, and the object is to provide a retracting lamp shade, and the object is to provide a retracting lamp shade.

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projection of the plate series the inventor supplements the above mentioned parts with a taking off roll and the deflector is made of the flange from the feed roll thus acting in a manner substantially opposite to that of the power roll, which is, in effect, a "putting on" roll.

STIRRE GOODS LIFTER.—J. BUTLER, 1602 2nd St. Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention relates to stirrer for goods and has particular reference to lifters adapted more particularly for the manipulation of bottles or cans of commodities in stores or the like. The lifter is intended to be easier and more reliable in use than those usually employed. The several parts of the device may be made of various suitable materials.

FIRING APPARATUS FOR SUBMARINE MINER.—G. E. ELIA, Rome, Italy. The invention relates more particularly to firing apparatus of that type wherein the firing mechanism is controlled by one or more movable members so arranged on the exterior of the mine as to be moved by a vessel coming into contact with such members. The firing of the explosives is effected by the upward movement of the mine through a fluid but not in contact with respect to the anchor cable when the means for holding the mine down is released.

GRINDING WHEEL TRIMMING MECHANISM.—W. F. WARD, Erie, Pa. The invention relates to mechanisms applicable to the grinding of gear grinding wheels for maintaining the operative surfaces thereof perfectly uniform for action on successively teeth but it is not to be understood as limited to that use in such connection as it may be employed for the trimming of any grinding means having the operative surface continually shaped to suit the surface of the ground.

VALVE.—H. FRIDMAN, care of Franklin Plumbing Co. Franklin, Ohio. The invention provides a valve for controlling the flow of a supply system for controlling the operation of a pump operated by the water from a city main or other main supply for supplying soft water from a cistern or other controlled to fixtures, wherein the valve is controlled by the pressure of the said soft water.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.
INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.—J. S. WALKER, care of Savannah, Ill. Co. Savannah, Tenn. The invention relates more particularly to features of the four cycle type the general object being to provide a structure in which increased power may be obtained and which will at the same time still but minimum change or departure from the usual construction.

TWO CYCLE ENGINE.—J. I. MANNING, 331 High St. Jacksonville, Fla. In this engine the deflector plate carried by the piston to direct the incoming gases toward the head of the cylinder is given an axial shape with a view to causing the incoming gases to enter in such a way as to keep them separated from the burning gases of combustion and obviate any tendency of the incoming gases to pass out through the exhaust conduit with resultant waste of fuel and loss of power.

CARBURETOR.—W. C. CHURCH, 260 South 10th St. Newark, N. J. This carburetor makes special provision for increasing the proportion of air supplied per unit of explosive mixture as the speed of the engine or its equivalent is increased and also for enabling the operator to adjust the moment of the proportion to suit varying loads and variations of speed and load.

STARTING DEVICE.—J. H. GARDNER, 1210 1st St. The device is so constructed that not only will the starting shaft and its parts be rotated thereby to turn the crank shaft of the engine but automatically disengaged from the power shaft in the event of failure, but also, engagement of the starting shaft with the crank shaft will be entirely prevented until the starting crank is making its up stroke, and maintained as long thereafter as necessary.

CARBURETOR.—P. G. HODGSON, 248 11th North Ave. Boston, Mass. The invention provides a carburetor in which the carburetor charge is so intimately mixed with the fuel as to be in the best possible condition for use in internal combustion engines. In this device the carburetor charge is positively forced into the intake manifold, thereby obviating all danger of an insufficient supply of the charge due to poor suction in the cylinder or the engine for its own exhaust.

WATER MOTOR.—J. W. PRINCE, Salt Lake City. The invention provides a motor which includes a plurality of movable arms carrying floats and arms having movable with respect to the shaft of the motor, whereby as the wheel is caused to rotate due to the travel of the floats in the flowing body, said arms will be elevated and their ends vertically disposed, thus increasing the leverage of the upper portions of the arms tending to offer less resistance and assist in the continuous rotation of the motor.

OSCILLATING ENGINE.—J. P. HOSKINS, 261 P St. St. Louis, Mo. This invention relates to an oscillating piston type wherein the pistons are designed to oscillate. It provides a structure which will use a minimum volume of compression gas for providing a maximum power and also a minimum movement of the piston.

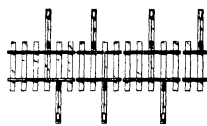
ENGINE.—D. BERRY, Anchor Bay, Okla., U. S. Cal. This invention relates to engine

of the reciprocating type wherein water, steam, air, or other fluid may be used as the motive medium. The objects are to improve and simplify the construction and operation of an engine of this character so as to be efficient in use and so designed as to develop great power.

Railways and Their Accessories.

AUTOMATIC ELECTRIC BLACK SIGNALING SYSTEM.—M. C. CONNOR and W. C. KAGAN, address the General Electric Co. 107 E. Main St. Window City. On object here is to provide a system in which the road is divided up into blocks each block being provided with semaphores or signals, at the ends thereof so that an oncoming train may not the same and by coming into the block may see the signals.

AUTOMATIC TRAIN CONTROL.—C. H. LAMBERT, care of Byron Mill, Okla. Wash. Among the objects of the invention is to provide a roadway with a continuous series of signals arranged in pairs the signals of each pair being on opposite sides of the roadway.



AUTOMATIC TRAIN CONTROL

track and spaced at a distance equivalent to two blocks the signals of the next pair being arranged to lap over or break joints with the preceding pair, whereby a reliable interlocking block signal system is provided.

RAILROAD TIE.—J. F. FRANK, Rome, Va. An object of this invention is to provide a tie, including means whereby the rails may be secured thereon said means affording a rail seat having a certain amount of resilience and affording a common point for the contraction and expansion of the rails due to changes in the temperature.

INSULATED RAIL JOINT.—J. F. WARD, Newark, Ind. The invention deals more particularly with the insulating plates that are interposed between the rail sections and the fish plates. An object is the provision of an insulating plate which is capable of adapting itself for rails of different widths so that it is necessary to have only one size of insulating plate for the various sizes of rails now in use.

AUTOMATIC TRAIN STOP.—M. C. WARD, 560 West 2nd Ave. New York, N. Y. The invention provides means located along the road side adapted to cooperate with devices carried by the locomotive whereby when the switch is open the signal is inoperative at all danger or other occasion demanding the train to be stopped, a normally closed electric circuit controlling certain signal devices upon the locomotive will be broken by the breakage of a mechanical device acting to control both the front and rear of the air line leading from the brake mechanism.

ANTI-FRICTION ROLLER SKID.—J. A. LAKE, 3422 Hall Ave. Bronx, N. Y. N. Y. The invention relates to an improved anti-friction roller skid adapted for use with freight cars or the like having sliding doors, so as to



ANTI-FRICTION ROLLER SKID

be interposed with relation to the doors and rollers provided in the car in order to prevent the door to be more readily opened and with and the means of locking or disengaging the door and imparting the contents of the car.

RAILWAY STATION INDICATOR.—R. GARDNER and S. L. HAYES, 514 E. 1st St. New York, N. Y. The invention provides an apparatus and means connecting the same with the running gear of a vehicle in such a manner as to provide means for controlling, disengaging, and resending the operation of said apparatus, provide an automatic locking and means for releasing the same on strains, and for avoiding the misoperating thereof, and provide means for winding and unwinding said ribbon, to compensate for the initial increase and decrease in diameter of the rolls for supporting said ribbon.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

REFUEL WAGON.—S. GARNER, Lodi, N. J. The purpose here is to provide a wagon arranged to permit of emptying the refuse-carrying receptacle in the wagon and con-

veniently distributing the refuse therein with out danger of causing undesirable dust to escape from the wagon during the storing and distributing of the refuse therein.

HEADLIGHT ATTACHMENT FOR AUTO.—J. H. HARRIS, 1472 E. 114th Place, Cleveland, Ohio. This attachment is pivoted and operatively connected with the lamp from the wagon during the storing and distributing of the refuse therein, and thus at all times direct the rays of light in the direction of the vehicle.

SPRING WHEEL.—J. L. HEYMAN, Fayetteville, Tenn. The invention is an improvement in vehicle wheels, more particularly such as are used on automobiles, in which a spring supported and yieldable rim or tread surrounds, and is spaced concentrically from, a rigid inner frame or wheel.

AUTOMOBILE FENDER.—J. F. WALKER, address Hubbard & Schindlerkamp, Room 1315 Stern Blvd. Quincy, Ill. The invention provides a fender including an upper and a lower section which are hingedly supported upon brackets readily attachable to and detachable from the body of a motor vehicle, and which sections may be supported in various degrees of vertical adjustment and may be folded upon and against another section when desired.

SIGNAL FOR MOTOR VEHICLES.—L. L. LOTT, 1553 California St. San Francisco, Cal. This invention provides a combined sign and light device which is adapted for indicating the direction in which an automobile is about to turn, and which, when not indicating the direction of movement of the vehicle, may be used to illuminate the sign bearing the registration number.

VULCANIZER.—E. C. SCHWENK, care of E. B. Barker Attorney, Elkhart, Ind. This invention is an improvement in vulcanizers and has for its object the provision of a transportable device for vulcanizing rubber articles to be carried in an automobile or other vehicle and capable of use for repairing damaged tires and the like.

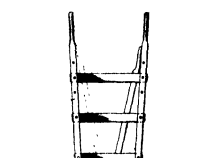
WHEEL.—A. McKEITH, Downsville, Cal. The tread portion of the wheel is elastically maintained in order to permit of its bending with respect to the body of the wheel and does away with the use of a pneumatic tire the object of the invention being to provide a structure particularly well adapted to the most difficult terrain supporting the tread portion of the wheel, whereby to form a strong and durable wheel.

VEHICLE WHEEL.—W. H. SMITH, Jr. 1014 1st St. New Brunswick, N. J. In vehicle wheels as they are now constructed most of the breakage takes place on the rebound. The weakness is done away with by Mr. Smith's wheel, for on the rebound the members which are of the usual leaf spring type will not break but on the contrary they will straighten. This removes the danger of rupture on the rebound of the spring.

PROTECTIVE WRAPPER FOR INNER TIRES.—J. BERNARD, 200 W. 60th St. New York, N. Y. The invention relates to a wrap per which is used to carry a spare inner tube on an automobile. It more especially relates to a wrapper having a means for receiving the projecting valve element and covering the same in a manner to effectively prevent the same from chafing the tire.

WAGON PLATFORM.—J. H. HARRISON, 11th Avenue N. D. In this instance the purpose of the invention is to provide a platform for hauling materials requiring a very low wagon which platform can be attached to any sized and make of wagon and can be easily attached to or detached from a wagon.

TRUCK.—E. B. BROWN, care of North American Fruit Exchange, Cocon, Fla. This invention has reference to hand trucks for use in moving boxes and packages of various sizes and more particularly designed for the han-



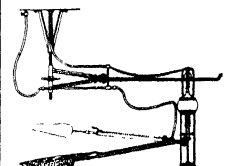
TRUCK FOR HANDLING FRUIT BOXES.

dling of citrus fruit boxes having panel heads, such as oranges and lemons packed in. The truck has an arrangement whereby the arms may be operated by a lever or spring or release.

TRUCK.—S. BOTTING, 1815 Fifteenth St. N.W. Washington, D. C. One of the principal objects here is to provide an extensible center post having means adapted to cooperate with swiveling sides and end gates comprising hinged upper and lower sections for maintaining said sides and end gates in upright or lowered posi-

tion, whether one section of the sides and end gates are to be held in upright or lowered position, or both sections are to be maintained in said positions.

CLEANING MACHINE.—P. KILLPATRICK, 223 W. Madison Ave. Chicago, Ill. The purpose of the invention is to provide a machine especially adapted for cleaning automobiles and like vehicles, wherein mechanism is provided for supporting a cleaning machine in such manner that the said medium may be applied to any part of the vehicle without the necessity of crawling beneath the same, and wherein a constant stream of water may be applied upon the cleaning medium during the operation of cleaning.



CLEANING MACHINE FOR VEHICLES

ner that the said medium may be applied to any part of the vehicle without the necessity of crawling beneath the same, and wherein a constant stream of water may be applied upon the cleaning medium during the operation of cleaning.

STEERING WHEEL.—M. M. HANCOCK, 1645 Miller St. Utica, N. Y. The invention pertains to automobiles, with a particular reference to the steering wheel thereof, and the main object is to provide a steering wheel which is movable out of its normal relationship with the steering column.

WHIFFLETRIE CLIP AND HOOK.—J. H. DYSON, Apartment 402, 4200 Broadway, New York, N. Y. The invention provides a clip and hook arranged to permit of conveniently engaging the traces with the hook of removing the same therefrom, prevents the traces from becoming accidentally detached, reduces the wear between the clip and hook to a minimum, and allows replacing the wearing parts by new ones in such wearing parts are worn out.

SPRING SPOKE WHEEL.—P. HINCKEL and R. H. SPARK, Ashland, Ky. This invention relates to vehicle wheels of that type in which the spokes are made of springs, so that solid rubber tires or equivalent tread elements may be employed and still provide a resiliently

which for all practical purposes is as satisfactory as that afforded by the pneumatic tire, but without the disadvantages of the latter, as to cost, high upkeep charges, liability to accidents, etc.

DESIGNS.
DESIGN FOR A DESK.—L. O. FISHER and COGN D. MANN, address the latter 165 Broadway, New York, N. Y. In this ornamental design for a desk the name of the inventor from the side and perspective opposite side.

NOTE.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the Scientific American for one cent each. Please state the name of the patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

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The Art of Deception in War

(Continued from page 124.)

uniforms designed about two years ago are far less conspicuous than the trap-pings of old.

Just as the crumbe changes his coat from brown to white with the approach of winter, so the infantry regiments of Germany and Austria change their uniforms. Some of the Austrian regiments, for example, are expected to perfect themselves in tactics which will prove particularly useful in mountainous country. Accordingly, the men are trained to use skis. More to the point, however, they are clad in white, so that they are absolutely indistinguishable from the snow beneath their feet.

This adaptation of the soldier to his surroundings extends not only to uniforms, but to all kinds of military equipment. During the Russian-Japanese War we found perhaps the first deliberate use of mimicry. The Japanese concealed their army transport wagons from distant telescopes by means of boughs, cunningly arranged, so that a long line of leafy wagons looked for all the world like a row of distant trees. In the present war this artifice is still more necessary because of the ubiquitous aeroplane. One of the accompanying illustrations shows how the Germans disguise their traction engines with trees. Seen from above, such a foliage-concealed train must surely deceive even the most practiced eye. The engines and the loads which they haul move so slowly that they must be taken for part of a surrounding forest of wood. Even the most skillful aeroplane scout finds it very difficult to distinguish cavalry from horse artillery. What must be his predicament when he is sent aloft to discover the movements of heavy tanks hauled by traction engines ingeniously concealed with a mass of foliage?

The necessity of tricking the air scout has been recognized for several years, so much so that in the German army, for example, it has been the practice during the maneuvers of recent years to exercise troops in the art of deceiving aircraft. This is more easily done than may be supposed. It seems not very difficult to mislead a pilot by ingenious groupings of troops as well as by actual concealment in bushes and woods. Two years ago an airship fell into the hands of its long-hair enemies, during the German maneuvers, chiefly because it had been fooled by this ploy.

The agents of the warring European powers entrusted with the purchase of horses have instructions to reject white and other conspicuously colored animals. But since the number of horses whose coats are not too shiny is increasingly limited, they cannot be too particular. The Germans have hit upon the idea of dyeing the coats of white cavalry horses, so that they may meet the military requirements that Nature had failed to observe.

The use of smokeless powder has simplified the art of deception. A battlefield embroiled in smoke, such as the painters of historic canvases love to depict, is an mechanism. Were it not so, any attempt at concealment would be almost ridiculous. As it is, artificial concealment in trees, with such devices that it is often hard to locate it. Even the momentary flash of the gun is not always visible if the screening is thick enough.

At sea, too, we find the same devices employed. In the old days of the sailing ship it was a common practice for East Indianers to paint dummy gun portholes on the sides of their vessels to frighten off Malay pirates as well as to intimidate the buccanniers of other nationalities. Thus, a merchant ship masqueraded as a man-of-war. Saugerties have converted brigas into brigantines and barbs into barkentines. In the present war these traditions of the sea have been not only employed to meet the requirements of streamers, but employed on a more elaborate scale. The German cruiser "Emden," for example, had three smokestacks. Because of them she was easily identified. To make recognition more difficult—necessary because of her commerce-destroying

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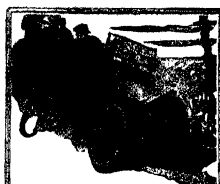
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ment. For years efforts have been made to devise some sort of a relay for telephone transmission. Comparatively recently several types of relays have been developed, and we are informed that three relays were used on the transcontinental line, these being placed at Pittsburgh, Omaha, and Salt Lake City, respectively.

But, as to the nature of the relays, no information is obtainable at the present time because the inventions are still in the Patent Office. Ten years ago a patent was granted to Mr. Peter Cooper Hewitt on an invention which consisted in placing a mercury vapor tube in series with the transmitter and receiver of the telephone circuit. The vapor in the tube being ionized by a constant flow of current through it is sensitive to the slightest variations in the current, and acts like an automatic electric valve to amplify and "twist" the waves. As a device to use this invention has been acquired by the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, it is possible that this type of amplifier or an amplifier based on this principle was employed.

It will also be recalled that the Bell patents in connection with telephone communication has also been acquired, and it may be that the audion, which possesses features akin to those of the mercury amplifier might have been employed. However, these are mere surmises.

But neither the relay nor the loading coil tells the whole story. The line was brought to successful completion, only after conducting a most thorough and painstaking exploration of every detail and countless changes and improvements were made. It is not without reason, therefore, that the engineers who played a most important part in the aggregate.

Not only was the extension from Denver to San Francisco most carefully constructed, but a thorough electrical survey was made of the whole line from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Every foot of the line was electrically tested and measured. Slight changes were made in the position of the coils until a perfect balance was obtained throughout. The fact that Dr. Bell was able to talk over this enormous span with his original telephone instrument shows how much more depended upon the line than on the transmitting and receiving instruments.

To John J. Carby, the chief engineer, and to Bancroft Gherardi, the engineer of plant, is due great credit for linking our Atlantic coast with the Pacific. They added 100 miles of wire to the original 100 feet of the first telephone line without measurably impeding the transmission of the feeble voice currents. Of course there have been vast improvements. In transmitters and conversations could be heard much more clearly with the modern instrument. It is interesting to note that Dr. Bell himself was inclined to doubt that the replica of his old instrument would be equal to transmitting his message to San Francisco. Even he could scarcely believe that the transcontinental line was so perfectly balanced and so John J. Carby continued to talk into the old device by way of the 3000-mile line from New York to Omaha and back. Dr. Bell grew visibly excited. "Let me use the old instrument," he cried, and he hurried into the room where Mr. Carby was talking. The two men changed places, and this time Dr. Bell talked into the old instrument, while Mr. Carby listened at the modern telephone. That was enough. He was convinced. "It is wonderful!" he said, "Simply wonderful!"

War Uses of the Motorcycle

(Continued from page 128)

metal attachments which pass similarly from one side spring to the other, and these are made to swing around on a pivot so as to allow the bearer of the bottom stretcher to walk right through the sidecar. Tubular stanchions are fitted at the five extreme corners of the framework, and these carry a waterproof cover, or

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rowing, which is held in position by two buttons. The rear outside stanchion is made to swing down, so that there is no undue lift while placing the side stretcher in position. Among the several salient features of the motorcycle ambulance, its extreme mobility is prominent, as the machine can turn in 10 feet, as against 30 feet required by a motorcar ambulance. It can travel wherever a motorcar can travel, and to a great number of places that a motorcar ambulance could not go. True to its lightness, this machine has two distinct advantages. In the first place, it can, with the assistance of rider and attendant, surmount obstacles which would stop any ordinary motorcar ambulance; second, it is much less likely to become bogged, but even in such an eventuality the machine can easily be pushed out by the rider and attendant. There is an economy in fuel consumption, as, during trials recently carried out by the British military authorities in the Tyne-side district, an average of 55 to 65 miles per gallon (American) has been obtained, as against 12 to 17 miles, which is the average with standard motorcar ambulances. As will be gathered from the illustrations, the machine can be loaded and unloaded in the minimum of time, and the whole arrangement contributes to the comfort of the wounded passengers.

Flammarion Talks on the Sun

ON the night of July 22nd, 1914—the summer solstice—the Astronomical Society of France, in accordance with its custom of ten years' standing, assembled on the Eiffel Tower in Paris to celebrate the Festival of the Sun. The war clouds had yet gathered on the horizon. Some two hundred persons, members of the society and others—the guests of M. Eiffel—sat down to a banquet, fittingly inaugurated by a magnificent sunset. In the light of which all Paris spread out beneath the gaze of the assemblage, resembled a fairy spectacle. The occasion was made more interesting than usual by the fact that the famous Tower was celebrating its twenty-fifth birthday, and also by the presence at the festival of several delegates to the first "Congress of Practical Astronomical Societies," which, with representatives from various parts of France and also from Tunis, Basel, Barcelona, Antwerp, and Brussels, held its formal sessions at the Observatoire of Paris, June 22nd-24th. The notes which followed, and which is described in glowing language in *L'astronome* (the monthly bulletin of the society), was a delightful and truly Parisian mingling of the intellectual and the artistic.

The veteran Flammarion, around whom the Astronomical Society of France revolves as the solar system around the sun, spoke in part as follows: It is the Festival of the Sun which brings us together here each year at the summer solstice—the sun which a happy metaphor of Theon of Smyrna, preserved by Copernicus, named "the heart of the universe," whose worship lies at the base of all religions. From those of the Aryans, the Persians, and the Chaldeans to those of the Greeks and the Romans, and toward whose rising were oriented the temples of the ancients as well as the choirs of Christian churches. Alas, we know that religious faith has long since lost its hold on the affairs of our modern life, and that the churches of today are aligned to suit the plan of our streets! We know that the Madeleine faces south (though, to be sure, it was planned by Napoleon as a temple of glory and not as a church); St. Augustin faces east, or, correctly speaking, the Boulevard Malesherbes; la Trinité looks to the south and the rue de la Chapelle d'Antin; Notre Dame de Lorette faces the rue Lafayette, etc. The true churches constructed according to canonical rules are the old ones: Notre Dame, St. Julien le Pauvre, St. Séverin, St. Eustache, etc., and all the old village churches and humble manoirs. Well might we prefer the devout pagans of old to the modern Christians; for in the ancient temples of the Nile valley the rays of the rising sun smote, through a range

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new spectroheliographs, one of which shows us, for example a mass of hydrogen in the solar envelope drawn and sucked toward a sunspot at a speed of 200,000 miles an hour. A nebula moving at this speed would carry us from the earth to the moon in a little over an hour. The glowing surface of the orb of day is a pandemonium—fantastic and indescribable.

Let us stop with this picture before us. I wished only to remind you that in coming here once a year, at the summer solstice to celebrate the Fête of the Sun, we are paying homage to the powerful ruler of all terrestrial life.

[The reader who wishes more tangible information on the profound theme of M. Flammarion's quasi-poetical address will find it in Prof. Harte's article, "The Earth and Sun as Magnets," published in the last annual report of the Smithsonian Institution p. 145 ff. —Editor.]

NEW BOOKS, ETC.

THE SOURCE, CHEMISTRY AND USE OF WATER. By Prof. H. B. Bailey. Ph.D. Philadelphia. P. Blakiston's Co. & Co., 1914. 12mo; 517 pp. Price, \$1.00 net.

The author attempts to bring together in one volume of convenient size the more important facts in regard to that which we eat and drink. Many of these facts are not shared through a multitude of books pamphlets and scientific reports which are not readily accessible to the general public. It is not intended as a book which would tell one how to become a farmer or market gardener but it does give the general principles of food production and preparation in such a way that the reader may have a practical knowledge as to what constitutes a good food. It is not only a book which would serve as a text in its composition and appearance that we can hope for an improvement in the general food supply. When this knowledge is widely disseminated public opinion will go far toward correcting any abuses that will exist in the food market. For pure food laws are but the crystallized sentiment of the united protest of the people against unwholesome and fraudulent products. The book is sufficiently complete to serve as a text for students of foods in our colleges and high schools and there is no subject which will better repay the study. The book is very well gotten up. The illustrations are carefully chosen.

LINK MOTIONS, VALVES AND VALVE SETTING. By Fred H. Colvin. New York: The Norman M. Houder, Publishing Company, 1914. 24mo., 101 pp. Price, 50 cents.

A handy book for the engineer or mechanic that clears up the mystery of valve setting. Shows the different valve gears in use how they work, and why. Plots and slide valves of different types are illustrated and explained. A book that every railroad man in the motive power department ought to have. Contains chapters on "Automatic Link Motion," "Valve Movement," "Setting Slide Valves," "Analysis by Diagrams," "Modern Practice," "Slip of Block Slide Valves," "Platen Valves," "Setting Platen Valves," "Joy-Alieu Valve Gear," "Walsley Valve Gear," "Goosch Valve Gear," "Allfree-Russell Valve Gear," etc.

REVIEW. With Tolstoy, Port Arthur and Peking. By Carl Baedeker. Leipzig: Carl Baedeker, 1914. 18mo., 590 pp. Price, \$4.50 net.

The Handbook for Russia is now issued in English for the first time, and will be welcomed not only by those who wish to travel after the war is over in the Russian Empire but also for those who have wished for a long time for a standard book of reference and travel for Russia. Russia is undoubtedly one of our best countries, which to travel with the aid of this book we think the traveler will have very little more trouble than in visiting the most fertile of countries. Like all the Baedeker handbooks information is based upon the personal observation of the editor and his associates and is given in a clear and concise manner with a view of preserving the best possible information. Like all of the other guides the maps are the finest and most complete of the cartographer's art. There now remains only one Baedeker's guide which cannot be obtained in the English language: this is the Cambridge and Asia Minor. It is to be hoped that this will also be published in English in due time after the inevitable readjustments are made on the maps. A complete set of Baedeker's guides from an unrivaled collection of books of travel. As an example of good book-making, these guides are all models.

ANGLICAN ACQUAINTANCE. By Thomas W. Corbin. Philadelphia: David McKay, 1914. 128 pp., with diagrams and photographs. Price, 75 cents. Always aimed at the ubiquitous "man-in-the-street," this explanation is so brightly written so simply threaded that a fourteen-year-old boy will have no difficulty in understanding and enjoying it. It discusses in separate divisions, both separate and simply setting forth the principles and the distinctive characteristics of the leading types of British authorship. The work is rather in line of American claims to pre-eminence, at least in more modern developments, but the papers will serve the purpose of a popular exposition and carry illustrations of admirable clearness.

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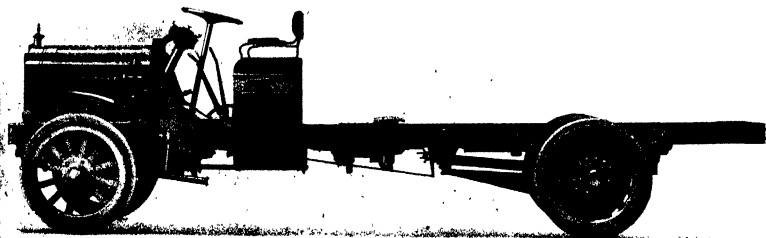
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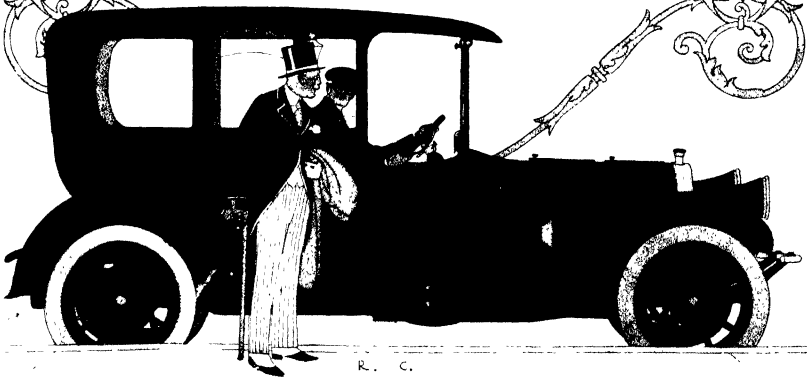
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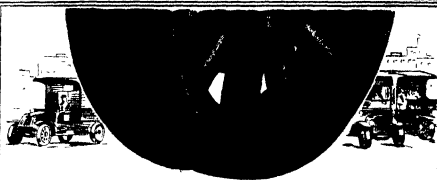


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Vol. CXX. No. 7
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THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

VOLUME CXL
NUMBER 7

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 13, 1915

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Kammerlingh Onnes, the Dutch Specialist in Cold

IN the issues of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN and SUPPLEMENT AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT of August 26th, 1914, there were presented accounts of the work at the Cryogenic Laboratory, which is experimenting with very low temperatures, those of liquid hydrogen and helium, of which Heike Kammerlingh Onnes is director. The institution is a division of the Laboratory of Physics of the Royal University of Leyden in Holland. The account in the SUPPLEMENT treats specifically of the work of the laboratory, using material that is still in manuscript or thesis form. It is the intention here to speak of Onnes himself, who is not only the leader in a new department in science, but who has created the department, which includes in its investigations some of the most interesting researches of modern times.

Everyone has heard of liquid air and liquid hydrogen, helium, neon, argon and other gases, and of the solidification of some of them. It is this region of science that Onnes has chosen for his field, and here he has erected for himself and for his university a monument that may well be recorded with pride by his countrymen, celebrated as they are for remarkable investigations. The institution is unique and in a new niche in science, so new that a new word has been coined to describe it, Cryogenics. The root, *kryos*, meaning very cold, is familiar to everyone in the word, crystal, which is a cold form of matter, while students in the high schools will have seen the mineral, Cryolite, which suggests ice and cold in its form, and will perhaps remember the cryophorus, a little instrument of glass with liquid in two bulbs. When one bulb is held in the hand the liquid is driven into the other one by the bodily heat, and as it goes it leaves behind it a very distinct sensation of cold in the palm of the experimenter.

Heike Kammerlingh Onnes was born in Groningen, Holland, September 2nd, 1859, and has spent his life within the limits of that kingdom. He has come to public attention within half a year as the recipient of the Nobel prize for physics. He was a student at Groningen University, receiving the degree (Ph.D.) in 1879, being at the time assistant in the Polytechnicum at Delft. In 1881, two years following his post-graduate work, Onnes was called to the chair of physics at the University of Leyden, and he is there to-day.

Within two years of his installation as professor of physics, Onnes began his studies of very low temperatures. His reason for selecting this he states himself in the "Abstracts" published by his department. He says: "For two years I have bestowed all my available time upon an investigation of the liquefaction of condensed gases in order to make physical experiments on

liquid baths of the very lowest temperatures possible," and in further description he notes that "I was induced to experiment with the condition of gases by the study of van der Waal's law of corresponding states." A little further light is shed on the origin of the researches by the friend and fellow worker of Onnes, Prof. Oomme, a media, conservator of the Physical Laboratory, who notes that most of the properties of substances depend upon thermal molecular activity, and that this becomes weaker at low temperatures. The activity gives rise to some phenomena, and these oftentimes obscure what it is desirable to observe. At low temperatures, therefore, when the activities are slight, there are more favorable opportunities to observe the behavior of the bodies themselves.

In 1894 Onnes describes his infant laboratory, and in excusing its smallness says that only a little of the funds of the Physical Laboratory could be afforded for its maintenance. In later years there has often been mention of its growth, but this in a very modest way, so that public attention has not been drawn to it, and

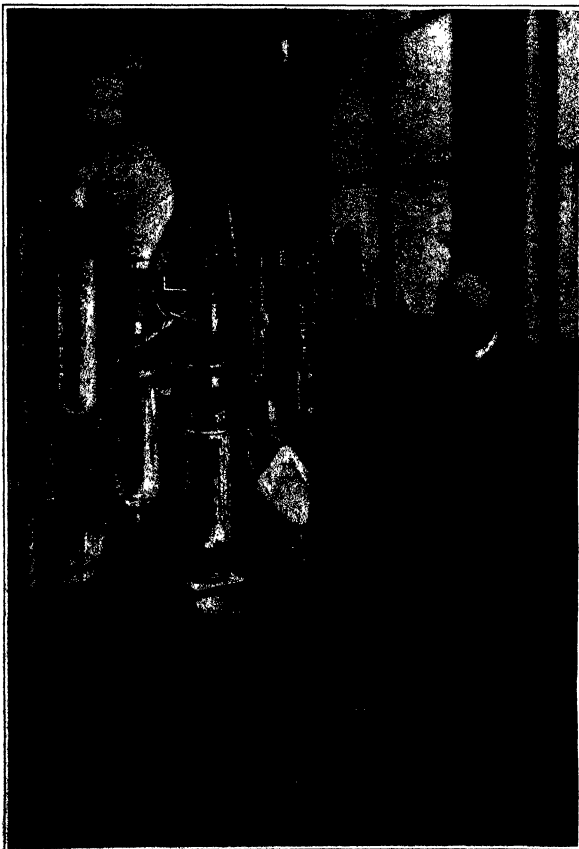
it is most probable that the account of it in the SUPPLEMENT of August 26th is the first of the kind in English.

The modesty that has characterized the announcements of the Cryogenic Laboratory is characteristic of the man, Onnes, and this explains why, when the notice was given last winter of the Nobel award to him, there was no one in the popular world who knew about him. The newspapers of two continents had hardly more than a perfunctory notice, while the Who's Who upon which the press leans very much in personal matters, gave him scant space. The English one had but four lines of biography in 1913, with a single sentence of commendation credited to him, "The liquefaction of helium." The German one was quite as laconic, while the French, "Qui êtes vous?" makes no mention whatever. By the same token he is not on the roll of complimentary membership of the American Academy, although this society is pretty wide awake in honoring foreign special workers in science.

The larger principles of laboratory policy were presented in the SUPPLEMENT article, and it will here suffice to take up the general lines of investigation which this remarkable man has pursued. As early as 1894, when the laboratory began to publish its "Abstracts," Onnes had printed two papers on methylchloride, which were toward making practical its use as a refrigerant, and in 1900 he presented "Remarks on the Liquefaction of Hydrogen." Then his attention was diverted for a moment to the technique of his work, and he invented a method for illuminating the scales of the instruments that were to be read by reflection, and in 1906 devoted considerable time to the adapting of manometers to the special work of measuring pressure of gases at low temperatures. The field was a new one and the way had to be felt out. It was necessary to invent new methods, to devise new instruments, and these were developed as lower and lower temperatures became more practicable. About this time the need of a name for the kind of investigation was evident, and the word, Cryogenics, first appears in print.

For the ensuing ten years gases, conditions of gases, and measurement of gases at low temperatures constituted the principal work of Onnes. Then there came the testing of glass for apparatus, and presently manometry came into the field. Then work on the thermometry of gases and ever and anon the return to the fundamental proposition the law of van der Waals.

In 1907 fourteen papers are credited to Onnes, with more than half as many more with collaborators, and this comes to another and a very important matter developed by Onnes, the placing of his personal stamp on all the investigations in the new science. The policy of



Prof. Onnes in his laboratory at Leyden.

(Continued on page 164.)

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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Problem of the Slides at Culebra

IN the construction of a highway, it became necessary to make a cut through a huge dump which had been formed by the debris created by material from some large engineering work, the road builder would encounter conditions broadly analogous to those which exist on the Panama Canal at Culebra. Let us suppose that the dump consisted of clay, earth, and soft rock interspersed with boulders of large size, and that in opening the cut this miscellaneous material had to be cut through. The contents of the dump before the cutting commenced would be in a state of equilibrium and the various materials would exert one another in strata or masses, at various angles and in a condition of great confusion.

As soon as excavation commenced, the equilibrium of these masses would be disturbed. Where the material encountered was loose in character and possessed little cohesion, it would tend to slide into the cut until the slides had assumed various angles of repose corresponding to the natural slope of that material. It is conceivable that if the dump had been formed many years before operations commenced, some of the material, such, for instance, as the clay and mud, having solidified, would stand up, when it was first exposed, at an angle or slope which that material could not maintain after it had been subjected to the influence of the weather. There would be a general disintegration; cracks would open some distance back from the edge of the cutting, and there would be a vertical subsidence and a lateral flow of the material, tending to fill up the cutting. Where huge boulders had been blown into the original dump, or masses of broken rock were encountered, the sides of the cutting would probably stand at the angle determined upon. Broadly speaking, the conditions of the equilibrium assumed by the materials in the dump when it was first made, would be destroyed by the opening of the cut and it would have to be left to the operations of the laws of gravity, frictional resistance, etc., to determine the final equilibrium for the walls of the cut to reach a permanent slope.

Now, speaking very broadly, it may be said that conditions at the Culebra cut are analogous to those in our supposed cutting through a dump which had been long enough in existence to have reached a condition of repose. The isthmus of Panama consists of a mixture of volcanic and non-volcanic material, the latter consisting of the mud silt which in the course of ages accumulates on the bottom of the ocean. Originally, this marine deposit lay in fairly parallel and level strata above the underlying rock. Gradually the whole mass was raised by volcanic action above the level of the surrounding ocean until the isthmus of Panama was formed. Subsequent volcanic action, resulting in upheaval, caused the igneous rock to be thrust up in places through the overlying marine-deposited material. This upheaval was very irregular, and consequently the overlying mass of softer soil has been thrown into all manner of confused and more or less broken strata, through which, in such places as Gold Hill, the volcano-rock protrudes.

Now, this confusion would not have been so serious

a matter for the construction of the canal, had the whole of the isthmus been geologically older than it is, and had the softer rock had sufficient time to become thoroughly hardened and solidified. As matters stand, it has been found that wherever the volcanic rock is encountered or wherever the depth of the cut is not too great, the sides of the cut stand at the angle determined upon by the engineers when the plans of excavation were drawn up. But in the deep cutting through the divide at Culebra, the softer material has persistently refused to stand at the arbitrary slope determined upon by the engineers, and has shown a disposition to keep sliding into the canal or breaking away in vertical sections, until a much flatter angle, corresponding to the angle of repose of the particular material at the place of sliding, has been reached.

When water was first turned into the canal it looked as though conditions of equilibrium had been reached, or, at least, approached, throughout the whole of the Culebra cut, but subsequently, serious slides have developed on each side of Gold Hill, which forms the ridge of the mountain divide and is the deepest point of excavation throughout the canal. The first great slide was a reoccurrence of the activity at the old Cucaracha slide to the south of Gold Hill. The present slide exists in the soft material to the north of Gold Hill. It is a slide of well-recognized character and it presents no novel difficulty. Its removal is merely a matter of time and patience.

In a recent interview, Colonel Goethals informed us that the break, about 2,000 feet in length, has occurred about 250 feet back of the edge of the bank at a point where the latter is 250 feet in depth. This mass has settled vertically, and the foot of it has crowded into "Gold Hill," as the present line of the 2,000 feet of the cut is giving any trouble. Here the powerful dredges have opened out a channel which is constantly increasing in width and depth. The material of the slide is being taken through the canal to Gatun Lake and there dumped, the work of removal being done at the low cost of 35 cents per cubic yard. According to Colonel Goethals, no new problem is involved in the present trouble, or at least he expressed it, in the conditions that, more than anything else, for steady dredging and patience.

Is There Any Defense Against the Submarine?

IF we may judge from the number of queries that came to this office, the most interesting technical question of the war, just now, in the minds of the American public, is whether there is any possible means of defense against the submarine. The present article is an attempt to answer this question.

In the first place let it be accepted, once and for all, that if a submarine, and particularly one of the German type, can get within point blank range of the enemy, the ship attacked will either be sent to the bottom or it will be of military usefulness with the exception of many a long month to come. One of the most striking evidences of German forethought was their designing of a special type of submarine torpedo, having a limited range of only 3,200 yards, but carrying no less than 420 pounds of high explosive in the warhead. The fact that every warship which has been struck by German submarine torpedoes has gone to the bottom, is conclusive evidence of the terrible efficiency of these weapons.

Protection against the submarine may be sought both in the defensive and offensive direction. One of the principal efforts of naval constructors for many years past has been to afford such effective defensive protection, by means of extensive subdivision below the waterline, that the influx of water from a torpedo explosion would be limited—so limited, in fact, that the ship would remain afloat and proved to not under its own steam. The rapid sinking of the "Aboukir," "Cressy," "Hogue" and "Formidable" and later of the "Audacious" (which, even if it was struck by a mine, resolved a blow but little greater, probably, than that delivered by the first of submarine torpedoes) has shown beyond all dispute that the submarine, if it once gets within effective range, has the mastery even of the most modern and largest of warships. It is our opinion that, no matter to what extent subdivision may be carried or how great a part of the displacement is sacrificed to torpedo-defense cofferdams or compartments—in view of the increasing size of the torpedoes, their increasing speed, and the possibility of a yet further increase in the explosive charge of its torpedoes, it will be impossible to render the warship of the future safe or even reasonably protected against submarine attack.

The speed of the submarine is generally so low as compared with that of modern warships, that the chances of its getting within striking range are very much smaller than the average layman would suppose. One of the principal lessons learned in this war is that high speed and quick maneuvering of the ship attacked, combined with a sharp lookout from the masthead, are a most effective protection. In calm weather, when the sea is fairly smooth, the course of the periscope of a submarine is clearly discernible by the long white streak of

broken water which it leaves behind. Naval men will tell you that, even when the periscope itself is submerged, there is a certain disturbance of the surface of the water, indicating the presence of a moving submerged body.

When a dreadought, battleship, or armored cruiser of first-class importance is steaming in submarine-infested waters, it should always be accompanied by destroyers, which have proved, in the operations in the North Sea, that they can "go" for a submarine with all the map and dash of a tariff after a rat. There have been several cases of successful ramming of submarines by destroyers, and one or two fairly well authenticated cases of the submarine being sunk by gun-fire as it came to the surface for observation.

The difficulty of detecting a submarine increases as the water grows rougher, and it will be remembered that the most successful attacks on large ships have been made in stormy weather, notably in the case of the "Formidable." The wish of the periscope then becomes very difficult to detect.

By far the most hopeful method of protection against this insidious form of attack is to be found, strange to say, in a new form of naval warfare and observation, the dirigible and the aeroplane. Experiments by our aviators during the occupation of Vera Cruz and at other points have shown that it is possible to detect a submarine, when the observer is two or three thousand feet in the air, at depths below the surface of the water which are positively surprising, the submarine being visible in clear and calm water, at a depth of fifty to one hundred feet. Now, a submarine which is contemplating an attack has to keep pretty close to the surface so as to "periscope," as it is called, swiftly and frequently, to take the position of the ships it attacks. In rough water vision is not so good, but the submarine can still be seen. Now here is a means of defense, the importance and possibilities of development of which can scarcely be overestimated. A squadron of aeroplanes thrown out in reconnaissance ahead of the fleet would, in any but thick or stormy weather, be an admirable defense against an enemy which "needs only to be seen" to be laughed at.

Regarding the submarine attack on merchant ships in the Irish Sea and elsewhere, it has to be admitted that such vessels are practically defenseless unless they keep a very sharp lookout and are able to show a clean pair of heels to the enemy, which only the faster ships can do. Just now, the development of this form of attack and the question of how it will be met is one of the most interesting problems of the war.

The Universal Distrust of the Shipping Bill

EVERY day brings additional evidence that the sentiment of the country is against the Government Merchant Ship Purchase and Ownership Bill. Most significant, because of its widely representative and highly authentic character, was the recent vote against the bill at the gathering in Washington of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, which put itself on record as opposing the measure by a vote of 161 to 90. And this vote, be it remembered, was cast in spite of the fact that Secretary of the Treasury McAdoo delivered at the meeting a most able speech in support of the measure. The New York Chamber of Commerce, equally emphatic in condemnation, has sent out a strong circular against the bill; and, as we go to press, we have received the following letter from Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin, a high authority on the merchant marine, whose articles on this subject in the *Scientific American* of October 3rd, 10th, and 17th of last year will be fresh in the minds of our readers.

Mr. Marvin writes:

"Your editorial admirably reasons out the case of the people against the ill-advised bill for Government purchase, ownership, and operation of merchant ships. As I write a large gathering of representative business men of Boston, of both political parties, in Faneuil Hall, has unanimously adopted resolutions condemning the measure on the grounds of its un-American and socialist and a peril to our flag. One of the speakers, Mr. Edwin G. Preston, representing the Chamber of Commerce, said that a Boston company that had just laid down two new ships, of 8,500 tons, would have ordered six ships but for the measure pending in Washington.

"It is manifest to all who live near the sea and have any familiarity with ocean trade that instead of income of this ill-considered scheme will reduce the facilities available for the carrying of our commerce. The Administration and Congress lost a great opportunity last August when they failed to take some real emergency step at the very outbreak of the war.

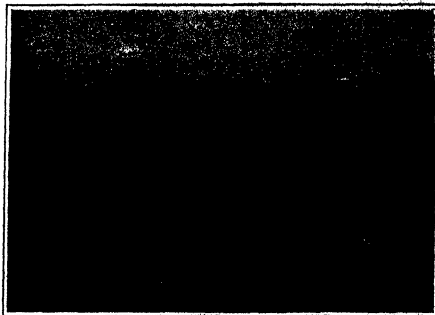
"As a result, then, of a fair compensation adequate to cover the difference between the cost of operation of American and foreign ships would have encouraged the immediate building in American yards of a fleet of cargo steamships, designed for auxiliary naval service as a fuel for in case of time of war. This ill-considered scheme will reduce the facilities available for the carrying of our commerce. The Administration and Congress lost a great opportunity last August when they failed to take some real emergency step at the very outbreak of the war.

"If those ships had been started last August they could have been completed a few months hence. They would have meant a real and valuable contribution to the war effort for the export of cotton, grain, and provisions. Their nationality would have been unquestioned. We should not be 'buying a goose' with cheap American ships.

"For this desperate failure to act with vigor, courage and patriotism, President Wilson and Secretary McAdoo are primarily responsible. No far-sighted Government ownership would have been pressed but for their inaction. The demand has people have a right to ask why this was so. No money has yet been given."



At work on the upstream end of the storm-water culvert. The gate tower under construction in the foreground.



Flood waters pouring into the intake of the big storm-water culvert leading under the dam.

Hydraulic Fill Dam for an Earthquake Region

Work on the Calaveras Reservoir of the San Francisco Water Supply

AT the time of the great San Francisco earthquake of 1906, the San Andreas rift, with a lateral movement of eight feet, passed through two dams without doing any damage. Had the dams been of concrete, undoubtedly they would have been shattered and would have plunged a flood upon the surrounding country. But they were made of earth, and yielded to the quaking without parting. In regions subject to seismic disturbances this is the only safe type of dam to build. Thus, at the Panama Canal we have, in place of a concrete barrier, an enormous hill of earth to retain the waters of the big Gatun Lake. A similar dam on a smaller scale is now under construction at the Calaveras Reservoir, about thirty-six miles southeast of San Francisco, where a mountain stream, which in time of storms swells to torrential proportions, is being dammed to provide a reservoir that will augment the water supply of San Francisco. The dam will rise 220 feet above the bed of the stream or 240 feet above bed rock. It will be a quarter of a mile wide at the base, or 1,312 feet, to be exact, tapering to a width of 25 feet at the crest, while its length at the crest will be 1,250 feet. Altogether there will be 3,100,000 cubic yards of material in the dam. The upstream face of the dam will be paved with concrete.

Owing to its enormous size, several years will be required to complete the work, and the matter which called for immediate attention on the part of the engineers was a means of passing the flood waters during the period of construction. The first work consisted in diverting the stream from its bed by means of

a temporary dam and a waste flume running along the hillside. The capacity of the flume was sufficient to carry off the summer flow. This done, work was immediately started on a storm culvert a quarter of a mile long, running down the bed of the stream from the upper toe through the entire dam site. This culvert is of horseshow shape with a cross-sectional area equivalent to that of a circle twenty feet in diameter. The first work consisted in placing the invert of the culvert, in which operation movable concrete mixers were employed. Twenty-six thousand two hundred and forty

cubic yards of material were excavated for the culvert foundations, and in order to keep bed rock contact and retain grades, the invert was in some places 12 feet thick.

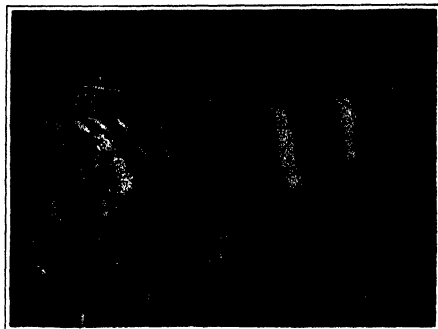
One of our photographs shows the work on the invert, while another shows the operation of building the arch. To prevent seepage along the conduit it was formed with "collars." The work was pushed with all haste during the time of low water, and was brought to completion in less than four months. For a large part of the time two ten-hour shifts were worked. The average

amount of concrete laid per shift was 120 cubic yards, with a maximum of 400 cubic yards. Altogether 19,087 cubic yards of concrete was laid in the construction of the culvert and its appurtenances. At the entrance to the culvert there is a low circular weir 40 feet in diameter which may be raised by flashboards, when desired, to regulate the depth of the pond above the dam for hydraulic operation, in time of small flow.

The sluicing operations with which the dam is being built are of considerable interest. To prevent seepage under the dam, the overburden was removed, exposing bed rock for a strip 140 feet wide along the center line of the dam. All excavated material was placed in the upstream toe to form a barrier across the channel and divert the flood water through the culvert. Directly under the crest of the dam, a cut-off trench 25 feet wide and 8 feet deep was excavated, and as the work of filling the dam progresses, this cut-off trench is being carried up the sides of the canyon. The material placed in



Discharging hydraulicked material at the downstream toe of the dam.

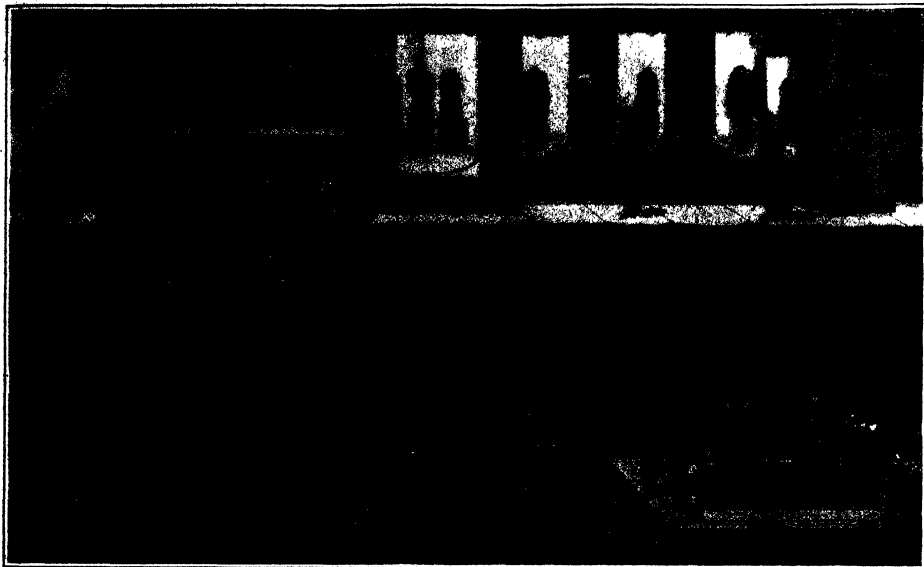


Forming the arch of the culvert. Note the "collars" to interrupt seepage.



Laying the invert of the storm-water culvert with a movable concrete mixer.

(Continued on page 154.)



Elevator show window system, showing how the store entrance is closed at night by a display case

Using a Store Entrance for Night Displays

Elevator Show Windows That are Dressed in the Basement

"A WINDOW display on Fifth Avenue is worth more than a page advertisement in all of the city's daily papers," said the buyer of a large New York department store, recently. He found that although such a display was not seen by so many people, it actually sold more goods. The window display is more in the nature of a class advertisement, because it is seen by those who are out to buy, and are interested in the very things exhibited in the show window. In addition to this it has a decided advantage over the advertisement in a daily paper. It requires a certain mental effort to construct from a word description and a black and white illustration a visual image of the goods that are for sale, and the appeal, no matter how cleverly worded, depends after all upon the ability of the reader to visualize the advertisement. In the show window, on the other hand, the goods are to be seen in actual life, in proper surroundings, in attractive settings and

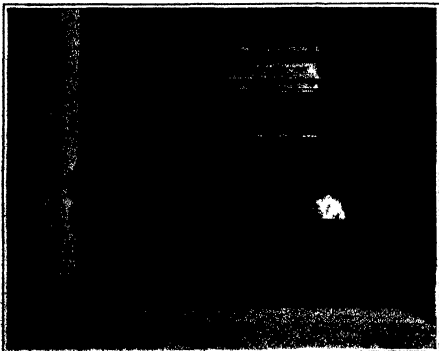
in a color scheme that it is impossible to reproduce in a newspaper.

So valuable has show-window advertising become that even the space given up to the entrance of a store is begrudged. One of the latest of New York's Fifth Avenue stores, that of the firm of Lord & Taylor, actually uses the entrance for display purposes. During the day there is absolutely nothing to betray the novel construction of the open vestibule. But at the close of day, when the entrance is no longer of any use to customers, passersby may see the floor of the vestibule begin to rise and presently a completely dressed show window emerges from the basement and lines up with the rest of the windows. And during the evening pedestrians gaze at an unbroken row of show windows, and unless they know what has been done are puzzled at not finding the slightest evidence of an entrance anywhere. The vestibule showcase remains in position until

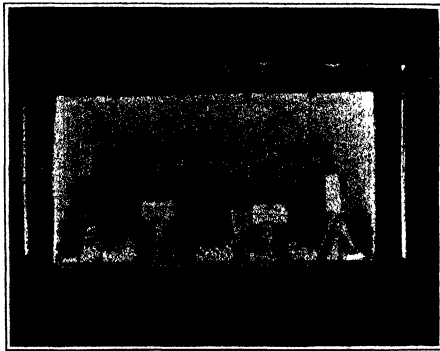
well into the night, when the deserted avenue renders it no longer of any advertising value. Then it is lowered to permit of sweeping the entrance, cleaning the plate glass of the doors and polishing the brass work. Thus everything is prepared for the business of the following day, and in the morning customers enter the store oblivious of the fact that they are walking on the roof of a show window.

At the bottom of this page are two photographs taken from exactly the same spot, one of them exposed during the day time and the other at night with the show window in place. This illustrates how completely the entrance is transformed. The manner in which this is done is shown in the accompanying drawing, in which the entrance showcase appears in the act of being raised. A hydraulic plunger elevator is used for the purpose.

A difficulty that the architects had to contend with



Day view. The floor of the store entrance is the roof of a show window.



Night view photographed from the same spot. The show window completely hides the entrance.

In design, as this elevating showcase was that of leakage in rain weather. The gutters were designed to carry off the water that might leak around the edges of the showcase roof when in lowered position, and also to take care of leakage around the bottom of the showcase when in elevated position. The form of the gutters used is shown in the drawing. Fixed gutters run around the elevator wall at the sidewalk level and are arranged to fit under the eaves of the showcase roof when the latter is lowered. At the bottom of the show window are other larger gutters arranged to fit under the fixed gutters when the showcase is raised and trap leakage past the fixed gutters. This system has proved effective in keeping an absolutely dry basement.

Not only is advantage taken of the entrance space, but at each side of the entrance are two narrow show windows with revolving floors or turntables. Each window may be divided by radial panels attached to the turntable, into four compartments, so that four displays may be made in the same window. The mechanism that operates the turntable is arranged to arrest the turning movement as each display comes into view, and hold it there for a minute or so after which the table turns sufficiently to bring the next display into view.

At each side of these revolving cases are two long show windows which like that of the entrances, are arranged to be lowered into the basement where the window dresser may arrange his display. The window dresser's chamber extends under the sidewalk along the entire front of the store and is well illumined in the daytime by sidewalk lights. Extending down the entire length of this chamber is a trackway on which a bridge or truck may run, running transversely are trackways adapted to receive window platforms mounted on rollers. The longitudinal trackway is sunk beneath the floor level so that a window platform may be moved out upon the track, and after being carried down the trackway to any desired window elevator, be moved on to the elevator and raised into the show window. Ample space is provided for a number of these platforms in addition to those on display in the show windows, so that the window dresser may prepare his entire set of displays in the basement in daylight and under such effect prepared, the elevators are operated to lower the window displays, which are quickly moved off upon the transfer truck and shunted out of the way, while the new displays take their place. The advantage of this arrangement is that it reduces night work which has heretofore been unavoidable, practically all the work is done during daylight hours, and only the work of exchanging the now for the old displays need be done at night.

All the elevating show windows use a hydraulic plunger elevator except the one shown at the extreme right of our drawing. There is a driveway that passes under this portion of the building making it impossible to use a plunger elevator, and hence an electric elevator is used in stead.

Altogether the system is most unique, and is an excellent example of efficient engineering as applied to store construction. We are indebted to the architects, Messrs. Starratt & Van Vleck, for details of the construction.

Military Air Scouting by Motion Pictures

By Ernest A. Dench

WHO would have thought that motion pictures could be sufficiently adaptable to prove an efficient aid to army aviators in their scouting work? Yet it is so, thus testifying to the versatility of the film.

Prior to this war experiments had been carried out by Germany, United States and Great Britain. However, Germany, doubt to the present time, appears to be the only nation to graduate the idea out of the experimental stage.

Their aviators make it their business to fly over the enemy's position at a great height and to film everything likely to facilitate their attack. The negative is then developed and a positive print printed from the same. The Germans having made special provision for this and a few minutes later the picture is thrown on the screen in the German camp. The commanding officers scrutinize the film with the object of discovering the weak points in the enemy's position, which they lose no time in firing upon. I have it on excellent authority

that the motion picture has been directly responsible for a number of the German victories since it has rendered it possible for them to advance in the right direction without the likelihood of the men falling into a trap. Additionally, no appreciable amount of time has been lost in taking the decisive step. The new plan is much safer and more reliable than is spying in the ordinary way.

As to the nature of the special processes by which the pictures are taken, it is a carefully guarded secret. It is stated to be the invention of a German cinematographer who was so patriotic that he disposed of the exclusive rights to the German government about two years ago.

What has stood in the way of movie air scouting being adopted has been the blurriness which runs the films that are produced above while the flying machine is traveling at a rapid pace. Second, the earth has not been sufficiently close for the essential things to be distinguished adequately enough.

In conversation with an English motion picture pho-

Army conducted experiments with the motion picture scouting work. He began the journey from College Park with the assistance of Lieut. Arnold. From an altitude of 1,500 feet he turned the lens toward the road below, shifting it but slightly from one side to the other to cover it properly.

"The one great difficulty," he said, in an interview accorded him at the time, "was encountered—but it is one which can easily be remedied—was in definitely deciding how much territory we were covering."

The British Army Council experimented in rather a unique way. They hired an operator to do some filming from the car of the ship "Beta." The test was this: The Immskilling Fusiliers had to pretend to be a raiding party. While trespassing in the enemy's territory they endeavored to escape detection from the aerial scouts of the foe. The aviators were aware that their hiding place was somewhere below them and the soldiers could only save themselves by selecting places where the soil or foliage matched their khaki uniform. This was done to determine whether objects are visible against varicolored background.

Steel Darts

THE steel darts used by the French aviators have proved an effective weapon. They are light in weight, running according to size from 45 to 98 per kilogramme (a little over 2 pounds), and owing to their buoyancy are liable to drift with the wind. On this account they are mainly used against extended objects, such as bivouacs in the open, columns on the march, etc. Their effect can always be judged by the commotion caused among the groups of infantry or cavalry, horses especially are terrified by them, and this confusion serves as a guide for the aim of the aviator. The reasons given for placing the name of the adjutant aviator Mésanges on the list for the military medal show the proximity with which they are thrown. The announcement states that in one day this pilot threw 18 bombs and 5,500 darts.

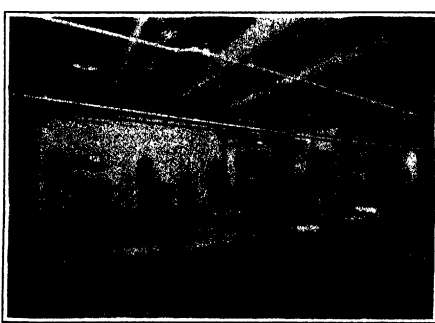
The French journal *L'Aéroplane* in a brief account of these darts narrates several stories of their great power of penetration, which it quotes from an article in the German *Militärische Wochenchrift* by a German physician, Dr. Volkman. The physician says that a German soldier was killed at once by a dart which struck him on the head. Another soldier was struck on the shoulder by a dart that traversed the chest and was only checked by the hip-bone; the unfortunate man died in a couple of days. Many other soldiers have been literally nailed to the ground by the feet. He calls the dart thrown from aeroplanes a very dangerous weapon, for the wounds produced by these darts nearly always prove mortal. It was a dart shot from a French aeroplane which killed the Bavarian general, von Meyer, as he was stepping into his automobile. The French darts are arranged in groups of 500 in special distributors which the aviator works when his sighting device has reached the spot where they should be launched. There are even times when the aviator simply throws the darts by hand in shafts. Success depends more on quickness of eye and the training of the aviator than on the scientific construction of the sighting device.

An Engineering Foundation

USUALLY any funds given for the advancement of an art or science are put in charge of some institution of learning, but a notable departure from such precedents was made at a combined meeting in New York on the evening of January 20th of the United Engineering Society, representing the American Institute of Mining Engineers, the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, and the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, in combination with the American Society of Civil Engineers, when it was decided that Andrew Swasey of Cleveland had donated the sum of \$200,000 as an initial gift toward a foundation for the advancement of Engineering Arts and Sciences. This foundation is for the promotion of the greatest progress of the engineering profession generally and the benefit of mankind. The administration of the fund will be entrusted to a board of eleven trustees, of whom Mr. Swasey, who has inaugurated this important movement, is of the firm of Warner & Swasey, who built the Lick, Yerkes and many other telescopes, and is himself a well-known engineer and a member of many prominent engineering and scientific societies.



The window dresser's room under the sidewalk, showing the transfer system.



Window displays are prepared at leisure and transferred to the show window elevators.

tographer of high standing, he firmly believes he has succeeded in unravelling the strings of mystery which surround the German invention.

It is his contention that to control the speed of the swiftly moving aeroplane with the lens of the camera, the inventor has contrived a self-operating camera. The "release" of the film is manipulated by wind while the machine is in motion. When the wind coming in the opposite direction strikes a tiny fan contrivance at the side of the camera, it automatically turns the crank, which then winds the film on which everything is recorded in due course. The clockwork-like device alone causes the pictures to be photographed at a normal speed.

It also enables the movie-aviator to concentrate his energies on controlling the aeroplane, for the only thing he has to do is to release a small lever in order to free the "wind arm."

Apart from this, a powerful lens has evidently been devised, affording a far greater field of vision than is possessed by motion picture cameras already in use. Not only does this permit the operator to soar higher in the air, but makes the pictures seem as though they were filmed just a trifle above ground.

In 1912 Lieut. F. N. Kennedy of the United States

Doing Without Europe—III

How the War Has Affected Our Mineral and Metal Industries and How We May Profit

The Slump in Copper.

THE copper industry has probably felt the injurious effects of the European war more acutely than any other of the leading American metal industries. About 90 per cent of our copper has been exported almost entirely to the countries now involved in the European war. While much copper is, of course, consumed in the manufacture of war material, the more constructive arts of peace are far more favorable for the copper industry. We have contented ourselves with exporting the metal in pigs, ingots, bars, plates, sheets, rods and wire. Europe takes our copper and manufactures it into useful articles worth many times the value of the copper which is bought from us. Obviously, the opportunity for the American manufacturer lies in entering the foreign markets that were supplied by European exports of manufactured goods. European competition is, temporarily at least, destroyed and the low prices for the crude material is such that manufacturers would find in copper products a wonderful field for development.

What little arsenic we make ourselves is a by-product from copper and precious metal smelters. We import large quantities from Europe. The American smelters can save much more arsenic than they do now, for the cheapness of the product has prevented the saving of all that was practicable. Although it is difficult for plants exclusively producing arsenic to compete with the by-product of the smelters except in periods of high prices, nevertheless there are two plants in the United States, at Brenton, Virginia, and Mineral, Washington.

The Beginning of a Barium Industry.

Barites has a wide variety of uses in the manufacture of paint, linoleum, wall-paper, glass, artificial ivory, insecticides, fertilizers, and the like. The largest consumers of barites are the manufacturers of "ready-mixed" paint and of lithopone. Since the outbreak of the war in Europe many American users of foreign barites have been forced to look at home for their future supplies.

About two weeks after the European war started, Mr. Maximilian Toch of New York city, a chemist whose life has been spent in improving paints, came to the conclusion that the barium salts which had always been imported from Germany and which were largely used in the rubber, paper, and paint industries of the United States, would have to be made in this country if his firm was to continue in business. His first step was to cast about for a pure barium ore. He found in Tennessee the only ore within shipping distance from the coast, conveniently situated relative to railroads and waterways. Moreover, the barite ore of other localities contained lime and fluorine, both fatal to the manufacture of certain chemicals. On the 5th of the month last, Mr. Toch turned an old plant and began to rebuild it at once. On the 15th of November he turned out his first carload of barium carbonate, barium sulphate, and barium chloride. Since then about fifteen tons of various materials have been manufactured per day, including sodium sulphide crystals and concentrated, precipitated barium sulphate, barium nitrate, and barium carbonate. Although it has been in existence only a few months, the plant has been unable to meet the demand. Its enlargement is a matter of immediate necessity. Thus has the war established the first successful barium industry in the United States.

The question arises how this plant will fare when the war is over and the Germans are once more able to enter our market. The good news is that the foreign market is no cheaper than ours, nor are German freight-leader German ore is dearer. Germans have been able to make chloride of barium cheaper than Americans because they have native carbonate and by-product hydrochloric acid. On the other hand, we have other advantages. Our sodium sulphide is of a high grade, which enables us to market our other products at a lower price. With the new German war tax and the high freight rates and the general expensive condition, Mr. Toch sees no reason to fear German competition.

The Heavy Chemicals.

If so important a mineral as barites can be utilized, as Mr. Toch has so far demonstrated is possible, what may not be expected of a heavy chemical industry?

"The successful introduction into this country of the Solvay process, some years ago, for treating salt, and the later process for the decomposition of salt by electricity has practically driven from the American market the importations of most forms of soda and bleaching powder," says Mr. J. Russell Marble of the J. Russell Marble Company. His statement is significant because the enormous soda plant of the Solvay Brothers in Belgium has been destroyed. France or Germany cannot export soda to this country, and the English plants are

This is to be regarded as the second installment of the argument which was begun in the last issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Our object is to show how vast are our own mineral and metal resources and how comparatively little we have done with them. Particularly inspiring is the work done by a point manufacturer to render himself independent of European barium. Interesting too is the Government's effort to free us from the control of the German potash syndicate.—EDITH

running at only one half capacity because their employees have enlisted.

"Our opportunity in this soda field is brilliant. Fortunately for this country," Mr. Marble summarizes the situation, "we have enormous deposits of rock salt located in northern New York State, under the city of Detroit and in Kansas and Louisiana, and we have immense water-powers from which electricity can be generated. The manufacture of various forms of soda has been especially successful in this country during the last twenty years, and the effect of the European war, in my judgment, will call for very large shipments of these chemicals to the Mediterranean, Australia, South Africa and South America, and this should lead to the running of the plants in this country to their fullest capacity, so that the immediate effect of the war on the heavy chemical industry will undoubtedly lead to a larger output, to higher prices, and to a more profitable business for the American manufacturer."

Magnesium or carbonate of magnesium finds an extensive use in the manufacture of brick, furnace hearths, crucibles, in the glazing and whitening of wood pulp paper (for which purpose it must be transformed into magnesium sulphite). In the manufacture of crude carbon dioxide, for making oxyacetylene or kerosene cement, and in the making of refined magnesium salts. We have deposits of magnesite in this country, but they are located in California, far from the eastern markets. It may be that the opening of the Panama Canal will cheapen transportation to such an extent that we may no longer be dependent upon Europe—a suggestion thrown out by a committee appointed by the New York section of the American Chemical Society to consider the relation of the war to industrial chemistry.

The same committee finds that acetic anhydride can be made without trouble in this country. Ammonia and its salts all depend upon recovery coke ovens, the number of which is increasing as fast as circumstances will permit. Yellow prussiate and sodium cyanide can be and have been made from domestic materials in such an amount as to provide practically the entire home consumption or a great portion of it so long as there was a sufficient duty on them, but the present duty is not enough to protect the American manufacturer and those who engaged in the business soon found it impossible to continue. Hydrosulphides in solution and oxalic acid can be made from domestic materials. Tartaric acid and citric acid can also be made, but radical changes are called for on the part of our grape growers and our lemon growers to meet the requirements of the chemist.

The only mineral substance which has engaged the attention of Congress so far that it has set aside money to study in development scientifically in the United States is potash. Fortunately for us this governmental research was set on foot before the present war. We owe this congressional activity to two circumstances—the controversy started by the German Kali Syndicate a few years ago and the utter dependence of our farmers upon Germany for their potash fertilizers. It was the former who roused Congress—the latter with a vote—not the manufacturer dependent on Europe.

Potash and the War.

The war has served to accentuate this subjugation and to drive home the absolute necessity of rendering us independent of the great Staßfurt potash deposits. All the industries dependent upon potash have been affected. Lower grades of potash which would otherwise find their use in fertilizers are bought up by glass makers and potters. Some manufacturers have even substituted soda for potash in glass-making.

Few of us realize how all-important is potash, not only in agriculture, but in industry. It is the chief ingredient of many fertilizers. Its salts are used in the manufacture of glass, explosive powders, certain kinds of soap, and in mechanical industries, including the manufacture of alum, cyanides, bleaching powders, dyestuffs, and other chemicals, among which are arsenite of potassium, bromide of potassium, chloride of potassium, permanganate and manganate of potassium, nitrate of potassium, silicate of potassium, etc. The chemical manufacture alone dependent upon German

potash salts are of enormous magnitude. Potash alum is extensively used in the dyeing industry and by paper makers and leather dressers.

Can we become independent of Germany for potash? The annual imports of potash salts during the past three years have averaged about 625,000,000 pounds in quantity, and \$11,000,000 in value. These figures, however, represent only a part of the potash salts entering the United States, as they do not include the imports of fertilizers. The quantity of materials of this class imported for consumption during the last three years has averaged about seven hundred thousand tons, valued at \$4,300,000 annually. Thus, it is apparent that the value of the annual imports of potash salts exceeds \$15,000,000.

Our Own Potash Supply.

There is a natural deposit at Sevier Lake, California, of some 4,000,000 tons, equivalent to a few years' supply for fertilizer alone. The Government performed a valuable service not only in calling attention to Sevier Lake, but in scientifically studying the region at great expense for industrial development. Partly as the result of this governmental interest an experimental plant has been built at Sevier Lake. Its success or failure will be watched with interest. The Government has found that in Oklahoma there is a possible source of sulphate of potash, and that in Texas there is potash about 2,200 feet below the surface. Alumite, yielding after treatment about 18 per cent potash sulphate, is deposited in Utah, Colorado, Nevada, and Arizona.

But the great source of potash is the felspar and granite rocks of New England. Many of them contain from 8 to 12 per cent of potash. As yet no commercial process has been perfected for rendering this potash quickly available to plants. Mr. W. H. Bowker, whose connection with the American Agricultural Chemical Company enables him to speak with authority, says:

"There is a great fortune awaiting the man who can invent a feasible and cheap process, but the potash must be soluble in water, and it should be produced at a cost not exceeding \$20 a ton (on the basis of muriate) laid down in the Eastern markets, for if put to it, the Germans could sell their potash at that price in this market, and even for less."

The Powerful German Potash Syndicate.

This leads one to inquire into the German situation. The Staßfurt mines can raise and refine the mineral for \$8 a ton. The price in cargo lots varies from \$35 to \$34 a ton, delivered at seaboard. The German Kali Syndicate sees to it that a handsome profit is maintained by limiting the production of the mines, and by fixing the price arbitrarily. Prof. H. A. Huston, who is said to take care of the Kali propaganda in our Eastern and Southern States, has been quoted as saying:

"We have one hundred and ninety mines forty of which would supply the world very nicely. We are prepared for almost any sort of emergency demand."

If the situation is thus correctly pictured, if Germany can release large quantities of potash when the war is over, simply by raising the embargo on production placed on the mines by the Kali Syndicate, added by the Reichstag, what are the chances for an American potash industry?

The question is so important, both to agriculture and industry, that the United States Geological Survey has endeavored to locate deposits in this country and has followed up every clue that seemed to promise results of importance. And the Bureau of Soils of the Department of Agriculture has investigated the kelp.

Kelp as a Source of Potash

Probably the leading authority on the possibilities of kelp in this country is Mr. Frank K. Cameron of the United States Department of Agriculture. "If kelp," he tells us, "contains from 20 to 35 per cent, or occasionally even more, of potassium chloride and is more desirable than manure salts or ordinary market grades of potash salts not only because of its high content of potash, but because of the readily decomposable organic matter, a content of about 25 per cent nitrogen, and appreciable amounts of readily available phosphates, all of which give it an important fertilizer value."

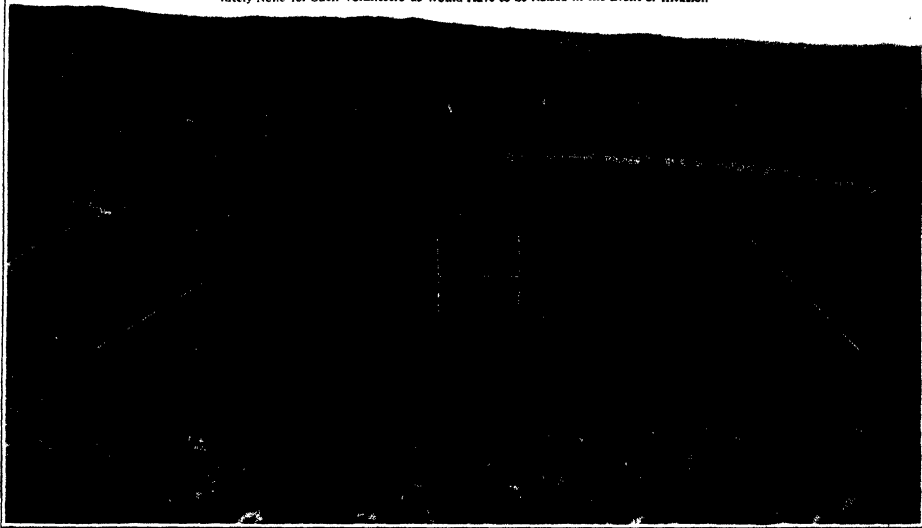
"The recovery of high-grade potassium chloride from the kelp is no more difficult than from the Staßfurt salts. The recovery of iodine and organic products, leaving a residual rich in potash, is quite feasible, but has not yet been attempted in this country except on a laboratory scale, although now practised in Japan."

"The amount of potash salts obtainable annually from kelp cannot be stated at all satisfactorily at present. It is certainly large, and if careful supervision of the beds and harvesting be provided, it seems safe to as-

(Continued on page 184)

II—The United States an Undefended Treasure Land

We Are Short of Arms and Ammunition for Regulars and Militia, and Have Absolutely None for Such Volunteers as Would Have to be Raised in the Event of Invasion



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The Yale Bowl at New Haven, Conn.

If the whole 90,000 effectives of the regulars and militia could be placed within the Yale Bowl there would still be room for a game of football.

[The second chapter of the series on the defenseless state of the United States shows our deplorable lack of the field guns, rifles, ammunition, uniforms, tents, transportation, equipment and various supplies, without which Secretary Bryan's army of "a million volunteers" would be a mere mob of no military value whatsoever.]

From President Washington to President Wilson, the Executive has persistently urged upon Congress the necessity of providing, in times of peace, a body of citizen soldiers properly trained and equipped, with which instantly to meet and repel any invasion of the United States. With equal persistency, Congress (except during periods of war) has refused to listen to the warnings of its Presidents. To-day, thanks to this neglect, the United States, the richest of the rich countries of the world, is the most open to invasion. The ocean, once a barrier, now, thanks to steam navigation, offers a chance of half-a-dozen highways, by way of any one of which a first class power, in the event of the defeat of our fleet, might, within a week or ten days, land a fully equipped advance force of 200,000 highly-trained troops. To oppose this, the United States, in thirty days, could concentrate, at the most, 30,000 regulars and 60,000 militia.

The present series of articles is published with a view to bringing before the country at large and Congress in particular the true facts as regards the military defenselessness of the United States. They represent the result of weeks of study of the problem by the editorial staff of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN in the course of which only the highest military officials and the latest official documents of the War Department have been consulted. What is Congress going to do about it? [Continued.]

WE have shown in the previous chapter that in order successfully to meet an invasion the United States require, in the early stages of the war, a middle force (regulars, militia and their reserves) of 500,000 men, whereas as a matter of fact we possess only 90,000 such troops to-day.

We now direct attention to the fact that we are without adequate artillery, guns or ammunition for this combined regular and militia force, and it will be years, at the present rate of progress, before we accumulate the guns and ammunition necessary for this combined force of war strength. The estimate on which the Department has been

working is for 1,292 guns, and 634 of these guns are actually completed; also 229 others are under contract (of field artillery ammunition, there is only a small percentage of the total amount required).

Lack of Field Artillery Guns and Ammunition.

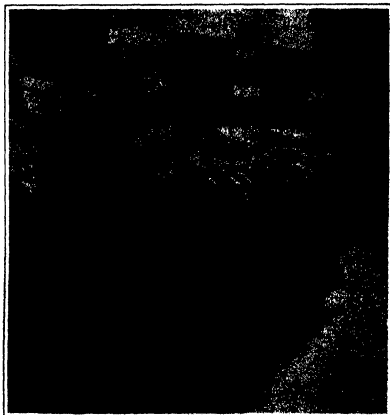
We have in the hands of troops, or stored, 634 completed guns. We have under manufacture or contract, 229. These guns will probably not be completed for at least a year and a half. In other words, the number of completed guns is a little less than half the total number deemed necessary for the field force of 500,000 men, and provides no guns whatever for the coastguard troops or new volunteer organizations which will be required in addition to the 500,000 field force. Of ammunition, we have, made and under contract, approximately 30 per cent for the entire project of guns (1,292). Half of this is under manufacture or contract, so that there is not more than 15 per cent actually completed. For the guns on hand and under manufac-

ture we have, of ammunition on hand and under manufacture, about 41 per cent; actually on hand, approximately, 20.5 per cent. For the guns actually made (634) we have 27 per cent of the ammunition necessary. For the guns now in the hands of the regular army and militia we have about 44 per cent of the ammunition necessary. It should be remembered, however, that the guns in the hands of the regular army and militia at the present time are less than half the guns required for these forces when properly equipped with guns, even under our scheme for the assignment of guns and ammunition, which is in both instances far lower than in any of the great armies to-day, and the present war has indicated, in the case of one great power at least, that the consumption of ammunition has exceeded twice their maximum estimates, and that the proportion of artillery will, in future, be increased.

At the rate of even last year's appropriations, which were the largest made for field artillery guns and ammunition, it will take between eight and nine years to complete our present modest estimate for guns and ammunition, and the necessary equipment in the way of ammunition trains and other accessories.

We Have Absolutely No Artillery for the Needed Volunteer Coastguard Force of 260,000 Volunteers or the Vast Volunteer Mobile Forces that Would Have to be Raised Back of Our Front Line.

This total number of guns, 1,292, represents practically only enough guns for the field force of 500,000 men made up of the regular army and the militia brought to war strength and with necessary new organizations. It does not provide a single modern type field gun for the coastguard force or guns for the great force of volunteers which will have to be promptly raised in time of war. These forces will be helpless against a well equipped enemy with artillery, and it can be assumed as certain that any attacking force will be fully equipped in all particulars. Is this haphazard policy either just or fair to our volunteers? Are they not entitled to such equipment as will give them a fighting chance? No adequate steps are being taken to provide it. The present entire gun-building resources of the United States, working day and night, could not make good our deficiencies to guns or ammunition within one and a half years; that is to say, within a period which would exceed that of



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These men are recruits, not soldiers. It takes at least six months to make the one into the other.

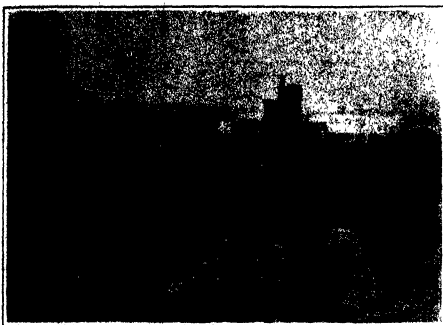
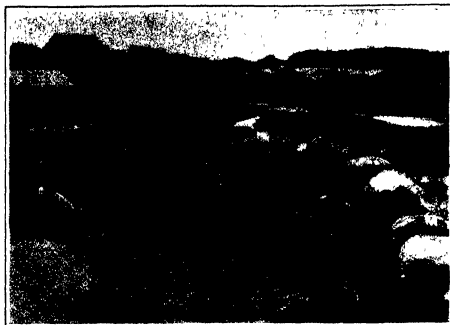


Photo by Underwood & Underwood

Troops entraining baggage wagons at Galveston.



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American outpost entrenched at Vera Cruz.

most modern wars and within the period which would in all probability determine the issue. These are plain and disconcerting facts. They cannot be controverted, and what is worse, there seems little inclination outside the army to make any effort to improve these conditions.

During the First Few Months of a War of Defense Against a First-class Power We Would Require in Regular and Militia Field Forces, Coast Artillery, Coastguard Force, Volunteers, Etc.,

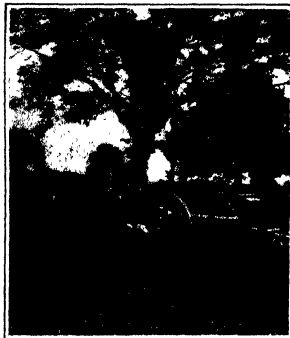
About 1,000,000 Men.

The figures as to men required, for the field force and coast guard, represent in round numbers, including the coast artillery and its reserves, about 800,000 of men, regular, militia and volunteers, as the force which will be needed at the commencement and during the first few months of war—a million will be more nearly correct when all the demands of the situation are considered. When it is remembered that during the Civil War, when our population was about one third of what it is at present, we had, North and South, nearly 4,000,000 different men under arms and that we had about 1,200,000 North and South under arms at the end of the war, these figures do not seem to be unduly large. This statement shows what we have immediately available (20,000 mobile troops and about half the coast artillery required) and what we shall need in order that we may be reasonably well prepared to meet successfully the first shock of war with a first-class power, and it is only for preparation for conflict with such a power that we need particularly to concern ourselves. The little wars with little nations, we can take our own time to prepare for. In fact, our peace force, if we provide the necessary organizations to complete three tactical infantry divisions with their necessary artillery, three cavalry brigades, the necessary auxiliary troops, etc., within the continental limits of the United States, will generally be sufficient to furnish an expeditionary force for minor operations. The big wars with the fully equipped, strong nations, are the wars which threaten us and the ones for which we have made no preparation, worthy of the name.

The Army Staff Asks for a Small Standing Army With a Large Trained Reserve of Regulars, Militia and Volunteers With Their Officers Back of It.

The policy of the Army General Staff has not been for a large standing army, but for a standing army adequate for the police work of the day, i. e., an adequate garrison for the Philippines (20,000 men), aarrison for the Hawaiian Islands (10,000 men), for the Panama Canal (9,000 men), a small force for Porto Rico and Alaska, amounting to a regiment each, and the

remainder within the limits of the continental United States. It has recommended that the regular army in the United States be increased, so as to provide three tactical infantry divisions in the continental United States, three cavalry brigades, and a division of army troops and a coast artillery force of approximately 19,000 men in time of peace. It has advocated a form of enlistment, under which men could be transferred to the reserve as soon as they were sufficiently trained and their places taken by others. Its recommendations have not been heeded by Congress, and upon the completion of our foreign garrisons, the regular forces in



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American field gun in position.

the United States will be sixteen regiments of infantry, with about 840 men per regiment, and eleven and two thirds regiments of cavalry, with about the same strength per regiment, three regiments of field artillery, with twenty-four guns per regiment, and certain auxiliary troops. Is this an adequate force for a population of nearly one hundred millions of people?

Our Present Effective Field Army (Regulars and Militia) Could Be Put into the Yale Bowl and Leave Room for a Game of Football.

The mobile troops in the United States, amounting to

about three times the police force of the city of New York, taken with the *personal* of that portion of the militia which is efficient and ready for service, can all be put into the Yale Bowl and room still be left for a game of football. Think of it! The total available mobile troops is less than one third the number estimated as needed for an adequate coast guard alone and only about one sixth of that needed for the field force and no steps have been taken or are being taken to correct this alarming condition. No one who is familiar with the subject expects the country to maintain a force of the strength of that which would be needed in war on a war footing in time of peace; but they realize fully the necessity for making in the greatest detail all arrangements for preparing promptly the forces which will be needed in case of war, and especially do they realize the absolute necessity of having the regular army and the militia so maintained, both as to reserves and equipment, that they can be immediately brought to full strength, fully armed and equipped, and with reasonable reserve supplies. The necessity is also appreciated for completing, in advance, all arrangements for coastguard troops, because, as stated above, it will be destructive to the usefulness of the field force to attempt to take from it coastguard troops. Moreover, the demand for the coastguards will be such as to make it impossible to supply them from the regulars and militia, without entirely using up the available force of these troops.

The Shortage in Small Arms.

The reserve in the case of small arms is better than in any other detail of equipment excepting small arms ammunition, but even in the case of small arms (service rifle) the amount available, 608,000, including guns made and under manufacture, is insufficient in view of the number of men which will be required for the field force, coastguard, and additions to the field force in the shape of volunteer organizations in the early stages of war. This force will undoubtedly steadily increase, and will increase at a pace which will be far beyond the capacity of the arms factories to meet. The wastage in small arms is always heavy. Many are broken many are shot to pieces in action, many are lost through capture, they are bent, injured, and put out of commission in various ways. The reserve of small arms should be liberal—no less than a million and a quarter. The present policy of establishing a reserve of a million is barely sufficient to meet the demands of the first few months and right here it may be well to point out the inadequacy of the Government attempting to manufacture exclusively its own military

(Continued on page 160.)



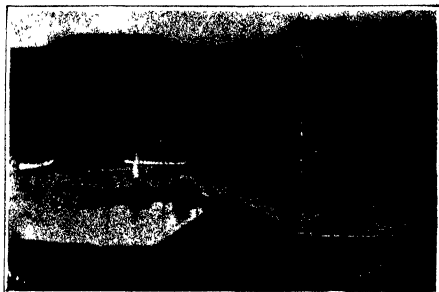
Photo by Underwood & Underwood

Artilleryman using periscope sight on field gun.

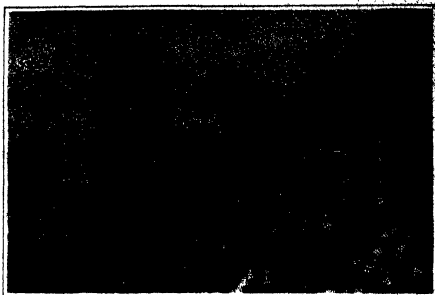


Photo by Underwood & Underwood

Scene at headquarters during volunteer militia maneuvers.



Steamer taking coal and two others waiting their turn.



The upper loading station.

Heat from Our Lady of the Snow

Coal-Mining in the Arctic Circle

By H. J. Shepstone

THE successful mining of coal in Spitzbergen, and the erection there of an ingenious cableway for transporting it to ships, calls attention to the development of this strange archipelago in the Arctic circle. It is just over a year ago that this famous group of islands, lying some 400 miles north of Norway, was declared neutral territory. This was the result of a conference between the governments of Russia, Sweden, and Norway to settle the question which was frequently asked as to who really owned Spitzbergen. The country is now open to all nations and is governed by a joint board consisting of one representative of each of the three powers named. It had long been known, of course, that coal existed in Spitzbergen, just as it does in Greenland and Alaska. It was generally believed, however, that it was too poor and the seams insufficiently thick to prove of any commercial value.

So far as Spitzbergen is concerned, opinions on the value of the coal lying there have greatly changed. In the summer of 1911 some twenty-five large cargoes of coal were mined and exported, the output in the following year being increased to over one hundred cargoes, while to-day between 500 and 600 shipments of coal are carried away from its inhospitable shores during the summer months.

The coal found in Spitzbergen is of good quality. It contains only 2 per cent of red ash, no slag at all, and is free from slate. The piles obtainable are good, and amount to \$1 per ton in Advent Bay for direct sale to the wharves, \$5 at Trondhjem, Norway, while English coal on the north coast—in Hammerfest, for example, the most northerly town in Europe—costs about \$7.50 per ton.

The coal often comes to the surface, and is worked by a Boston company, which has secured in Advent Bay a coal-field three to four miles long. The company has undertaken further expeditions with its steamers, and has also found a coal bed in Savon Bay at a height of 400 feet above sea level, which, however, is not sufficiently productive to pay for its working. At Cape Bolsh very good coal is also to be found, though here, on account of the heavy surf, the working is fraught with considerable difficulties. On the other hand the

company has taken over a coal mine in the vicinity of the fish-oil loading house in Green Harbor, 200 feet above sea level, which yields a very good and firm coal, and here there are good landing facilities.

The working of the coal, which, up to the present, has been carried on only in Advent Bay, is advanced by gallery-driving. The galleries are driven almost horizontally into the mountains, the coal being cut, and only props left as supports. Walling is not necessary, as a temperature of 42 deg. Fahr. prevails in the galleries, so that the mountain remains quite firm. The working of the mine is, according to the time of the year, divided up into two parts—the summer and the winter campaigns. For the summer campaign, which lasts from the beginning of June till the middle of September, 200 men come from Norway to Advent Bay by the company's steamer "Munroe." During the winter only 100 men remain there. They work 9½ hours a day and live, from eight to twenty men, in workmen's houses, which consist of board partitions fourfold thick with cardboard between.

The coal is carried from the galleries at a height of about 650 feet above the level of the sea, and immediately tipped, near to the gallery mouth, over a chute into a hopper which extends close up to the coaling station of the ropeway. The wire ropeway then carries the coal direct into the ships. The ropeway possesses a rather heavy gradient from the loading station, located on the mountain above, to the unloading station erected in the sea. Its horizontal station consists of a hopper building and a suspension railway circuit on which the ropeway cars are loaded. They are then pushed out of the station by hand and couple themselves automatically to the traction rope, which is in constant motion. The ropeway runs over sixteen wooden supports and has a free span of 800 feet from the last support to the unloading station in the sea. The depth of water in front of the unloading station is 30 feet, so that large ocean steamers are enabled to come alongside.

Special difficulties hindered the erection of the ropeway, as all building material, including logs from 65 to 65 feet long, had to be brought in by ship. The driving sheaves, and the break regulator weighing about two

tons, had to be lifted by means of winches and steel ropes, the boulders on the mountainside, which were continually crumbling away, presenting very considerable difficulties. The piling of the supports and the laying of the foundations of the structural parts were much impeded by the permanently frozen ground. Only under the direct rays of the sun does the ground thaw, and then only to a depth of 8 inches. All holes, therefore, had to be blasted with dynamite. The pile-driver was then set on the ice and the supports driven into the holes. At the commencement of the erection work the company's steamer was not successful in getting into Advent Bay, because Spitzbergen was surrounded by pack-ice. It was, therefore, necessary to drag all the building material over the ice on sledges.

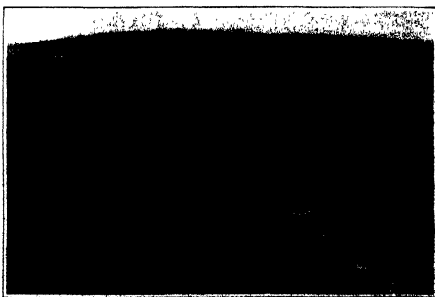
Spitzbergen has now undertaken the supplying of coal to whalers cruising in the polar sea and to the north of Norway, thus competing with the English coal previously unchallenged there. This state of affairs has been thoroughly grasped, and an English company has taken in hand the mining of a Spitzbergen coal-bed.

The Current Supplement

THE current SUPPLEMENT of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, No. 2941, for February 13th, is unusually varied in contents and interest. Merod, the Royal City of Ethiopia, tells of discoveries that throw light on astronomy as practiced centuries ago. Waste in Hiring and Discharging Employees raises and discusses an economic question of the greatest importance to every employer of men and to every student of economic subjects. Making Safe Steel Rails describes a radical method of treating material to eliminate certain causes of frequent failures in railway rails. New Pausal Conditions in the Canal Zone gives some details of an expedition that investigated the results of the creation of the Gatun Lake. Other articles treat of protection of ships against torpedoes; a review of developments in wireless telegraphy; the inventions of Edward Weston; Twilight Sleep; a war-line fertilizer; the treatment of West Furnace Gas is continued, and there are other matters of value to all who like to keep themselves informed on the doings of the scientific world.



The aerial cableway as viewed from the water.



The cableway running inland.

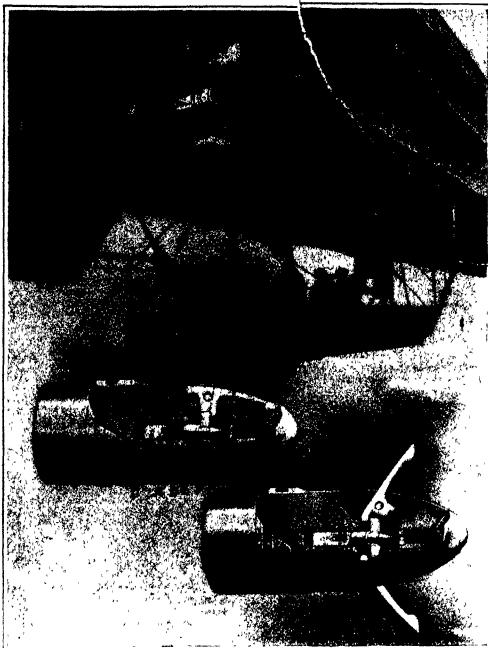
Inventions New and Interesting

Simple Patent Law : Patent Office News : Notes on Trademarks

Shells for Destroying Airships

THE recent raids on the English and French coast towns by the Zeppelin airships have given fresh point to the discussions of methods of defense against aerial cruisers of this sort, and how they can best be destroyed. It is evident to all who have considered the subject with a knowledge of the construction and character of these craft that a shot, even of large size, penetrating the huge gas reservoirs is not likely to have any serious effect, for the gas would be liberated so slowly from any ordinary steel hole that the vessel might not be seriously inconvenienced, and even if eventually compelled to land on account of the injury, might easily keep the air until it reached friendly territory. To be effective, therefore, a projectile to be used against airships must be capable of producing an opening in the envelop of very considerable size.

It is interesting in this connection to note that the subject has not been overlooked by those who make a study of military subjects, as is indicated by a patent for a special projectile that was issued recently to the firm of Sir W. G. Armstrong, Whitworth & Co., the great builders of warships and guns. The invention is illustrated in the accompanying drawings. It will be seen that this projectile carries in its longitudinal slots cut in its head a series of pivoted blades *H*, which ordinarily are held in place within the shell by a disk *F* on the firing pin *A*, which engages a notch *G* in an arm *I* of each blade. The firing pin *A* is normally held in place by a light shearing wire *C*, but when the projectile is fired from a gun the shock of the discharge, acting through the inertia of the firing pin *A*, causes the pin to be thrown backward, shearing the wire *C*, and releasing the blades *H*, which then open out as the result of air pressure or centrifugal force, and the projectile in this condition is capable of tearing an opening in the envelop of the airship several times the diameter of the shot itself, and the whirling motion of the projectile is expected to add to this result. But mere penetration



A new explosive projectile that tears open the gas bag of an airship.

will force the firing pin *A* forward, shearing the second restraining wire *E*, and driving the needle point *B* into contact with the detonator *F*, which explodes the shell. It will be seen that this explosion is calculated to take place within the body of the airship, with the result of disrupting the gas containers, and probably firing

machines is idle, the output is correspondingly decreased by 10 per cent for the length of time it is imperative if fewer yards of cloth are being wound off the loom than its rated production, there is a corresponding loss to the mill. Accordingly, any device that assembles for the information of a central head an actual record

of the per formance of his machinery is invaluable, not only as an indication of what is happening at the instant, but as a supplying a basis of comparative cost accounting. The efficiency studies should not stop at mere indication, study, or suggestion, but be so presented as actually to secure increased efficiency, either by indicating at once the necessary result or adjustment of machines, the addition of new and superior equipment or the elimination of lost motion at one point or another along the line. To secure this elementary datum, and place it at the disposal of a cen-



Productographs in the manager's office that record the exact amount of work done by the different machines throughout the factory.

the gas as well, thus effectively destroying the craft, or at least compelling instant descent. Whether these shells have been brought into service or not has not been announced.

Watching Distant Machines from a Desk

By Herbert T. Wade

IN manufacturing and all other mechanical operations where an effort is made to secure increased efficiency, or the maximum results from given plant or equipment, with a fixed or minimum expenditure of energy, power or personal attention, it is naturally of fundamental importance to secure an accurate knowledge of the performance of a given machine or individual. In short, efficiency studies may be divided roughly into those where the personal side, dealing with the laborer or operative, is paramount, and those where the output and performance of a given machine are investigated. Efficiency, in other words, is simply a ratio, and the higher the percentage of actual output or performance, as compared with possible performance or output, the greater the return to the wage-payer or owner. The mechanical problem involved in studying the performance of a machine in its essence is of the simplest; a shaft makes so many revolutions, so many yards of cloth are woven by a loom, so many barrels of flour are packed at a roller mill, so much current passes through a recording wattmeter, an elevator travels so many miles on its daily travels, and a thousand and one other operations. All these items must be considered in relation to some unit of time as a rate of production or measure of efficiency, and must be indicated plainly to be digested by a responsible head of the plant. If one of ten machines is idle, the output is correspondingly decreased by 10 per cent for the length of time it is imperative if fewer yards of cloth are being wound off the loom than its rated production, there is a corresponding loss to the mill. Accordingly, any device that assembles for the information of a central head an actual record of the per formance of his machinery is invaluable, not only as an indication of what is happening at the instant, but as a supplying a basis of comparative cost accounting. The efficiency studies should not stop at mere indication, study, or suggestion, but be so presented as actually to secure increased efficiency, either by indicating at once the necessary result or adjustment of machines, the addition of new and superior equipment or the elimination of lost motion at one point or another along the line. To secure this elementary datum, and place it at the disposal of a cen-

trial known, there has been evolved recently an instrument based on the productograph, which in connection with modern methods of economy and efficiency studies brings to a common center and there records the necessary data as to the mechanical operation of a plant, whether the various elements or machines of the same are separated by considerable distance or not. The productograph consists essentially of a special form of switch by which an electric current is opened and closed corresponding with the operation of a machine or mechanism. Such a device in essence might be of the simplest character, but in this new system the switch is arranged so that for every motion to and fro of its lever a ratchet is advanced by one tooth, while a second wheel carrying a cam mounted on the same axle does not operate a lever connected with a dash pot and electric circuit breaking mechanism, until the first wheel has been advanced by ten teeth, corresponding of course to ten movements; then a circuit is completed and the current, which is supplied at low voltage from a special motor-generator set is sent over a conductor to the indicating mechanism. The pneumatic cylinder of the switch prevents absolutely any short circuit. The indicating mechanism consists of a series of electromagnets, one magnet for each circuit, each, however, supplied with two armatures, one of which actuates an indicator having numbers on the face of its dial or revolving wheels by which the number of revolutions or other movements of the switch are shown, while the other armature and mechanism is connected with a German silver pen or needle point, which on the closing of the circuit makes a line on a strip of lead paper driven by clockwork, so that a graphic record appears in the spaces divided to represent hours and minutes. The mechanism is so arranged that each tenth stroke is longer through the increased motion of the armature, and as each stroke corresponds with ten movements of the original switch, the long marks on the record indicate 100 movements of the machine.

As actually installed in many plants a number of these recording devices are combined, as many as twenty have been arranged together, and while they are all similar in their general action, the information that they supply may cover a wide range of activities. Thus in a large printing plant one switch may be attached to a linotype machine and the number of lines set by the operator be registered automatically on the dial. Another machine may be connected to a press and give the number of sheets printed, while another in the bindery may indicate the number of books bound. Yet before the managers' eye the complete activity of the plant is apparent.

Again in other establishments the number of bottles filled, the number of defective bottles, the number of cases, the amount of liquid passing into a tank, the amount of coal weighed into the coal elevator, the number of movements of a dredge bucket, and, in fact, all desired information immediately and quantitatively is recorded.

In all efficiency studies knowledge of conditions and performance is the first consideration, and with this accumulated by a device which indicates also the production, the efficiency engineer or superintendent can proceed to better his output.

Realizing as he can at a glance, that machine No. 10 was idle for two hours, it is possible to investigate the reason and to provide against such shortcomings in the future, whether they are the result of personal or mechanical causes. If another machine supplies but a fraction of the output of its neighbor it does not take very long for the efficiency engineer to determine the fact and to change conditions.

The records are available for analysis either by the managers of the plant or by trained outside experts and the logical development would seem to be a central office of efficiency where a superintendent could analyze not once a year, but once an hour or at even a less interval what is happening within the walls of his factory or in fact, within several allied establishments. So far the system has been made with twenty indicators, but there seems to be no limit as to its application either in extent or in range. The

current, which amounts to but one half ampere per needle, may be derived from any lighting circuit, either alternating or direct, preferably through a motor-generator, and the low voltage of the operating circuit does not present any difficulty in the way of wiring to increase the efficiency based on or to involve undue expense either for installation or maintenance. While all efficiency studies and work are fundamentally psychological, yet mechanical adjuncts play an important part, and of these the productograph is typical of what may be used in order to secure and properly co-ordinate

the feed belt, and will automatically feed themselves into the machine and pass out at the delivery end properly sealed.

At present the receptacle for the sealed and delivered envelope is not in the most satisfactory form, and will constitute the subject of another invention. A patent on this machine was granted to Mr. Carrington on December 15th, 1914 (No. 1,120,988), and he has dedicated it to the public. As a reward for his ingenuity and service to the Government, President Wilson has appointed Mr. Carrington to the clerical grade without examination under the Civil Service Bureau. The features of Mr. Carrington's machine, which are regarded as of considerable importance, are the means of adapting it for envelopes of different sizes, and particularly a feed belt of corrugated rubber, which is laid off in sections, the belt being operated rapidly to feed the envelope one at a time into the machine. The moistening means includes a pan of water heated by an alcohol lamp, it having been found that cold water will not soften the glue of the envelope in the short space of time in which the envelope passes through the machine.

Nikola Tesla's Fountain

It is a curious fact that, old as fountains are, they have remained essentially unchanged in principle for centuries. Artists have lavished all their skill upon them to make them beautiful, but engineers have neglected them. To be sure independent pumps of small volumetric capacity have been used to create artificial waterfalls and to use the same water over and over again. But this principle is old and the spectacle offered to the eye not a great improvement over the fountains of old times.

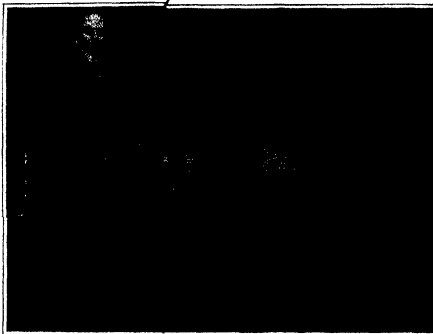
Two types of fountain have chiefly prevailed—the cascade in which a moderate volume of water falls in thin but brilliant sheets over multiplied obstructions—steps, basins, rocks, etc.—always in a framework of architecture with abundant obstructive accessories; and the isolated or central fountain, in which one or many jets, spouted upward, fall into the highest of a series of superposed basins of marble or bronze and then into a larger one below and so on into a broad basin at the ground level. Although every effort was made to save water and to obtain the maximum effect, still we find that in most European cities, fountains are allowed to play only on certain days of the week, and then only for a few hours. It may be safely said that not since the days of the Italian Renaissance has

any really startling improvement been made in the hydraulics of fountains.

Into this neglected field, Mr. Nikola Tesla, the distinguished engineer, has entered, and as might be expected of him, with very striking results. He has recently patented a fountain of entirely new principle, and one moreover in which imposing effects are obtained with very simple apparatus and with a very small volume of water. The accompanying illustration pictures the very simplest form of fountain which can be constructed, according to Mr. Tesla's ideas. A shaft runs vertically through the central column of the fountain, carrying at its lower end a propeller, and at its upper end an electric motor, suitably braced. In our illustration we show this propeller shaft contained in a tube, the bottom of which is provided with inlets for the water in the main bowl. As the propeller is made to revolve the water is sucked in by the propeller blades through the inlets, and is urged upward in the direction of the air rows. It fills the upper bowl and then overflows in a miniature waterfall of impressive size.

As the circulation is extremely rapid, the total quantity of water required is comparatively small. About one tenth of that delivered per minute will be generally sufficient. In this fountain then, we find a great mass of water propelled by the use of only such power as is required to lift it from its normal level through a relatively short space to that from which it overflows and descends as a waterfall or cascade. In that sense it is a radical departure from historic fountains.

The apparatus not only makes the throwing of fountains impossible, but so does a sense a very efficient trap.



Machine that seals one thousand envelope per minute.

the knowledge on which mechanical efficiency must depend

The Envelop Sealer of the Pension Office

AS may well be imagined, the envelop output of the Disbursement Office of the United States Pension Office, at Washington, D. C., is very large indeed, and there has been a demand for a machine of large capacity for sealing envelopes. Realizing this need an assistant messenger of the office, Mr. Fred W. Carrington, undertook to build a machine of the type required. In this he was successful. The capacity of the machine so far as has been tested is from seven hundred to a thousand or more envelopes per minute.

The envelopes can be placed in a bunch or bundle upon



Nikola Tesla's fountain, in which remarkable results are obtained with little water.

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

These columns are open to all patents. The notices are inserted by special arrangement with the inventors. Terms on application to the Advertising Department of the Scientific American.

Electrical Devices.

TELEPHONE ATTACHMENT.—J. WARRICK, 4710 Leiper St., Frankford, Philadelphia, Pa. This invention has reference to a means for hanging up the receiver of the telephone when not in use. It is an object of the invention to provide a means whereby when the receiver is released by the user, the switch arm will be automatically lowered.

Of General Interest.

REVELOP.—P. A. HORNMAN, Hastings, Minn. This invention has reference to improvements in envelope, and has for an object the provision of an improved structure which will act properly as a closure or document wrapper, while eliminating tapes, rubbers, and other similar fastening means.

INDICATOR.—J. FRANK, Rosport, Maine. The invention relates particularly to devices for vessels, and has for an object the provision of a structure which will automatically and correctly indicate the amount of "pitching" of a vessel or the amount of towing of a vessel.

CAN NOZZLE PLUG.—R. WOOD, Jr., Perth Amboy, N. J. The invention has reference more particularly to plugs for varnish cans, having means which seal the plug in the nozzle of the can. An object is to provide an easily removable plug which has means for sealing the nozzle of the can.

FLotation BRID.—P. VERMILION, C. M. DUBRE, 217 Green St., Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. The invention provides auxiliary members adapted for disposition in service relation to be inflated; provides flotation displacement at the outside of the hull of a vessel, provides means for protecting flotation members in service relation from distress due to abrasion or shock; provides means for rapidly and readily covering the flotation members; provides floating means with armor to prevent injury thereto; and provides means whereby the flotation capacity of a vessel may be augmented at will.

FASTENING FOR SHIPING TAGE.—E. L. WILSON and J. J. BULLAY, care of the former, 210 1/2 Ave. Jersey City, N. J. This device consists of extending wires or rods through the bale while the bale is being compressed, so that the ends of these wires will project



FASTENING FOR SHIPING TAGE.

from the faces of the bale in single or in pairs, for the novel attachment of tags which are generally of such indurible material as tin, and which are marked to identify the goods. The tags are mounted on both sides of the bale so that the goods can be more readily identified, and it is not necessary to provide any burial.

Hardware and Tools.

WELL PIPE PERFORATOR.—A. C. OGBURN, 311 Cherokee Ave., Bartlesville, Okla. The invention provides a tool adapted for operation simultaneously at opposite sides of the pipe and casing of a well, to produce perforations therein; provides a simplified construction of perforator; and provides for the reduction of friction in the operation of the perforator. The



WELL PIPE PERFORATOR.

engraving shows a vertical section taken on the median line of a perforator, the parts being represented in the dotted-line position they have when being fed into a well.

SAFH LOCK.—C. B. JAMES, Lynchburg, N. Y. The invention comprises a lock for the bolt, said means separately attachable to upper and lower mates, and each having a ball adapted to be projected to engage the window frame, together with actuating means for the ball, said means including a coupling bar adapted to couple the two actuating means when the same are brought into alignment, whereby the bar will form a connection between the two mates, as a locking means, therefore, in addition to the automatic locking of the upper mate to the frame by means of the bolt.

HERNAN DODGE.—F. B. FERNANDES, Largo do Carmo 6, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The tool is

designed more particularly for the treatment of openings and occlusion of a handle and a longitudinally vibratory shaft extending at an angle



DENTAL TOOL.

with respect to the handle and to which the operating implement is attachable, together with means whereby said implement may be adjusted or revolved around a tooth during its vibratory movement by the hand of the operator.

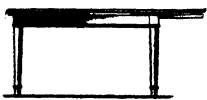
Heating and Lighting.

LAMP CLEANER.—D. BOWEN, Bowle, Colo. The object in view is to provide an easily operated cleaner for the gas outlet pipe in which the carlud lamps. Another is to provide a device easily applied and removed, and also easily and quickly operated at any time for cleaning the gas outlet tube in lamps under existing carlud.

Household Utilities.

BEG HASKET.—A. THURLOW, St. John, New Brunswick, Canada. An object in view of this invention is to provide an improved basket structure for holding eggs or other articles to be cooked, in connection with the timing device, which may be caused to indicate any desired time so that the eggs or other articles may be properly cooked.

EXTENSION TABLE.—V. F. NAUMANN, New York, N. Y. The table embodies a plurality of sections or leaves which, when not in use, can be pushed out of the way under the table top. An equal number of leaves are used at opposite ends of the table so that it



EXTENSION TABLE.

can be lengthened at one or both ends. When the length of the table is increased by means of the extension, one or more of the extensions can be used, so that the top can be lengthened at either or both ends to a greater or less degree.

Machine and Mechanical Devices.

TURNTABLE FOR STONEWORKING MACHINES.—F. R. LANG, 41 Hill St., Barre, Vt. This adjustable turntable is designed to economize time and labor in handling stone to be finished under pneumatic surfacing, polishing machines, or under any similar machine that requires an adjustable table for the leveling and squaring of the stone, and the setting of the work at any angle.

HEAVING BLANK.—W. F. KATZ, Box 1097, Atlanta, Ga. The inventor provides a block of minimum weight, maximum strength, and permits of being placed easily in position on the saw shaft or arbor to accurately square the adjacent saws the desired distance apart and to hold the saws parallel to the plane of rotation of the saw cylinder.

TORISON METEER.—T. B. THOMPSON, 2500 Clifton Ave., Washington, D. C. The invention relates to devices for measuring the torque of shafts, especially those shafts which are used in marine engines of the turbine type. It provides a device by means of which the amount of cord developed in a given length of shaft of certain size may be quickly and accurately determined.

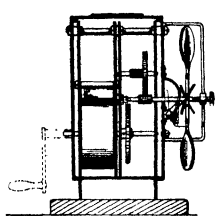
ROTARY DRILL BIT FOR OIL WELLS.—W. M. KICK, Collinsville, Cal. The invention has particular reference to means for boring rapidly through various characters of earth or rock by means of a drill bit, preferably of the ball form, adapted to operate rapidly and without clogging down soft, sticky, or shaly rock.

DROP DOWN SMALL ARB.—W. BAKER, 1000 Hill, Birmingham, England. The purpose here is to provide an automatic cocking and firing mechanism for drop down guns of the type in which the cocking and hammer levers are mounted on a common pivot. The invention comprises the pivoting on the cocking lever of a pin which passes through and alongside the hammer lever, and the mounting on the said pin of a spiral spring.

PUMP.—H. WALLINGTON, deceased. Address Mrs. Louise F. Wallington, 2005 Pied Ave., New York, N. Y. This invention is more especially designed for use in wells, mines, and other places from which water or other liquid is to be raised to a desired height, is arranged to insure raising of water or other liquid at a minimum expense of power, and prevents the danger of the revolving lifting device, reduces destructive vibrations and permits removal of the lifting device for repairs, etc., without disturbing the pump cylinders.

MACHINE BRAKE.—J. C. MCONE, Grenada, Miss. The object here is to provide a brake especially adapted for use with fans for cool-

ing buildings or for producing currents of air wherever desired, and especially fans driven



MACHINE BRAKE.

by spring motors, wherein the brake is arranged to engage the fan directly, for holding the fan against movement during the winding of the motor, or at any other time, the said mechanism being released.

PHOTOGRAPHIC PRINTING MACHINE.—B. O. FROKERTZ, Ping, N. D. The machine is designed especially for printing on developing papers, and the primary object of the invention is to provide for printing on developing paper where speed, accuracy and uniformity of results are desired, whether used with natural or artificial light.

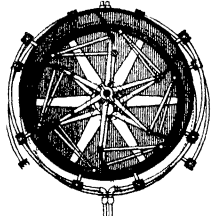
MINE CAR STOP.—J. T. TROTT, 1801 Monroe Ave., Scranton, Pa. This invention provides means for arresting the downward progress of an elevator in a mine shaft, the operation of which serves to release, for delivery to the elevator, a waiting car, and provides means for preventing the overrunning of cars into the shaft when the elevator is not in position to receive said cars.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.

FOUR CYCLE ENGINE.—C. W. KENNEDY, 1801 W. 12th St., Los Angeles, Cal. The purpose here is to secure both the scavenging and the cooling of the cylinder, by causing air to pass through the cylinder when the piston is at or adjacent the end of the power stroke so that when the piston completes its scavenging stroke, the gases remaining in the cylinder will be largely air instead of burned gases.

INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE AND METHOD OF SCAVENGING THERE.—C. W. KENNEDY, 1801 W. 12th St., Los Angeles, Cal. It is the object of this invention to utilize the vacuum in inducing air from the outside atmosphere into the engine cylinder to scavenge the same prior to the admission of the fuel charge. Air admitted in this manner prevents the return movement of exhaust gas through the exhaust port into the cylinder. It permits the exhaust gas to continue moving out the exhaust conduit, and thus to replace by air a portion of the exhaust gas normally remaining in the cylinder at this time.

ROTARY ENGINE.—N. D. SIMMONS, care of Henry Amberg, 4228 Park Ave., Bronx, N. Y. N. Y. This invention has for its object to pro-



ROTARY ENGINE.

vide a rotary engine having blades extending through slots in a rotatable drum disposed in a casing and actuated by a shaft, a portion of the casing being secured with an adjacent portion of the casing, and the shaft being provided with a crank disposed in the said adjacent portion of the casing.

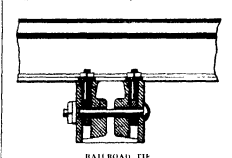
Railways and Their Accessories.

SHIPPING UNIT.—J. W. TERRY, 22 Augusta St., San Antonio, Tex. This invention refers to a shipping unit or carrier for the transportation of merchandise as freight, express, or baggage, the said unit comprising generally a wheeled structure of predetermined size, a given number of which may be contained in an ordinary box car and transported bodily, to the end that when and time be minimized in the loading, transportation, and unloading of small consignments.

RAILWAY TRACK.—T. G. MCNEIL, Ladlow, Cal. This invention relates to a means for holding track rails in a manner to prevent creeping of the track, or of other rail thereof, the rail-holding means, moreover, being formed

and positioned to prevent destruction of the same in expansion or contraction of the rails.

RAILROAD TIE.—E. MARSHALL, St. Peter, Minn. One of the principal objects of the invention is to provide means adapted to be carried in a car for securing the track rails in place on the tie. He provides rail fastening means adapted for use with lengths of worn out rails whereby the latter may be utilized as cross ties. He also provides in combination with a rail length means for engaging the base flanges of the track rail, and means for ad-



RAILROAD TIE.

justing the rail engaging means both longitudinally and vertically whereby to accommodate rate of various dimensions.

Pertaining to Recreation.

CONTROLLING DEVICE FOR BILLIARD TABLES.—AND THIR LICK, Jr., Pasadena, 28 Third Ave., Manhattan, N. Y. N. Y. This invention provides a device for billiard tables, pool tables, and similar game apparatus, and ar-



CONTROLLING DEVICE FOR BILLIARD TABLES.

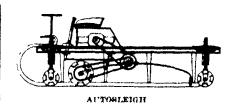
anged to automatically register the time the apparatus is used during the day or other given period, and also to regulate the number of games played during each period.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

BEAR END SIGNAL FOR VEHICLES.—O. W. WILKINS, 341 1/2 St. N., Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. The invention provides a signal, the operation of which is simple and concordant with the movement of the hand of the driver or traffic manager, and provides a signal arranged to show, under all conditions, the rear end or danger light.

PIVOTAL TUNING MEANS FOR AUTOMOBILES.—A. J. MCGLOTHLIN, care of E. Plaque, 190 Broad St., New York, N. Y. This invention relates generally to a pivotal tuning means for automobiles and the like, characterized by a structure permitting the vehicle to turn about a point which is substantially at the middle point of the rear axle.

ATTORNEY.—L. T. TOWNSEND, 416 Chestnut St., Evansville, Ind. The object of the invention is to provide a strong and inexpensive sleigh which is easily controllable, and on which the traction wheels are so arranged as to prevent slipping sideways. The means for guiding



ATTORNEY.

the sleigh are adapted to relieve the weight of the sleigh from the runners during the turning of the sleigh. The sleigh can be quickly stopped, the means for this becoming operative when the traction wheel is rendered inoperative.

NOTE.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for ten cents each. Please state the name of the patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

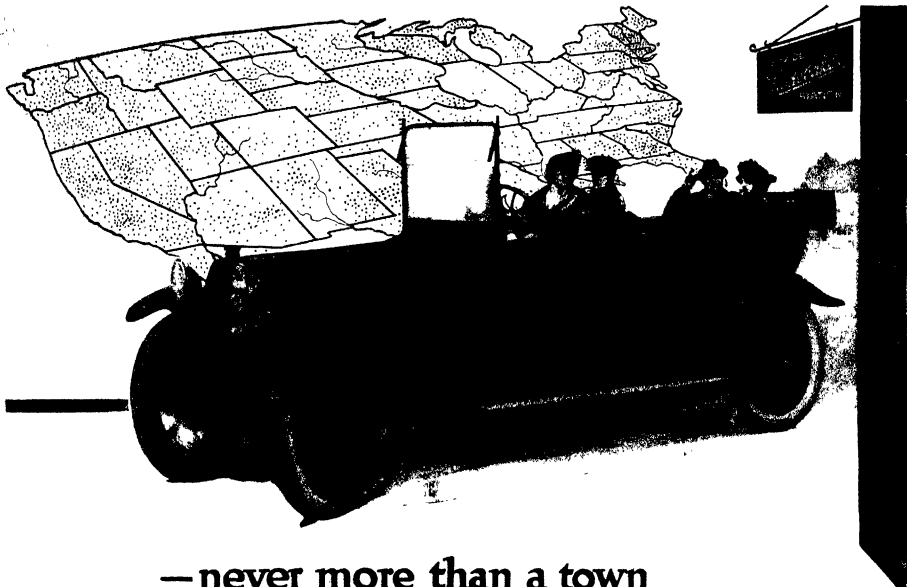
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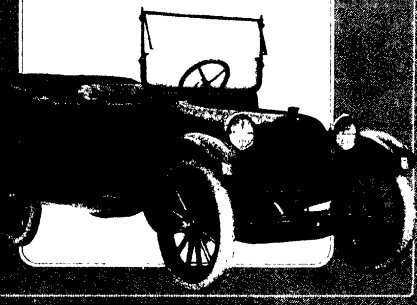
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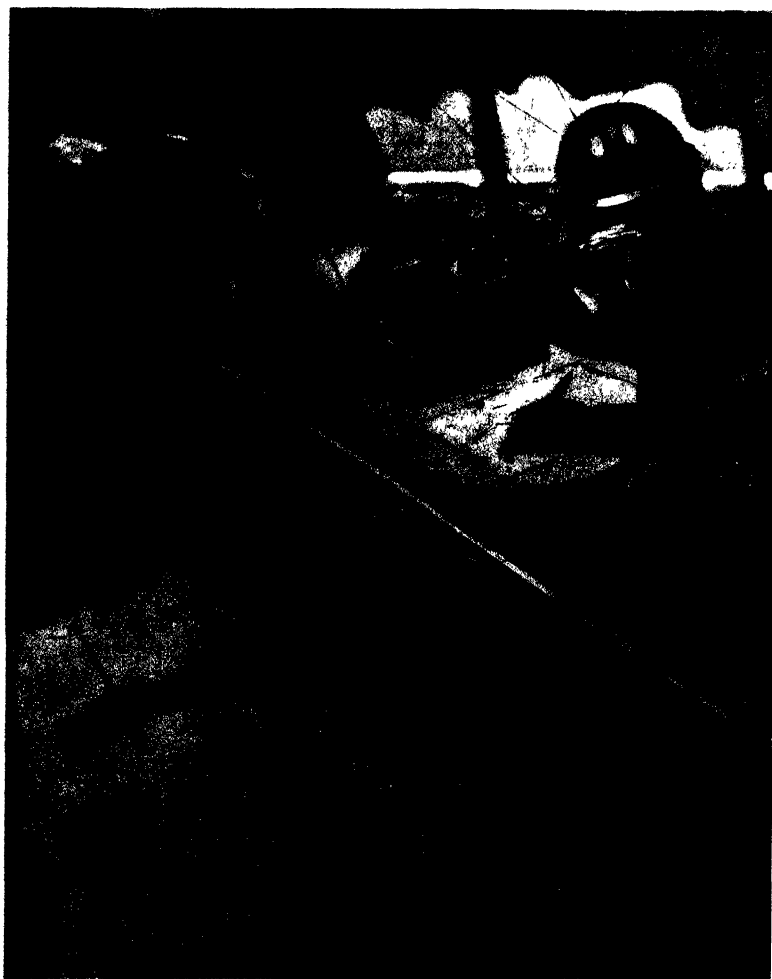
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THE PHINOGRAPH LEAVES THE AIR-SCOUT'S HANDS UNHAMPERED [See page 175]

Vol. CXII No. 8
February 30, 1916

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An Undefended Treasure Land

Do you know that the United States is the richest country in the world, with a wealth in lands, farms, factories, cities, railroads, etc., combined, nearly twice as great as that of the second richest country on the list?

Do you know that this, the richest country, is practically helpless against invasion and conquest?

Do you know that our much-talked-of coast defenses protect merely our harbors, and do not, and were never intended to defend our coasts?

Do you know that any one of the great military powers of Europe which possesses a navy more powerful than ours, in ten days after the declaration of a pre-meditated war, could land an army of 200,000 veteran soldiers, complete with artillery, motor cars, stores, etc., on our coasts at points remote from the harbor fortifications?

Do you know that this army, landing at designated points near Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Washington, would in twenty days time be able to capture from the land side the forts protecting these cities, and clear out the mines from the channels?

Do you know that the enemy's dreadnoughts could then enter the harbors, anchor within range, and secure

five billion dollars indemnity in lieu of having these cities utterly laid waste by bombardment?

Do you know that while the enemy was thus securing the prepayment of the cost of the war, his transports would be landing other troops for the seizure of the inland cities and great manufacturing centers of the country?

Do you know that while this was being done to us, we would be powerless to resist, our continental 30,000 regular troops and 60,000 militia being scattered from Maine to California and from Canada to the Gulf?

Do you know that it would take 30 days to gather these forces on the Atlantic coast, and that when they reached there, they would be short of artillery and supplies, and for lack of experience in maneuvers, would be helpless in the presence of the veteran troops and Generals of Europe?

Do you know that when this little army had heroically dashed itself to pieces against superior forces, the country would have no reserves whatever to carry on the war?

Do you know that if a million volunteers rushed to arms—as they would—there would be no arms for them; and do you realize that a million unarmed and untrained men would be but a mob?

If you want to know the absolute truth about these amazing conditions

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THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

VOLUME CXXI
NUMBER 2

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 20, 1915

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New York's Greatest Lighting Spectacle

By Charles W. Person

WHEN the sixty-storied Woolworth structure was nearing completion, Cass Gilbert, who was employed to prepare the architect's drawings, went to F. W. Woolworth's office with a big roll of plans in his arms.

"How high do you want the tower now?" asked Mr. Gilbert.

"How high can you make it?" questioned Mr. Woolworth.

"It is for you to make the limit," said Mr. Gilbert.

Mr. Woolworth was silent. The Metropolitan tower had just been run into the air, overtopping the Singer building. At that particular moment he had on his desk the exact measurements of the Metropolitan tower. Studying these figures a moment, he turned to Mr. Gilbert.

"Then make it at least fifty feet higher than the Metropolitan tower," said he.

That is one chapter in the interesting story explaining how the Woolworth building came to be day king of New York's skyline. That was a distinction of no little importance, but sad to relate, it was short-lived, for with the coming night the huge structure was swallowed up in darkness and robbed of its glory. To the south appeared the real night king of the skyline—a lower king, to be sure, but none the less real—in the form of the Singer tower, strung and scudded with lights. The eyes that admired the Woolworth tower by day left it to admire the Singer tower by night.

Thus it was that New York's skyline paid homage to two kings, that is, until New Year's night, when the day king burst from the black night a great crystal of flaming light, causing all the other lighting spectacles of the metropolis to fade away before it. The thirty stories, comprising the tower of the Woolworth building, form the most wonderful permanent lighting spectacle in the world at the present time.

Illuminating building exteriors is not a new feat to New Yorkers. In the past structures have been illuminated by bringing into prominence certain lines and architectural details, obliterating in large measure the other surfaces. Lighting of this character had been installed in connection with the safe and sane Fourth of July celebration, but the results did not best befit the beauty and dignity of the Woolworth building. Mr. F. W. Woolworth, before giving orders for the installation, had his eyes on the Singer tower, just as he had his eyes on the Metropolitan tower before he told Mr. Gilbert to go ahead with the building plans. It was his desire to engineer a lighting spectacle that would not only be original, but gigantic.

A string of incandescent bulbs or a series of strings was out of the question, so it was decided at the time to

light the entire surfaces of four sides of the tower from the thirtieth to the sixtieth floor and make the installation a permanent one. It took 50,000 feet of conduit from $\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 inches in diameter, 16,400 feet of 500,000 C. M. cable, and 50,000 feet of No. 14 duplex wire to complete the installation.

On account of the great height and to insure uniform lighting, projectors—ordinary automobile lamps of the largest size—were used. It required six hundred of these projectors, each with a 250-watt lamp of the new gas-filled type with closely concentrated filament, to play light upon the four sides of the thirty-storied tower. In addition to these six hundred projectors twenty-four 1,000-watt lamps were placed in the top-most point of the tower, called the lantern or crow's nest, to give the effect of a great scintillating jewel. The total power consumed is 175 kilowatts—more light than is usually employed in lighting the streets of a city of 30,000 inhabitants.

The projectors are arranged in batteries at vantage points, and so placed that the rays from one set shoot upward along the sides of the tower, and the spaces not touched by this set are played upon by another set arranged on the floors above which direct their rays downward. Thus there is one continual diffusion of light. To prevent anyone in the street from determining the sources of the light, screens are used.

The projectors are distributed in the following manner: Two sets are placed on the north and south wings of the pent house at the thirtieth floor to light the west side of the tower as far as the forty-third floor. The north and south sides of the tower are

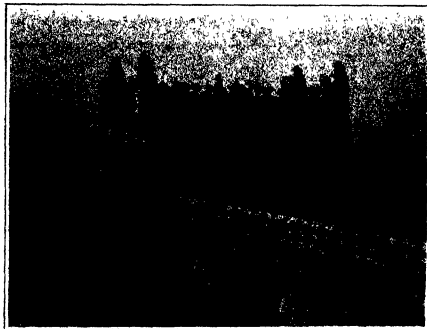
lathed in light from the thirtieth to the forty-third floor by a set placed on the gabled roofs at the thirtieth floor. The east side had to be lighted from a set placed on a narrow balcony opposite the twenty-seventh floor. This is the method employed to shoot light upward, so at the forty-third floor a similar set of projectors is placed which plays light on any spots not touched by the projectors at the thirtieth floor.

From the forty-third and forty-ninth floors projectors are focused up as far as the fifty-third floor, or beginning of the Mansard roof. Another set is placed at this floor to illuminate the Mansard roof. Opposite the fifty-fourth floor four sets are placed which play upon the observation balcony at the fifty-eighth floor, or 750 feet above the pavement. But the most novel feature of the whole installation is two stories above—the sixtieth floor, which is the crow's nest or lantern. It is enclosed with diffusing glass and within the lantern itself, which is a very small affair, and is a mere 792 feet 1 inch above Broadway, are placed the twenty powerful lamps. Connected with these lamps is an automatic dimmer, which continually alters their intensity in an irregular cycle. The glass surface of the lantern gives the jeweled effect of a deep red glow no brighter than the adjacent gilded structure, and again it flares to a bright white light of fifty times this intensity.

Forty engineers and a dozen electrical experts worked for months making the installation bring into an architectural detail the hidden recesses, the balconies, pent houses, Mansard roof, observation balcony, and lantern. The reflecting characteristics of the glazed terra cotta surface of the building and the necessity for mounting the large amount of material equipment in a few restricted locations of the tower itself caused unusual difficulties in the design of the lighting scheme.

First Award of the Anthony N. Brady Safety Medal.—Early last year the family authorized the annual award by the American Museum of Safety of a gold medal to the American electric railway company which for the year had done the most to conserve the safety and health of the public and its employees, and the first of these medals has just been awarded to the Boston Elevated Railway Company. Besides the principal medal two replicas, one in silver and one in bronze, are also

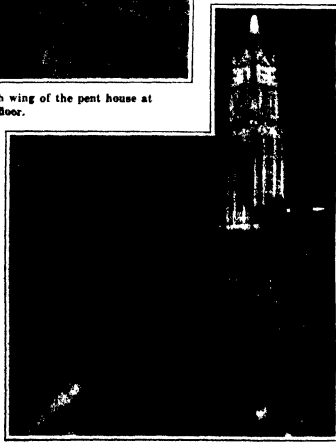
given respectively to the member of the operating staff and to the employee who contributed most to the successful record of the company. These medals were given to Russell Adams, Sears, vice-president of the road and to Henry V. Neal, a mechanic in the shops, who had served on the Safety Committee, and whose system in the shops had reduced the record of accidents by 100 per cent during the year. This is the only case where a workman in an establishment as a result has received such a recognition. It should encourage the men to work out safety methods.



A battery of projectors in the north wing of the pent house at the thirtieth floor.



Projectors on the twenty-seventh floor that throw light to the forty-third story.



The Woolworth tower as it appears at night. The Singer tower is shown at the left.

Electricity

Introducing Electric Flatirons in South America.—The enterprising public utility company of Rio de Janeiro, endeavoring to encourage the use of electricity in the household, has adopted the policy of giving an electric flatiron free with each gas stove purchased within a certain period. The experiment is declared to be very successful.

Iron v. Copper Wire in Germany.—Because large quantities of copper are used in the manufacture of ammunition for the German and because the United States has restricted the import of that metal, the German Association of Electrical Engineers has issued an announcement recommending the use of iron wire instead of copper wherever possible. The substitution can readily be carried out in direct current installation, but where alternating current is used, it introduces complications because of the skin effect and the increased impedance.

Electric Water Heater.—A very compact little electric stove has been put on the market which is particularly adapted for heating a tumbler or glassful of water in a very short space of time. The heating element is in the form of a cylinder, slightly under an inch in diameter and about 4½ inches long, which is held by a nothing but an ear of corn at the mouth of the glass. The device to retain the heat and also keep out dust and dirt. The switch in the cover controls the current. The heating element generates sufficient heat to bring a glass of water to a boil in a minute and a half. The device consumes 450 watts.

Electric Lamps in the United States.—According to a recent report of the Bureau of the Census, in 1907 there were 569,981 incandescent lamps were in use in the United States, as against 85,577,819 incandescent lamps. The number of arc lamps showed a drop of about 55,000 since 1907 while the incandescent lamps showed a gain of nearly forty million. The number of electric lamps used for street lighting in 1912 is given as 348,945 arc lamps and 681,379 incandescent lamps. The geographical distribution of the lamps shows nearly eight million for the New England division, twenty-two million for Middle Atlantic, nearly nineteen million for East North Central, eight million for West North Central, nearly four million for South Atlantic, two million for East South Central, three million for West South Central, two million for Mountain and nearly eight million for the Pacific division.

Emergency Street Lamps.—Apparently Chicago is so accustomed to having joy riders run amok on its boulevards at night, and wreck its lamp posts, that it has provided emergency lamp posts to be used on such occasions. The lamps that furnish the special object of attack for the pellicking, devil-may-care motorists are those located at street corners in the so-called "Isle of Safety." Surely this is a misnomer so far as the lamps are concerned. But, be that as it may, there can be no doubt that after the lamp has been smashed these concrete obstacles in the middle of the avenue become a dangerous menace to the careful driver as well as to the reckless one. Assembled emergency lamps are kept on hand when such a place is needed. The emergency lamp consists of a gas pipe standard attached to a hand-hole cover fitted with fuses and connection terminals. Spring leaves on the cover serve to hold the post upright when they are forced into the hand-hole. At the top of the post are four carbon-filament lamps inclosed in a red globe. This serves as a light-bay for the look in the path of navigation. However, it would seem as if the Isle of Safety could be turned into red refuge for pedestrians were they better fortified against attack.

High-Lift Centrifugal Pump.—Electric motors for pumping purposes are now used to good advantage for high lifts, and the new turbine pumps for such combinations are said to be much better than piston pumps which were hitherto used. The centrifugal pump is not only used for low lifts, but the modern multiple stage pump can be designed to pump against a head of 3,000 feet or more, and the limit in this direction is as unrestricted as with any form of plunger pump. Again, the efficiency compares favorably with that of the latter type. But a great advantage lies in coupling to high-speed electric motors. This is especially so, as that each stage has a mine pump group for delivering 670 gallons per minute against a head of 1,500 feet, the speed being 1,485 revolutions per minute. An electric motor occupies the middle of a long foundation plate, with a turbine pump coupled on each side. Pumps of this class often have five stages, the water passing into five successive chambers with a 1,485 revolutions per minute. Between each stage is mounted on separate foundations a three-phase, 1,250 horse-power, 5,000-volt electric motor. The present system is of English make.

Science

Bacteriological Examinations of Hamburger Steak.—In two recent contributions to the *American Journal of Public Health*, Messrs. Wenzel and Newton describe a new method of determining the bacterial content of meat, in which the meat is ground in a mortar with sterile sand and normal salt solution to obtain an emulsion for inoculation into the culture media, and report the application of this method to the determination of the bacterial content of a number of samples of market Hamburger steak. The result showed that the average of 1,000,000 bacteria per gramme sometimes advocated as a maximum limit for the salable product is much too low, as nearly all the samples examined would be condemned on this basis, though showing no taint or other evidence of putrefaction. The authors propose a limit of 10,000,000 bacteria per gramme, though their own on this basis about 50 per cent of the market samples of Hamburger steak would still be condemned.

The Book of the One-armed.—Of interest in this era of war when so many men are maimed one way or another is the "Book of the One-armed," written by Count (Géza) Zichy and issued in Germany. It is intended to show how men who are one-armed can with a single hand be the masters of the help of others. When a young man Count Zichy lost his right arm, yet in spite of this misfortune he has become a distinguished pianist and is known as "the left-handed virtuoso." The count had long wished to narrate his experiences to fellow-sufferers, so as to show them how he had risen above his infirmity and by what means he had managed to depend on himself. All that requires hands, he says, he has done, and seemed to him the right time to carry out his plan, and he recounts his experiences in the struggle for self-help with an amiable humor which should encourage those who, brave as soldiers or in the ordinary cares of life, are deceived at a fate that seems to keep them in a constant state of dependence.

Prof. Benjamin Sharp.—The announcement was received that Prof. Benjamin Sharp, for many years known as a zoologist of note, had recently died at Morhead, R. C., in his fifty-sixth year. Dr. Sharp graduated from Swarthmore College and the Medical School of the University of Pennsylvania, which in 1891 conferred upon him the degree of Ph.D. He continued his studies abroad at the University of Würzburg, which conferred a Doctor's degree upon him, and also studied at the universities of Berlin and Leipzig, and at the Zoological Station at Naples. Returning to this country he held the professorship of invertebrate zoology at the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, and at the University of Pennsylvania, and was formerly Corresponding Secretary of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences. He was with the first U. S. expedition to the Arctic, and also did much special work in the Hawaiian and Caribbean Islands.

Abaco (Mantia hemp) has been for more than a quarter of a century the leading export product of the Philippines, and during part of this time has comprised more than two-thirds of the total value of Philippine exports. The production of this fiber on a commercial scale has always been confined to the Philippine Islands. The reason, however, the prosperity of this industry has been seriously threatened by the increased production elsewhere of machine-cleaned sisal, together with a deterioration in the quality of abaco. While sisal is of generally uniform quality, the output of abaco has been extremely heterogeneous in character, and there was no uniform system of grading and marking. This situation has now been met by the Philippine Legislature which recently enacted a law covering the inspection, grading, and baling of abaco, maguay, sisal, and other fibers, to become effective January 1st, 1915. The subject is discussed in detail in the last quarterly number of the *Philippine Agricultural Review* for 1914, nearly the whole number being devoted to the abaco industry.

The Smithsonian Tables.—The recent appearance in a sixth edition of the Smithsonian Physical Tables makes timely a review of the valuable series of publications to which this belongs. In 1852 the Smithsonian Institution published the first edition of the Smithsonian Meteorological Tables, compiled by Dr. Arnold Guyot, primarily for use in the schools. It was the result of meteorological observations established by the Institute since about 1850. These tables included much material of general application in physics and were widely used by meteorologists and physicists all over the world. A fourth edition of "Tables, Meteorological and Physical" appeared in 1894, and was a work of much greater size and scope than the original publication. Subsequently it was deemed expedient to subdivide the subject-matter of these tables, and accordingly three independent series were founded; viz., meteorological, physical, and mathematical. The meteorological tables, in the new series, have appeared in four editions, while the new series is now under consideration. The geographical tables have been issued in three editions. The first separate edition of the physical tables appeared in 1896. Finally, a fourth series is the Smithsonian Mathematical Tables (*Hyperbolic Functions*), issued in 1909.

Automobile

British Daimler to Make Gnome Motors.—The famous Gnome rotary gasoline motor is to be made in Great Britain during the war by the Daimler Company at Coventry. The Daimler product is rated at 80 horse-power, and is to be used in aeronautical work.

An Anti-freezing Liquid.—Many anti-freezing mixtures and preparations have been proposed at various times, but there is one that is seldom mentioned which is said to be excellent in many cases. This is plain kerosene, which will not freeze at any temperature experienced in this country, and also has the advantage that it has a tendency to clean any dirt out of the radiator. It is claimed that kerosene will not in any way injure the majority of radiators, but it should not be used in cars that show a tendency to run hot and boil the water in the radiator, for as kerosene has a lower evaporative point than water it would be wasted rapidly in a hot engine.

Paris to have Improved Autobuses.—It is well known that most of the public autobuses in Paris have been taken by the government to serve as military transports, in which work they have proved unexpectedly successful. Even if these vehicles are in condition for further service after the war is over they will not be returned to Paris, but such as can be utilized will be found in the small towns carrying commercial travelers to and fro between the station and the hotel. Already plans have been made for more direct and more elegant buses for Paris, and the new model proposed will be roomier, with higher windows, and will weigh considerably less than the old vehicles.

Motor Squadrons of England.—There has been much activity of late in the open spaces around London where military motor squadrons have been practicing maneuvers. Each squadron is complete in itself, and consists of a large armored car having a Maxim quick-firing gun mounted on top, a motor car, and a car carrying a 1 or 2 pound gun. For these there are two supply cars, and the squadron also includes a red cross car. These combinations are so complete and mobile that they have been found extremely valuable especially in the skirmishes that so frequently take place in villages. Since the prompt rounding up of DeWet on the occasion of his recent revolt in South Africa, the appreciation of the value of motor cars has greatly increased.

American Motor Trucks for the War.—Many times have been going the rounds in regard to orders placed in America by foreign powers for motor trucks to be used in the military operations. Most of the published statements have been erroneous, but in two cases the exact figures for orders thus far received are known. One large concern has contracts for 1,200 trucks of 2-ton capacity, fitted with special bodies, while another equally prominent builder has delivered 800 2-ton trucks and has orders for 300 5-ton trucks for immediate delivery. The purchases in both of these cases is the French government, which has found the American cars perfectly satisfactory. The military authorities in London have also received an order for trucks from the British Admiralty which is now being filled.

Keeping Inner Tubes Soft.—Much money is lost annually by private motorists and by dealers in rubber tires and tubes in small communities, because of the tendency of the rubber tubes to become hard and brittle after a few months of storage. To fold up tubes, cover them with chalk and put them in pastboard boxes is only a makeshift. They will lose their resiliency after a while. A German rubber manufacturer not long ago furnished to all his dealers instructions as to how best to care for inner tubes. According to these the best way to preserve tubes is to blow them up to the pressure in an ordinary rubber ball, to hang them upon one or two fairly thick round poles, or to place them in a darkened room, in which a dish of unslaked lime and one of ammonia solution are placed in the corners on the floor. This arrangement keeps the air free of destructive acids and retards the process of vulcanization which goes on in the tubes.

Substitutes for Gasoline.—The efficiency of the German military motor transport service, in which substitutes for gasoline, such as benzene, are so extensively employed is gradually forcing the attention of engineers and investigators to the fuel question, and calling attention to the very material advantage that Germany has made in this direction. In America, when cheaper fuel is mentioned to an automobile maker or dealer the reply too often is that the price of gasoline has not gone up, consequently there is no need for worry. But how long will this condition last? And in the meantime why should motorists pay twice what they should for fuel? Too many people in the automobile business are so unwise as to persist in regarding their product as a luxury, in regard to which no one should consider the question of expense, but some of the wise business men in this trade are already preparing their preparations for meeting the new conditions that are sure to come.

The Sixth Award of the Scientific American Medal for Safety Devices

By William H. Tolman, Director American Museum of Safety

SEVEN years ago the American Museum of Safety was founded by a small group of those interested in safeguarding life and limb from industrial and other accidents. The trustees were largely editors of technical journals, which supported the new movement with great enthusiasm. This movement has grown and grown until we have three Museums of Safety in the United States—one in New York, one in Boston, and one in San Francisco, the two latter being modeled on the parent Museum in New York. The American Museum of Safety has been an inspiration for the entire country and has resulted in the formation of "Safety First" societies, committees, etc., numbering hundreds. Early in the history of the Museum it was felt that some encouragement should be offered to corporations and individuals to invent and install safety devices, as well as to look after the welfare of employees. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN was the first to offer a medal for this purpose, and it has now been awarded six times for the most efficient safety device invented within three years of the award and exhibited at the Museum. In the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of February 7th, 1914, the first five winning devices were illustrated and described. To recapitulate: The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN Medal has been awarded as follows:

- 1908. The Rich Marine Fire Extinguisher Company
- 1909. The Patent Scaffold Company
- 1910. The Norton Company
- 1912. For the Pulmotor
- 1913. The Wells Marine Equipment Company

The annual exercises and the award of the Museum medals took place on February 10th in the auditorium of the United Engineering Societies Building, President Arthur Williams in the chair. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN Medal was awarded first on account of seniority.

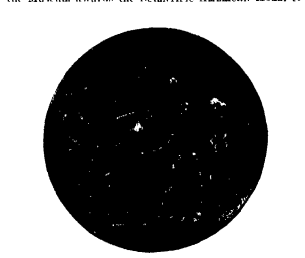
The inventor of the winning device is Mr. Glenn S. Williamson, mechanical superintendent of the New York World. Mr. Williamson was appealed by an accident in a neighboring building in which a well-known jurist fell in the elevator shaft through an open door to his death thirteen stories below, so he then devised the system illustrated herewith, and this has been operated on several elevators in the World Building and also in other tall structures with great success. In awarding the medal, Dr. Frederick L. Hutton, Vice-President and Chairman of the Bureau of Awards, said:

"The general principles on the basis of which the Museum recognizes successful achievement are six in number.

- (1) Applicability. Does the device secure safety for a large number of persons or in a great variety of conditions?
- (2) Feasibility. Can the device be used economically and successfully? It must not be too cumbersome or intricate to apply or operate.
- (3) Simplicity. It must not be so complicated that experts are required to handle or keep it in repair.
- (4) Reliability. It must not be liable to derangement or failure to work in emergencies.
- (5) Durability. It must not be so delicate or need such fine adjustment that it will not stand up in service.
- (6) Commercial availability. It must not be too expensive to install or maintain in operation; it must be obtainable in an open market for the use of all.

"The first medal in the history of the Museum to be created and awarded was the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN Medal. It was first given in 1908, and the foregoing criteria were created to guide the jury in awards in its class. It is given to such individual or corporation as has produced and exhibited in the American Museum of Safety a perfected device of utility which best conserves human life and limb in the processes of productive industry or other avocations. The award this year is given to an individual and the company which he has created to give permanency to his undertakings for a device which shall secure safety to the general public which makes use of the elevator system in our great office and other buildings, stores, and

hotels. It meets the requirements of the conditions of award and is made, in addition, to command the special approval of the jury because it involves and in a most simple and direct way the application of what safety calls 'the interlocking principle.' That is, a construction makes it mechanically impossible to open the hatchway door either from within or without until the car is at the landing or within four inches above or below it. Secondly, it is impossible to start the car from the landing until the hatchway gate is closed entirely or so nearly closed that no part of the human frame can be forced through the opening. For its attainment of mechanical safety and the prevention of obstinate or reckless humanity from doing what it ought not to do, the Museum awards the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN Medal to



The Scientific American Medal.

the Shurloc Elevator Safety Company, Inc., and to Mr. Glenn S. Williamson, the designer of the mechanical details of the device.

A description of the device will prove interesting. Safety of passengers getting on or off elevators can only be assured by three things:

- (1) By holding the elevator car immovable at a safe landing while the gate is open.
- (2) By locking the gate shut before the car can be moved up or down the shaft.
- (3) By keeping the gate shut and locked when the car is away from the landing.

To be effective, these essentials must be mechanically compulsory, as with an interlocking switch and signal, by maintaining a unit of safety at each gate which operates when the car reaches the landing.

In the system here described each unit works independently of all the other units and cannot by any known means tie up or interfere with the regular operation of the elevator, which is an ever-present possibility whenever the locking system is unified with all the doors in the elevator shaft.

The unit of safety in this system is a locking mechanism on the sill in the elevator shaft at the bottom of the gate and to the side of the car. The car carries an equipment by which the lock is operated mechanically from the car, thus controlling the opening of the door.

The accompanying photographs are of a working model of wood, of which the car floor A is cut

away to show the car equipment and operation. Fig. 1 shows the Shur-Loc mounted under the gate and the gate locked, also the car equipment with the controller at running position.

Fig. 2 shows the controller locked in a neutral position, the projecting shoe gripped by the retaining bolt, the gate unlocked and opening. The mechanism is shown with its cover removed.

With this system, before anyone can leave or enter the elevator car it must be brought to the landing in front of the gate; the controller must be placed in a neutral position, stopping the car, and then, by simply stepping on the pedal (1) in the car floor near where he stands, the operator locks the controller and unlocks the gate.

When he steps on this pedal it raises the locking rod (2) and locks the controller, as shown in the photograph. It also projects the contact shoe (3) against a lug behind 3, forcing back the catch (5), which releases the shoe (6), thereby unlocking the gate. While the gate is unlocked the elevator door may be opened and passengers can leave or enter the car in perfect safety, for the car cannot be moved either up or down while the gate is open or unlocked. The car cannot move because when the shoe (6) is released from the first catch (5) the steel retaining bolt (7) gripped the contact shoe (3) and secured it in its projected position, where it holds up the rod (2) and keeps the controller locked so the car cannot move.

The car cannot be started until the shoe (3) is released, and it can only be released by shutting the gate, which is securely and mechanically locked by the first catch (5) when it gets back in closing to within four inches of the jamb. Here the retaining bolt (7) will instantly release the contact shoe (3) and allow the locking rod (2) to fall by gravity so as to unlock the control and let the operator start his car.

It is obvious that as locking the gate unlocks the controller the car cannot start until after the gate is locked. Consequently, no one can possibly pass through the gate after the car is started. The unlocking of the controller is simultaneous with the locking of the gate, and unlocking the gate and locking the controller are simultaneous with the pressure of the operator's foot on the pedal, which locks the control and unlocks the gate. There is no delay to the elevator. A quick, safe landing and getaway are assured. One pressure of the foot when the car reaches the landing anchors the car and frees the passengers. After the gate is locked on the first latch it takes only a few seconds for it to close the last four inches and again lock tight shut on the second latch. Meanwhile the operator's mind acts, he moves his controller and away goes his car. The entire operation is automatic and mechanical and enacted from the inside of the car while it is stationary at a safe landing. If the operator steps on the pedal while the car is moving anywhere in the shaft, the inside spring with which the pedal is provided absorbs the pressure and nothing happens, because the rod cannot be raised nor the shoe projected while the controller is in the running position.

This device has an extra feature, not essential to safety perhaps, but which will appeal to all users of elevators. This is a light to illuminate the threshold of the car while the gate is open. An electric switch controlling a light is fixed under the car in a strong metal

box and operated by the same pressure which projects the shoe, thus simultaneously illuminating the threshold of the car when the door is open.

The other medals which were awarded were: The Traveler's Insurance Company's Medal, which was given to the Commonwealth Edison Company of Chicago; the E. H. Harriman Memorial Medal in the railway field, which were awarded to the New York Central Railroad Company; and the Anthony N. Brady Memorial Medal in the street railway field, which were awarded to the Boston Elevated Railway Company.

Hon. Dudley M. Holden made the principal address.

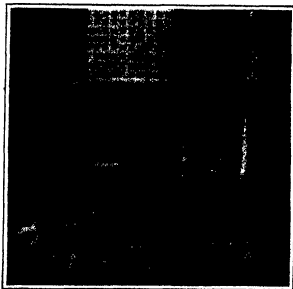


Fig. 1.—Gate locked and controller in running position.

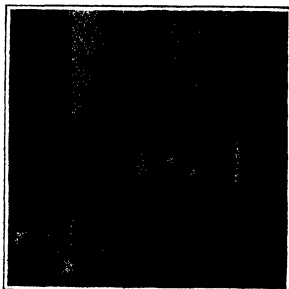


Fig. 2.—Controller locked in neutral position and gate unlocked.

Stretchers of Straw for the Dutch Army

By W. J. L. Kleih

A NATIVE of Netherlands has invented a very practical stretcher for army use, also a field-bed of similar construction, which will be found very comfortable and warm. The stretcher consists of a mat of straw with a reinforcing of willow or reed on the underside. This is fastened to a couple of bamboo poles which serve as handles. A couple of spading boards keep the mattress spread out fairly flat when in use, as shown in one of the drawings. A roll of straw serves as a pillow. With the bamboo poles removed the mat tress of straw will be found serviceable, as a bed, even on damp ground, and a blanket, also of straw, may be used to keep the sleeper warm.

These straw stretchers were first used in conveying the wounded of the British cruisers sunk off Holland's coast, and since then they have seen service on the southern frontiers of Netherlands. Many a sick and wounded Belgian refugee or soldier has stretched his weary limbs on these straw beds. They promise to be especially useful in times of epidemic, for their inexpensiveness allows of their being burnt after use, so that there will be no danger of spreading infection. When not in use they may be rolled up and piled in stacks as shown in one of the photographs.

Manufacture of Optical Glass in America

THE glass used in this country for the manufacture of lenses is practically all imported except in the case of some of the smaller and cheaper lenses. For several years past the Bureau of Standards of the Department of Commerce has been endeavoring to persuade the glass manufacturers of the United States to take up the manufacture of this material, but they have been unable to do so, partly because of the limited quantity used as compared with other glass, but largely on account of the varying composition required and the difficulty of annealing the glass, as good optical glass must be entirely free from strain.

With a view to working out some of the underlying problems sufficiently to enable manufacturers to start in this matter, the Bureau secured two years ago an expert interested in the composition and testing of optical systems, and a little later secured another man skilled in the working of glass to the definite forms required by the theory. These steps were taken, first, partly because it is exceedingly difficult to find men having these qualifications, but principally because, as the work of experimental glass-making progresses, the glass must be put in the form of lenses and prisms to test. In other words, the Bureau had to be in a position to examine the product, as it was made experimentally. In July, 1914, a practical glass-maker was added to the force of the Bureau. He is a college graduate of scientific training, but skilled in the manipulation of furnaces, and is the sort of a man to make progress at the present stage of the work.

Small furnaces were built and melts of a few pounds of ordinary glass were made in order to become more familiar with the technical side. A larger furnace has just been completed, which will handle melts of 25 to 50 pounds. The Bureau is now making glass according to definite formulas, studying the methods of securing it free from bubbles, and other practical points. This is to be followed by an investigation of the method of annealing.

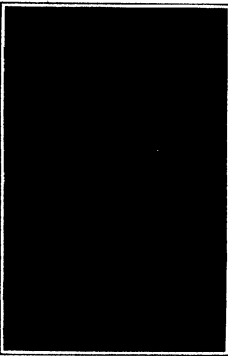
Several glass manufacturers have visited the Bureau already for suggestions as to equipment for the manufacture of optical glass.

Mechanical Aids for Air Scouts

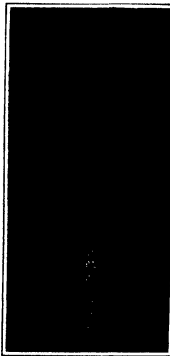
IN carrying out scouting observations with military aeroplanes it is essential that there be two men in the machine, namely, a pilot whose sole duty it is to



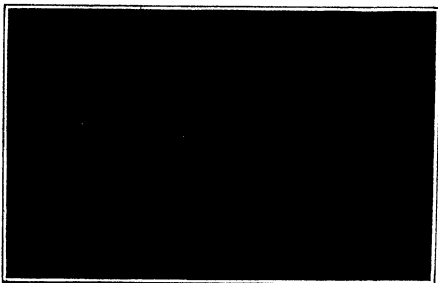
Stretcher of straw used in the Dutch army.



Bed, pillow, and blanket of straw.



The stretcher folded up.



A Dutch soldier in his bed of straw.



The rearing aeroplane motor makes telephone communication necessary.

operate and steer the craft and an observer who can devote undivided attention to scanning the ground below him and making sketches of fortified works, the disposition of the enemy's guns, the movements of their troops and the like. Unfortunately, the great noise made by the motor renders it impossible for the two men to carry on any conversation. Often this proves quite a drawback for a proper understanding between pilot and observer. To remedy this defect a loud-speaking telephone system is now in use between pilot and observer in some of the French military aeroplanes. As the accompanying photograph shows, each man is provided with a special helmet fitted with receivers over the ears and a transmitter located in convenient range of the mouth. This has proved to be a most practical way of keeping up a conversation in spite of the deafening noise of the motor.

A still further improvement is shown in our front page illustration. If the observer is to make sketches of the ground over which he is flying, he will be so much occupied, probably, as not to have time to jot down notes. Sometimes events may follow in such rapid sequence that he may not have time to write down all he would like to. In certain conditions of flight it might be difficult to use pencil and paper. In order to remove all obstacles that might hamper the observer's work, a phonograph is now provided, with a speaking tube running to the observer's mouth, so that he may talk into the machine at any time during the flight and thus make a record of his observations, while at the same time his hands are free for the use of field glasses or the sketching pencil. At the end of the flight the phonograph delivers its message.

The Search for Standard Weights and Measures of Length

THE use of melted quartz for the manufacture of standard measures of length has been a great disappointment, since even this material is subject to very marked fluctuations in length. The search for a suitable material is, however, being continued, because platinum-iridium, which has been used up to the present, is out of the question for practical purposes on account of its great cost. Dr. Guillaume discovered the alloy, which has become known under the name of "invar," an abbreviation for "invariable." This nickel-steel alloy would make an ideal material for standards of length on account of its great resistance to changes in temperature, but unfortunately it is not proof against chemical action. For this reason it is suitable only for standards of the second grade, in which accuracy within a millionth part is sufficient. The ideal material possessing the advantages of platinum-iridium, but less expensive than the latter is therefore still to be found. Similarly good materials for standard weights have been sought extensively and various non-magnetic nickel alloys have been tested. Among these "Constantan" has proved to be inconstant in spite of its name.

Another alloy "Buros" has found considerable favor. It is produced by alloying ordinary nickel with a minute amount of manganese. Still more is expected of tungsten, on account of its hardness, its great density and its durability. For the present tungsten is still too expensive, but very likely it will be obtainable at lower prices in the near future since it is very much in demand. A review of the progress in the use of the metric system shows that during the last six years Denmark, Spain, Belgium, Congo and some of the Central American states have adopted this decimal system. The most important success still to be gained by the metric system, the conquest of England and of the United States, seems, however, still far removed, although Dr. Guillaume himself thinks that the difficulties in the way of its adoption by these countries are much exaggerated by its opponents.

The Government Ship Purchase Bill—I

A Defense of the Administration's Policy

By Judge Joshua W. Alexander, Chairman of the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries

DURING the fiscal year 1914 the foreign commerce of the United States amounted to four and a quarter billion dollars. The imports were nearly two billions of dollars and the exports over two and one-third billions of dollars. Not more than 10 per cent of this commerce was carried in vessels flying the American flag. It is estimated that foreign ship owners collect from the American people 250 to 300 millions of dollars a year for the ocean transportation of passengers and cargoes to and from the United States. This sum materially affects our trade balance. Just prior to the European war we had ships of only 1,378,906 tons gross in the foreign trade. It is estimated that soon after war was declared 5,500,000 tons of foreign shipping was withdrawn from the ocean carrying trade, and that 550,000 tons of German and Austrian shipping is interned in American ports.

The war in Europe had hardly begun when the American people became keenly sensible of the imperative need for an American merchant marine. England, France, and Germany, our principal carriers, were at war, and we needed vessels clothed with the rights of neutrals to carry our overseas commerce. The Ship Registry Act admitting foreign built ships to American registry for the needed tonnage, and the laws regulating the provisions of our navigation laws requiring the captains and watch officers on vessels of the United States to be American citizens, was passed August 18th, 1914.

The Administration was assured that the passage of this act would bring a large measure of relief.

No sooner was it passed, however, than the same interests called the attention of the Administration to the fact that Great Britain, France, and Germany were writing war risk insurance on vessels and cargoes under their flags, and unless our Government would do likewise the Ship Registry Act would not be much help. An act was promptly passed by Congress and approved by the President creating a War Risk Board in the Treasury Department and the Government has since written millions of dollars of war risk insurance on vessels under our flag. No serious objection was urged to this legislation upon the ground that the Government should not engage in the insurance business. The emergency had to be met and private companies were impotent. This measure was urged by the people who now object to the Government ship purchase bill and denounce it as paternalism and State socialism. They were to be the beneficiaries if the Government engaged in the insurance business. All the people will be the beneficiaries if the latter bill becomes a law.

After the Ship Registry Act and the act creating the War Risk Board were passed, it was recommended to the Administration and to the committees in Congress having jurisdiction of the subject matter that on account of the disturbed financial conditions growing out of the war in Europe it was impossible for private persons, firms, and corporations to purchase foreign tonnage and bring it under the American flag, unless the Government would guarantee their bonds or lend them money, or in some other manner give them aid. This was the situation when I introduced the ship purchase bill.

With our foreign commerce paralyzed and our utter dependence on the shipping of Great Britain for service and her interests sharply antagonistic to our own, with ocean freight rates mounting higher and higher every day and facilities under our flag hopelessly inadequate, it was thought by those charged with responsibility in the premises, that if the Government must carry all these burdens in the interest of private shipping and give private shipping a free hand to exploit our commerce and charge all the traffic would bear, it would be wiser to provide by law for a Government owned and controlled marine service in the interest of the agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial interests of the United States, and give that service at reasonable rates and at the same time compel other lines to do likewise. And right here is the rub. There is no reason to believe that the Government will enter into competition with the established lines where they are giving the people good service and at reasonable rates. It would be folly to do so.

What are the fundamental proposals in the ship purchase bill now pending in Congress, which the shipping interests are opposing so violently?

The bill provides that the United States, acting through a shipping board, may subscribe to the capital stock of any corporation or corporations now or hereafter organized under the laws of the United States or of any State or of the District of Columbia, the ob-

This comprehensive, concise, and forceful article, defining the course of action of the Administration in its efforts to meet the existing emergency in our merchant marine, has been written at the request of the Editor by Representative Joshua W. Alexander, who introduced the shipping bill which has produced the present deadlock in Congress and has become the subject of bitter controversy throughout the country.

The case of the opponents of the bill will be presented in a future issue.—EDITOR

ject of such corporation to be the purchase or construction, equipment, maintenance, and operation of merchant vessels in the trade between the Atlantic, Gulf, or Pacific ports of the United States and the ports of Central and South America and elsewhere to meet the demands of the foreign commerce of the United States, or to charter vessels for such purposes and to make charters or leases of any vessel or vessels owned by such corporation to any other corporation, firm, or any individual to be used for such purposes, subject to the approval of the shipping board.

The initial stock of the corporation shall not be over \$10,000,000, the shares of the par value of \$100. The capital stock may be increased by the shipping board with the approval of the President. The United States shall subscribe for 51 per cent of the stock and may increase. The remainder may be subscribed for by the public, or by the United States through the shipping board, with the approval of the President, is authorized to purchase or construct vessels, to transfer them to such corporation, and to pay for same by issue of Panama Canal bonds. Such corporations shall make provision for sinking fund and for depreciation charges, under the rules and regulations to be prescribed by the shipping board. The vessels purchased or constructed under the act shall be entitled to registry under the laws of the United States, but may engage only in trade with foreign countries or with the Philippine Islands, Hawaiian Islands, Porto Rico, and the Islands of Guam and Tutuila.

The Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of Commerce, and three additional members, two of whom shall have practical experience in the operation of vessels in the foreign trade, subject to the direction of the President, constitute the shipping board, and are vested with power to vote the stock of the United States in such corporation, and all other things necessary to protect the United States and to carry out the purpose of the act, and with the approval of Congress may sell the stock of the United States in such corporation.

The President is given the power to charter naval auxiliaries and vessels belonging to the War Department suitable for commercial uses and not required for naval or military purposes, in times of peace, and vessels owned and operated by the Panama Railroad Company to the corporation created by the act, the vessels purchased or constructed to be of a type, so far as our foreign trade may permit, suitable for naval auxiliaries. The President is authorized to take them over for use as naval auxiliaries or for other purposes, and at reasonable prices of redemption.

Powerful private interests are arrayed against this bill. The representatives of special privilege and the powerful organization known as the shipping trust, with its affiliations in the domestic and foreign trade, oppose it. They are vociferous in the expression of their fears that the passage of the bill will involve us in grave complications with the belligerents. They may be contented on the one hand to let the bill go for their benefit and will increase their profits, but view with grave concern legislation for the general welfare. Another class opposes Government ownership, honestly believing it is not a proper function of the Government. The first class also takes advantage of the reasons urged by the latter to defeat this legislation. None of these classes has proposed a rational plan as a substitute for the Administration bill.

It is assumed that Government ownership is something new under the sun. Those who urge this objection assume that the American people are ignorant of the many activities of the Government in which the principle is applied. Private enterprise failed to build the Panama Canal, and the Government took over that great enterprise and has completed the canal in the interest of the world's commerce, and for the national

defense. The Government owns and operates the Panama Railroad. It was relocated and rebuilt within the last five years at a cost of about ten millions of dollars, also owns and operates the Panama Railroad Steamship Company's fleet of passenger and freight steamers from New York to Panama, and has done so for eleven years past. The average rate of freight between New York and the Canal Zone at the time the Government took over the operation of the line was \$8 per ton. This has been gradually reduced to the present rate of \$3.50 per ton on rough goods and \$1.50 per ton for general cargoes. The reductions made by the Government line similarly affected the rates by the other lines, all of which were of foreign registry. The result has been an immense saving to the Government in cost of construction of the canal, at the same time no complaint has been made that the reduced rates have not been remunerative to the foreign as well as the Government line.

The War Risk Insurance Bureau is a Government activity that has worked well. The rates are one eighth of one per cent. What they would be if the business was being done by private companies must be left to our imagination. The Government has a splendid fleet of warships in time of peace, and the maintenance of the Treasury Department. The successful and economic management of this fleet requires as high, if not higher order of skill and efficiency than is required in the management of a fleet of merchant vessels.

The Government, through the Post Office Department has taken over a large part of the transportation business in the country, and has done so at a cost of \$500,000,000, and at a reduction of cost to the American people of about 50 per cent, and little heed would be paid to a demand to abolish the parcels post upon the ground that the Government should not engage in the transportation business.

The Government is building a railroad in Alaska at a cost of forty millions of dollars to unlock the mineral wealth of that great storehouse of nature for the benefit of all the people rather than have it exploited for the benefit of the few. It is to be hoped if the Government goes into the steamship business it will prove a greater success than has the operation of our railroads under private control, notably the New Haven under the Mellon family.

The Government owns the greatest wireless system in the world, under the control of the Navy Department, which not only renders efficient service for all the departments of the Government, but does a large amount of commercial business at reasonable rates, and could do more without additional expense of operation. Yet it is assumed that the Government should not engage in the ownership and operation of shipping in the foreign trade to meet the demands of our growing and expanding foreign commerce, although private capital has failed for fifty years to provide such service for the American people.

The Washington Post of February 7th in an editorial very pathetically remarks: "Private capital knows full well that it can not and will not establish an American merchant marine without the aid of public cash contributed in some way, form or manner by the Government. It is to the interests of foreign shipping companies that no American merchant marine be established. It is to the financial interests of powerful representatives in the countries of foreign shipping companies that no financial interest of the American merchant marine be established unless they can control it, save their European allies from American competition, and make such rates for freight and passengers as will afford them large profits. They are entirely willing to draw financial aid from our Government if the control of the marine is given them."

Up to the European war our foreign commerce was in the grip of foreign shipping lines. These lines were controlled by shipping trusts and competition for the most part had been eliminated. Rates had increased in the last few years 50 to 200 per cent. These combinations were so powerful in all the trade areas of the world that no independent ship lines dared to enter the field and compete with them.

Summary of the Most Striking Increases.

Since the outbreak of the war in Europe the following are striking illustrations of ocean freight rates: Ocean freight rates on grain from New York to London have been increased since the outbreak of war 100 per cent, on flour 200 per cent; on coal 50 per cent. From New York to Liverpool the same commodities have increased from 300 to 200 per

(Continued on page 182.)

III—The United States

Training

Discharge of a coast-defense 12-inch gun. Note flash of white-hot gas at the muzzle.

IN addition to the reserve behind the regular army and militia, we must take up the question of building up a large force of volunteers, because, as already stated, the regular army and militia at war strength will furnish only about one third of the force which will be needed in case of war with a first-class power. No adequate measures have ever been taken to train or organize officers or men for volunteers. It is believed this can be done for the men and in part for the officers through a special form of enlistment, which will interfere as little as possible with the educational and industrial careers of those affected, and it has been suggested that training adequate in character could be secured through three annual periods of two months each. The men under training will be in camp for two months each summer for three years, and subject to an intensive training under the most carefully selected regular officers. Men completing the three periods should be held as volunteer reservists for a period of years, dependent upon the size of the class coming to training each year. All this sounds large and formidable, but it must be done if we are to be ready to meet the emergency which may be thrust upon us at any time. Even if we are unable to train a sufficient number of men for enlisted men of the volunteers, we must, in time of peace, train the necessary officers. This is absolutely essential, for it must be remembered that there will be no time to develop officers for volunteers, in fact, no means of developing them, once war is upon us. All regular and militia organizations and officers will be in the field and the training of volunteers will be conducted under conditions which make it almost impossible to train them. Thousands of officers must be trained in advance if the volunteers are to be even reasonably efficient in the early stages of the war.

During the period of their active service the officers and men must be enrolled in properly organized military units. They must be mobilized each year and their arms and equipment held at all times ready for immediate use. The number of volunteer troops which will be necessary to provide the required force, 400,000 mobile troops, including the regulars and the militia at war strength, will be about 135,000.

In addition to this force of volunteers it must be remembered that the General Staff in its plan of defense, as set forth in the Organization of the Land Forces, has recommended as necessary that 300,000 additional volunteers be at once raised. When it is remembered that the conscripted troops (that is to say, troops which will be sent with the coast fortifications and without which the latter will be open to capture by land attack made by landing parties from fleets) amount to nearly 400,000 for both coasts, about 275,000 for the Atlantic and Gulf seaboard it will be seen that steps must be

From President Washington to President Wilson, the Executive has persistently urged upon Congress the necessity of providing, in times of peace, a body of citizen soldiery properly trained and equipped, with which instantly to meet and repel any invasion of the United States. With equal persistence, Congress (except during periods of war) has refused to listen to the warnings of the President. To-day, because of this neglect, the United States, the richest of the rich countries of the world, is the most open to invasion. The ocean, once a barrier, now, thanks to steam navigation, offers a choke of half a hundred highways, by way of any one of which a first-class power might slip by our crippled or bottled-up fleet, which is now rapidly losing in relative strength and is without adequate personnel, necessary coast cruisers or submarines, and, within a week or ten days, land a fully equipped advance force of 200,000 highly trained troops. To oppose this, the United States, in thirty days, could concentrate, at the most, 80,000 regulars and 100,000 militia.

The present series of articles published with a view to bringing before the country at large and Congress in particular the true facts as regards the military defenselessness of the United States. The facts, as here given, are in the highest degree authoritative. They represent the alarm given by the Hon. and the remedy thereto as presented, for many years past, in the annual reports made to the various Secretaries of War by the General Staff of the Army. What is Congress going to do about it?

Editor

taken to provide the necessary officers and men for this force. Any increase which may be made in either the



Engineer's intrenching outfit, packed on mule.

regular or militia establishment by adding new organizations will reduce by just so much the number of volunteers to be raised in the early stages of a war.

Any assumption that hundreds of thousands of volunteers are going to spring to arms in a condition of efficiency is most dangerous and wholly unjustified; in fact, such a response would be literally impossible, and any dependence upon it is wholly unwarranted. This fact cannot be too strongly impressed upon the American people.

Above all else in importance in raising and organizing volunteers is the provision of an adequate number of officers—officers who are efficient and well trained. These we must provide in time of peace, even if we are unable to provide the enlisted force, that is to say, the men. Our plans for the mobilization and utilization of this volunteer force, the points of mobilization and area in which it is to operate, must all be worked out in great detail in time of peace, for any war in which we are engaged would probably be one of aggression on the part of our enemies, consequently the attack will come suddenly and at a time when the enemy is fully prepared. Knowing his own plans, he will bring against us the most thoroughly trained and equipped military organizations, fully prepared in every detail to attain his objective. To assume that equally good men, but untrained and without the necessary equipment and trained officers to lead them, would have any chance for success, is folly. Such an attitude on our part can only result in disasters and in the useless and unnecessary wasting of the lives of our people.

The Present Sources of Officers for Volunteers.

The present sources of officers for volunteers are the following. First, men who have had service in the regular army or militia and are still of an age fit to bear arms. Second, men who have graduated from military schools maintaining a course in military instruction under regular army officers. Third, approved graduates from the military instruction camps for college students. Fourth, men who have qualified for appointment as officers of volunteers through examination. All of these sources at present, with the exception of the graduates of the military schools, are limited.

Summer Camp Training of Officers.

It is hoped to greatly increase the number who will be available through training at the summer camps for college men. Last year there were about seven hundred students at these camps, and their record of performance was so excellent that there is every reason to believe these camps will be a most valuable source of supply for volunteer officers. In the first place, the men who attend these camps go because they are interested. This is shown by the fact that they pay their own ex-

people. They receive five weeks of intensive training, during which they get about as many hours of actual work as the average militiaman does during an average enlistment.

In Case of Invasion We Should Require 30,000 Volunteer Officers. Major-General Wood's Plan.

The magnitude of the task in training volunteer officers is apparent when it is realized that it will be necessary to develop not less than 20,000 in case we should have to mobilize enough additional volunteers to bring our total force up to 1,000,000 men. It has been recommended by Major-General Wood for a number of years that five hundred selected graduates of colleges maintaining military instruction under officers of the army

they should promote such manufacture as tend to render them independent of others for essential, particularly military supplies."

From his third annual message (speaking of the militia):

"This is certainly an object of primary importance, whether viewed in reference to the national security, to the satisfaction of the community, or to the preservation of order. In connection with this the establishment of competent magazines and arsenals and the fortification of such places as are peculiarly important and valuable naturally present themselves to consideration. The safety of the United States, under divine protection, ought to rest on the basis of systematic and

fear war in the necessary protection of our rights and honor, we should give no room to infer that we abandon the desire of peace. An efficient preparation for war can alone secure peace."

"We ought, without loss of time, to lay the foundations for that increase of our navy to a size sufficient to guard our coasts and protect our trade."

Thomas Jefferson Advocated Compulsory Service. Jefferson in his fifth annual message advocated:

"The organization of 100,000 able-bodied men between the ages of 18 and 26 for offense or defense at any time or at any place where they may be wanted."

In a letter to Monroe he advocated compulsory service.

"We must train and classify the whole of our male citizens," he said, "and make military instruction a part of collegiate education. We can never be safe until this is done."

From his eighth annual message:

"If war be forced upon us in spite of our long and vain appeals to the justice of nations, rapid and vigorous movement at the outset will go far toward securing us in its course and issue and toward throwing its burden on those who render necessary the respect from reason to force."

"Considering the conditions of the times in which we live, our attention should unreservedly be fixed on the safety of our country. For a people who are free and who mean to remain so, a well organized and armed militia is their best security."

President Wilson on the Need for the War-training of Our Citizens.

It will be right enough, right American policy, based upon our accustomed principles and practices, to provide a system by which every citizen who will volunteer for the training may be made familiar with the use of modern arms, the rudiments of drill and maneuver, and the maintenance and sanitation of camps.

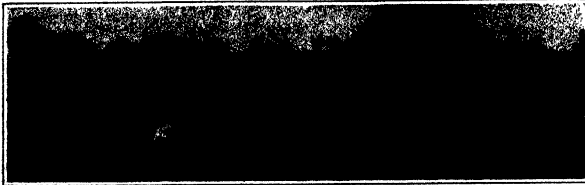
"We should encourage such training and make it a means of discipline which our young men will learn to value. It is right that we should provide it not only, but that we should make it as attractive as possible, and so induce our young men to undergo it at such times as they can demand a little freedom and can seek the physical development they need, for mere health's sake, if for nothing more."

Small Leaks

WE are often admonished to take care of small leaks—to keep faucets tight because the loss incident to a small leak runs up into a considerable sum.

Now, it may be of interest to know just what the water loss would be from a leaking faucet. Let us assume that a faucet leaks to the extent of allowing the escape of two drops of water per second. In one month the leakage would amount to a little over 84 gallons. With water at 25 cents a thousand gallons, the money loss per month would be about 2 cents. Should the leak be in a hot-water faucet, the loss would be greatly increased because of the fuel required to heat the water. With coal at \$5 a ton, burned with the efficiency usually attainable under domestic conditions, the loss in water and heat in the above example would be nearly 10 cents a month.

The fact that the loss is small should not allow us to neglect small leaks, because, by disregarding them we tend to become slovenly in all things. Furthermore, small leaks do not remain small. The constant leakage of faucets wears small passages through the seats and makes tightness impossible. The next thing then is a new faucet with the accompanying plumber's bill, which is notoriously not small.



Soldiers at meal, Fort Crockett, Galveston, Texas.

be appointed provisional second lieutenants for one year and that they receive full pay and allowance of a second lieutenant, amounting to about \$1,750 in money and valued at approximately \$500 in allowances, each young man to be appointed subject only to physical examination, as they will be graduates of institutions of high standing. This number should be increased to 1,000. This procedure if adopted will give us a thoroughly well trained reserve officer, a man who has had from two to four years of military training at a college or technical school under the direction of an officer of the army, plus one year of actual service in the regular army. As the line of the regular army is always short about seven hundred to eight hundred officers, incident to detached service of various kinds, and this without in any way fully meeting the demands upon it for officers, it will be seen that these young officers will be of real value during their year of service. The cost to the Government will be comparatively little. The young men themselves will be able to leave the service with from \$200 to \$300 and should be held as reserve officers for from eight to ten years with the understanding that they will be called to duty only in case of war and for brief periods of training a few days each year. This would give us a steady annual increment of well-trained reserve officers, and these, taken in connection with the men who are qualified at the summer camps and through special means of examination, would eventually give us a reasonable reserve of officers for volunteers.

During Civil War Congress Made Land Grants to Encourage Military Training in State Colleges.

In the early days of the Civil War, Congress passed an Act, known as the Mores Act, which made grants of public lands to various State colleges, known as agricultural and mechanical colleges, and provided that military instructions would be maintained at these colleges. These grants have been of great value to the colleges, and some of them have maintained a rather effective course in military instruction. Others have simply kept up a nominal amount of work. The instruction at all these colleges should be standardized, so that the Government may know exactly the qualifications, as far as military knowledge goes, of the graduates, and an attempt should be made to secure legislation which will hold those graduates who have demonstrated fit ness through practical work for a number of years as reserve officers and non-commissioned officers. This is not unreasonable in view of the educational facilities and advantages extended to the students at these institutions. A return in the form of service for six to eight years as volunteer reserve officers would seem but just and equitable.

The Early Presidents, Beginning With General Washington, Strongly Advocated Peace-time Preparation for War.

The necessity for the preparation for possible war was recognized by the early Presidents in various messages, but, little by little, interest in the subject of preparedness seems to have disappeared.

Thus, from Washington's first annual address we quote the following:

"Among the many interesting objects which will engage your attention, that of providing for the common defense will merit particular regard. To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace. A free people ought not only to be armed, but disciplined; to which end a uniform and well-digested plan is requisite; and their safety and interest require that

solid arrangements exposed as little as possible to the hazards of fortuitous circumstances."

From his fifth annual address:

"I cannot recommend to your notice measures for the fulfillment of our duties to the rest of the world without again pressing upon you the necessity of placing ourselves in a condition of complete defense and of exacting from them the fulfillment of their duties toward us. The United States ought not to indulge a persuasion that, contrary to the order of human events, they will forever keep at a distance those painful appeals to arms with which the history of every other nation abounds. There is a rank due to the United States among nations which will be withheld if not absolutely lost by the reputation of weakness. If we desire to avoid insult we must be able to repel it. If we desire to secure peace, one of the most powerful instruments of our rising prosperity, it must be known that we are at all times ready for war."

From his eighth annual address, speaking of the country's inability to protect its foreign commerce:

"Will it not then be advisable to begin without delay to provide and lay up materials for the building and equipping of ships of war and to proceed in the work by degrees in proportion as our resources shall render it practicable without inconvenience, so that a future war of Europe may not find our commerce in the same unprotected state in which it was found during the present?"

John Adams Said: "An Efficient Preparation for War Can Alone Secure Peace."

From John Adams's special message:

"With a view and as a measure which even in time of universal peace ought not to be neglected, I recommend to your consideration a revision of the laws for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, to render that natural and safe defense of the country effectual."

From his second annual message (message dealing with the relations with France):

"But in demonstrating by our conduct that we do not

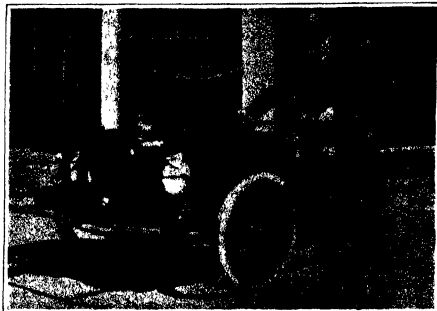
MOBILE TROOPS FOR SERVICE IN U.S. PROPER	REGULARS MILITIA	RE. HAVE NATIONAL NEED
COAST ARTILLERY FOR SERVICE IN U.S. PROPER	REGULARS MILITIA	RE. HAVE NATIONAL NEED FOR ONE RELIEF ONLY
FIELD ARTILLERY FOR SERVICE IN U.S. PROPER	REGULARS MILITIA	RE. HAVE NATIONAL NEED FOR ONE RELIEF ONLY
FIELD ARTILLERY GUNS	REGULARS MILITIA	RE. HAVE NATIONAL NEED FOR ONE RELIEF ONLY
FIELD ARTILLERY AMMUNITION	REGULARS MILITIA	RE. HAVE NATIONAL NEED FOR ONE RELIEF ONLY
SMALL ARMS	REGULARS MILITIA	RE. HAVE NATIONAL NEED FOR ONE RELIEF ONLY
SMALL ARMS AMMUNITION	REGULARS MILITIA	RE. HAVE NATIONAL NEED FOR ONE RELIEF ONLY

THESE FIGURES ARE BASED ON THE MINIMUM "FIRST LINE" ARMY (30,000 REGULARS AND MILITIA) NECESSARY TO DELAY AN INVADER UNTIL AT LEAST 300,000 VOLUNTEERS CAN BE RAISED

Diagram showing the alarming condition of our military defenses.

Chemical Engine on the Tri-car

A THREE-WHEELED fire engine of light weight, low cost, and high efficiency has been developed recently. It is good for a speed of 45 miles an hour, carrying two firemen and a complete chemical equipment, a reel of hose, a 12-foot ladder and all that is required for subduing a blaze before it has made a disastrous start. In short, it is a light scout car in the never-ending warfare against fire, which may be used as an auxiliary to the heavier and more costly fire apparatus. It is also serviceable in small, but scattered communities, which cannot afford the larger engines. Its low cost, small size (making an expensive fire house unnecessary), and its small upkeep charges adapt it particularly for a small village.



A motorcycle chemical engine.

Who Will Rescue the Lost Explorers?

AT this moment it is probable that three, and possibly that eleven of the men who constituted the Canadian Arctic Expedition of 1913 are spending the sunless days of the polar winter under conditions of peculiar hardship, hoping against hope that the still distant summer will bring them salvation. Up to the present time it is doubtful whether the rest of mankind will make any serious effort to realize this hope.

It will be recalled that when the "Karluk" was crushed in the ice north of Siberia her crew became divided into three parties. One party, comprising four men, under First Officer Anderson, left the scene of the shipwreck January 21st, 1914, well equipped and provisioned for three months, headed for Herald Island, which had been mistaken for Wrangel Island. A supporting party left them a few days later, hauled by open water some three miles from this land, since which time they have never been heard from. Whether they succeeded in reaching Herald Island or were overtaken by drifting ice to some other part of the Arctic Ocean is unknown. On February 17th four more men, viz., Dr. Forbes Mackay, the surgeon, James Murray, the oceanographer, Henri Beuchat, the anthropologist, and Seaman Morris, also equipped with sledges, food, and ammunition left the main party in an effort to reach land. Their fate remains equally problematical. The rest of the crew ultimately reached Wrangel Island, where three of them died and the remainder, except Capt. Bartlett and an Eskimo companion, who pushed on to the continent, survived until a relief expedition reached them last September.

Meanwhile, in another part of the Arctic Basin, the leader of the expedition, Stefansson, embarked upon a perilous sleighing expedition over the sea ice from Martin Point, Alaska, in the hope of reaching unknown lands to the north. On April 6th, 1914, a supporting party left him with two companions, Storkerson and O. Anderson, a sledge, six dogs, and a good supply of food and ammunition, at the edge of the Continental Shelf. He then hoped to return in a few weeks to Alaska or to gain the shores of Banks Land. It is nearly certain, however, that he was entrained westward on the drifting ice, and, if he is still alive, he is now probably somewhere north of Siberia. He is an experienced and resourceful Arctic traveler, and was not at least in much danger of starvation, as game was abundant. It is an unprecedented situation in the history of polar exploration that no plans for seeking these lost explorers have, as yet, definitely materialized. The "Karluk" survivors on Wrangel Island were rescued last season by one of the three ships, all flying the American flag, which went in search of them. No relief expedition was sent out by the Canadian government. Neither is there any movement on foot in Canada to rescue Stefansson and his two companions, or to undertake the admittedly less promising quest of the eight men last heard from near Herald Island. The most hopeful feature of the situation that has yet developed is the recent project of the Aero Club of America to utilize aeroplanes, in conjunction with a suitable steamer, for the dual purpose of seeking the lost explorers and clearing up some of the mysteries of Arctic geography. It ought not to be difficult to raise the relatively small sum needed for this humane and scientific undertaking.

A Model Testing Laboratory.—The new testing laboratory of the Pennsylvania Railroad, at Altoona, is, as might be expected, a model plant, and there is at least one novelty in the construction of the building, apart from the one that will be watched with interest. The floors are an experiment, having been constructed on a new plan which is said to have originated in Greece. On a five-inch layer of sandstone is placed a half inch layer of a special cement, and this construction is expected not only to deaden sound, but to be easier and more comfortable for the workers who have to stand for long periods. Among the apparatus installed is a machine capable of exerting a pressure of one million pounds, which can also be used for testing couplers and heavy material. There are also machines for testing brakes, steel bars and many other forms and gauges of material. There is also a well-equipped electrical testing department, and a department for the storage and examination of explosives that has walls of concrete two feet thick. The new building will greatly facilitate the work in various lines of investigation.

Some Spectacular Illuminating Effects at the Pan-Pacific Exposition

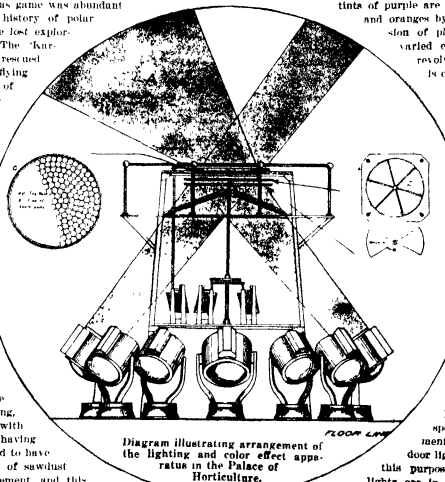
AT all of the large expositions, beginning with Chicago in 1893, electric illuminating effects have been specially featured, and at this effective method of leading attraction to the night scenes around the grounds, advantage being taken of many new ideas and modern improvements in apparatus to add to the picturesque impressions of the surroundings. Many special effects will be seen in connection with the different buildings, but one of the most striking and attractive will be the illumination of the immense glass dome of the Palace of Horticulture, which, surrounded by its picturesque setting of foliage, will, after dark, be a veritable kaleidoscope of changing colors.

The dome of this building is 186 feet high and 154 feet in diameter, the immense hemisphere of which above the body of the building is entirely in glass of a slightly greenish tinge that will produce a harmonious effect with its surroundings during the day. In the center of the main floor of the building under the dome, and screened by encircling palms and decorative shrubbery, is located the electric illuminating apparatus, consisting of twelve great searchlights, each 30 inches in diameter, all directed upward to a central point, and said to produce 25,000,000 candle-power of total light. Within this circle of lights is placed a framework 15 feet high that carries the apparatus for diffusing and directing the light projected by the lamps, and the mechanism for changing the varied color effects. At the top of the framework is placed the diffusing device C, which is a plate of clear glass five feet in diameter and one-quarter of an inch thick, that has a number of small circular plano-convex diffusing lenses cemented to its upper face, the whole forming a composite diffusing lens for evenly distributing the light over the glass surface of the dome. Immediately beneath the lens plate is a series of three circular screens, each made up of three pairs of sectors of glass colored, respectively, yellow, blue, and red, the sectors of the same color being located opposite each other. This color screen is supported by a shaft which is arranged to be turned by an electric motor. Beneath the color screen, and mounted on a hollow vertical shaft, within which the screen shaft revolves, are a pair of opaque sectors, shown at B in the small sketch. The color screen and the opaque obscuring sectors both revolve in the same direction, but the screen makes one more revolution per minute than the sector vane, with the result that the complete cycle of color effects will be produced every minute.

Of course the three foundation colors, yellow, blue, and red are shown at each revolution of the color apparatus, but as the opaque vanes pass from one color sector to the next there is an overlapping and mixing of the two adjoining colors, producing an entirely new series of tints. Thus, when the vane passes from the yellow to the blue portions of the screen the mixed lights produce a green tint that varies in depth according to the proportions of the two colors as the vane shifts, the tints gradually dissolving one color into the other. In the same way varying tints of purple are produced by the mixing of the blue and red, and oranges by the red and yellow mixtures. This succession of plain and mixed colors produces remarkably varied effects, and as the color varying apparatus revolves a considerable screen of light of colors is continuous and wonderful. It may also be noted that the rapid revolution of the color apparatus gives the effect of a continuous illumination of the entire dome, instead of lighting consecutive sections, as would result from a slow movement. The effect of the diffusing plate, or lens, described above is shown in the diagram, where the shaded section B shows the course of the beam from a single light when no diffusing lens is used, and the section marked A shows how the lens spreads and diffuses the beam over a great area.

The lens plate described in the text is that will be generally used, but four other plates, each producing a special effect, have been provided. One of these special plates will produce horizontal bars of light; another rapidly changing spots, a third gives a wriggling effect; while the fourth produces whirling rings of varying colors. Outside of the buildings of the amusement concessions few of the regular exhibition buildings will be open at night, so special efforts have been made by the management to develop new and pleasing effects in outdoor lighting to make the grounds attractive, and for this purpose nearly four hundred high-power lights are in use, besides great numbers of incandescent lamps. In one case at least elaborate inside illumination is provided somewhat on the principle used in the Palace of Horticulture, described above. The Festival Hall contains a large auditorium, with a dome four of the auditorium are placed ten large projectors, the light from which passes through, and is diffused by a plate of ground glass placed in the ceiling in the floor. This diffused light is again diffused and reflected by the domed ceiling, part of which is not visible from without.

The Tower of Jewels, with its beautiful decorations, will be a center of the illumination.



ating effects, but nothing on the grounds can vie with the gorgeous color display of the Palace of Horticulture. The lighting effects at the exposition were in charge of W. d'A. Ryan of the General Electric Company, as chief engineer of illumination, and many of the unique and original features are due to his skill and ingenuity.

The Pan-American Scientific Congress

At a time when scientific solidarity has been so seriously impaired in the Old World as a result of the European war it is gratifying to note that preparations are afoot for bringing the scientific men of the New into closer and more friendly relations. The first much-needed step in this direction was taken at the end of the year 1908, when the first Pan-American Scientific Congress assembled at Santiago, Chile. The second congress is to meet in Washington next October, and the plans for it have been formulated by a committee headed by Mr. William Phillips, Third Assistant Secretary of State, the other members being the Director

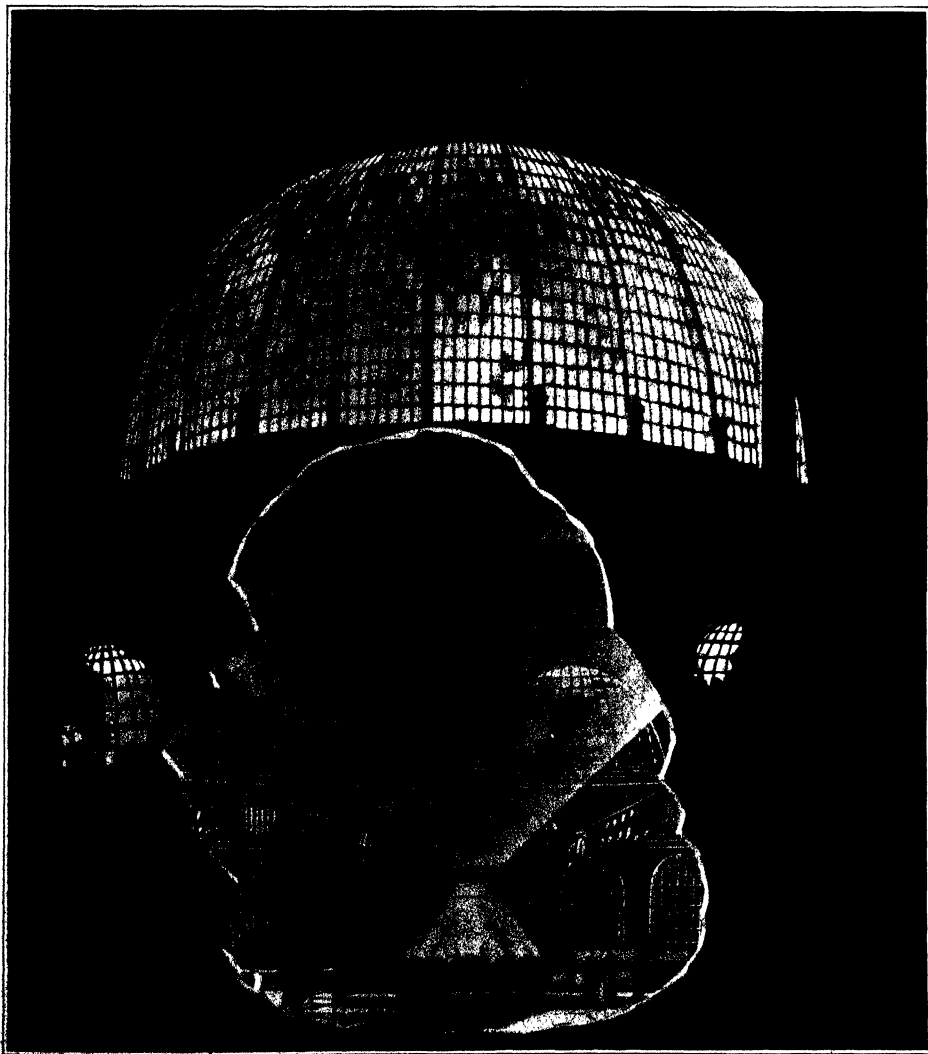
General of the Pan-American Union; the U. S. Commissioner of Education; the Surgeon General of the U. S. Army; Mr. G. M. Rommel of the Department of Agriculture; Mr. William H. Holmes of the Smithsonian Institution; Prof. L. S. Rowe, University of Pennsylvania; and Dr. J. B. Seott of the Carnegie Peace Endowment.

The congress is to be organized in eight sections, as follows: 1 Anthropology 2 Astronomy, meteorology, and seismology. 3. Conservation of natural resources, agriculture, irrigation and forestry. 4 Education. 5 Engineering, transportation, and commerce. 6 International law, public law, and jurisprudence. 7 Mining and metallurgy, economic geology, and applied chemistry. 8. Public health, medicine.

If the history of the last congress repeats itself, the forthcoming meeting will be an event of exceptional interest, from both a scientific and a political point of view. At Santiago delegations attended from eight North and Central American countries, including the

United States, and from nine South American countries, and an imposing list of papers was presented, more than fifty of which emanated from this country. The President of Chile attended the opening session, held an official reception for the delegates, and entertained all of the latter at dinner, a limited number being invited each day during the congress. Other entertainments, official and unofficial, were overwhelming in number.

Britain's Gasoline Problem.—According to an official British statement, America sent 17,000,000 gallons more gasoline in 1914 than in the previous year, but to offset this increase no imports were received since September, 1914, from Russia, Roumania and the Far East, except about 5,000,000 gallons, which compared with the demand of 400,000,000 gallons in the United Kingdom is but a drop in the bucket. In discussing this situation the leading British motor magazine says: "American supplies alone have prevented a famine in gasoline."



The Palace of Horticulture at the Pan-Pacific Exposition, with its transparent dome illuminated with multi-colored lights.

How Epidemics are Fought in the Austrian Army

By the Berlin Correspondent of the Scientific American

DISEASE, as our readers know, is a far even more dreadful in war than the enemy's shells and bullets, and one of the most important tasks of modern warfare consists in improving as far as possible the sanitary conditions of an army. Alarming rumors were spread, at the beginning of this war, as to the dysentery and cholera epidemics which, it was said, wrought great havoc in the Austrian army and threatened to become a real danger to soldiers and civilians alike.

The present writer has had occasion recently to discuss the matter with somebody just returned from the Galician part of the theater of war, who thus was in a position to judge how matters actually stood. "The danger," he said, "has been definitely averted, thanks to the energetic measures taken at the very onset by the Austro-Hungarian military authorities. In fact, the cholera epidemic has never been allowed to spread beyond its original focus. Through the courtesy of the army authorities, I have been authorized to take a few photos which strikingly show the comprehensive measures taken to fight the epidemic."

The first thing done to check cholera as well as dysentery was to install in the towns and villages of Galicia long rows of barrels containing sterilized water, which the soldiers alone are allowed to use. Another effective measure consists of sprinkling the floor of railway stations with carbolic acid of lime and washing it frequently. Cholera patients are, of course, housed in isolated barracks, each of which is surrounded by a lime ditch. Special stretchers are used for the transport of dysentery and cholera patients.

The Meat Supply of the United States

THAT the nation faces a serious situation in the matter of meat supply is the disquieting statement of the Secretary of Agriculture in his annual report, and this condition is especially portentous when we consider the constantly increasing demand for our products that must come from Europe for many years. "Just what factors have brought this situation about no one can define with certainty," says the Secretary, and he diagnoses of the matter by the truly American method, of "appointing a committee."

There are, however, he points out, some directions in which efforts may be made with a view to inducing additional supplies, but the argument is difficult to reconcile in some cases. For instance, the secretary says: "It is evident that we have been considering the meat supply of the nation too exclusively in terms of the big ranch," and he immediately goes on to say, "Obviously it is important that we continue to assist in further developing the big ranch."

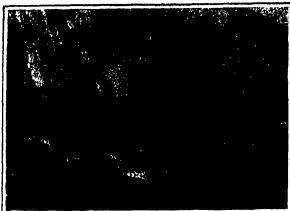
The directions in which the secretary sees hope for an increase in our meat supplies are: First, in a more satisfactory handling of the public grazing lands; second, in systematic attention to the production of beef animals in the settled farming areas of the country, particularly in the South; third, in increased attention to the smaller animals, such as swine and poultry; and fourth, in the control and eradication of the cattle tick, hog cholera, tuberculosis, and other animal diseases and pests.

In relation to the first point it is stated that the present methods of transforming the grasses of the public grazing lands into beef and mutton are generally conceded to be wasteful, and it is estimated that, under a proper system, the quantity of beef and mutton produced on these lands could be increased at least 50 per cent. There are about 200,000,000 acres in these lands, upon which any person can graze any amount of stock at any time; and from some remarks in the report the inference may be drawn that the grazing value of these lands has been impaired. No other result could be expected where no provision is made for the protection of the land, and there is every inducement for the casual user to get all he can out of the land in the shortest possible time. The natural result is that in this time of need little relief can be counted on from this source.

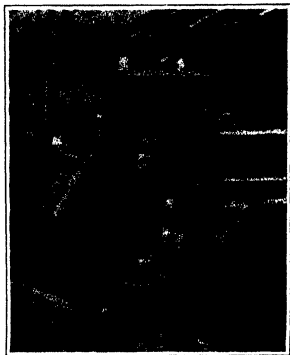
The second and third propositions would seem to hold out considerable hope, until it is recalled that in former times every farmer made it a point to raise some kind of meat product every year until conditions became such that he could not do so with the expectation of any profit; and there is no reason to suppose these conditions have changed in recent years.

There appears to be a useful field of effort in the eradication of diseases, when we consider that out of 57,000,000 animals inspected in the past year 52,000 were found to be infected with tuberculosis, and that hog cholera and cattle tick have cost the producers of this country anywhere from one hundred to one hundred and fifty million dollars in a single year.

Whatever the cause of the shortage in the meat supply it will require something more than perfunctory



Lime ditches surrounding barracks in which cholera patients are housed.

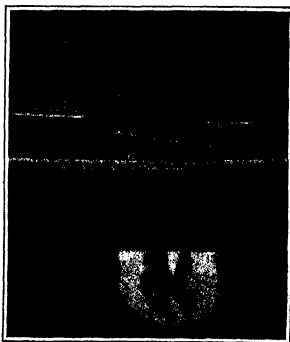


Barrel of sterilized water for Austrian soldiers in Galicia.

reports to prevent prices from going beyond the reach of the average wage earner, and that at no distant date

Applying Power to a Canoe

THIS craving for speed and the modern disinclination to do anything that can be avoided by the expenditure of money has overtaken the canoe, the most delightful and romantic water craft that has ever been devised, for now a method has been developed for fitting a gasoline engine to the fairy boat and the poetic paddle is to be laid aside. For several years an ingenious and compact little motor set has been in use for propelling towboats, that can be quickly attached to the stern of any boat, and a number of concerns are now producing outfits that are justly popular and undoubtedly useful, but the shape of the usual canoe has made it not altogether convenient to attach one of these motors, which are portable and secured by an adjustable clamp. Now, however, some inventive mind has conceived the idea of building a well in the body of a



Detachable power plant for a canoe.

canoe, having an opening in the bottom and outermost side, in which one of these little motors can be placed and conveniently attached. When thus fitted the motor shaft extends down through the opening in the well and carries the propeller beneath the bottom of the canoe, as shown in the illustration. Undoubtedly this scheme will provide quite a speedy conveyance that will cover considerable distances without loss of time; but the disadvantage is that the motor is not so easily detached as the voice of the silent paddle and of respectful idling in the primitive canoe will hardly recognize his favorite craft in its new guise.

Experiments in Hybridizing Flowers

AN article of great interest to botanists is that which describes a series of experiments in hybridizing Japanese flowers, conducted by Dr. Walter Proctor Jenney, and published in the issue of the Scientific American Supplement of January 9th, No. 2085. The cause that led to the experiments was the discovery that the dry pollen of the white moonflower, applied to the stigma of the morning glory, is inert and will not fertilize the ovary, unless the pollen be so and with the dry alkali fluid carried upon the surface of the stigma of the moonflower.

As a result of this discovery the writer undertook a series of experiments, using the white moonflower and both common and Japanese morning glory, and following methods that departed widely from the usual procedure and which produced some exceptional results. Some of the conclusions resulting from the experiments, which extended over several years, are that hybrids of the Japanese morning glory with the white moonflower seem not to be subject to the operation of Mendel's law or are only subject to it in a limited way; this may be owing to the fact:

1. That, for some reason, the white moonflower is immune from the influence causing the seedlings of hybrid plants to vary in the second year. In this connection it is worthy of note that crosses of the Japanese and American morning glory, arising from pollination by insects, follow Mendel's law.

2. That this exemption is due to some quality or property of the fluid excreted by the stigma of the moonflower.

A full appreciation of these interesting experiments can be had only by reading the complete article, as above noted.

The Current Supplement

THE current issue of the Scientific American Supplement, No. 2042, for February 20th, 1915, has a decided war flavor, although it contains an unusual variety of specially valuable matter. The article on X-Ray Work in the War tells us something about the use of this valuable agency as applied by the German army in field and hospital. Auxiliary Motor Cars describes special types of cars that have been developed to meet the various necessities of an army. The Making of Large Guns gives some timely details of how these weapons are made that will be acceptable to everybody. High Explosives in Warfare is one of those clearly written articles by an authority that tells just what we all want to know about an important question. Aeronomics and the War reviews general conditions and what has been done so far by the flyers, and also reviews the developments of the war. Aeroplane Darts and Fire Darts describes some novel implements of destruction developed by the war. In contrast with the above matter the article on Training for Municipal Service tells why municipal government in Germany is usually so efficient and businesslike and also tells something of the work now being done in America with the same objects in view. Uniformity in Dosage of Radium Emanations discusses a therapeutic agent that is assuming considerable importance. Philosophy and Technics is an interesting metaphysical discussion of the relations of theoretical study and practical application. The Chemistry of the Flaming Arc gives much valuable information in relation to an important practical subject. Causes of Solar Heat discusses various hypotheses to explain how the sun continues for ages to emit substantially the same quantity of heat. The paper on the treatment of gas from blast furnaces is continued, and there are also articles on Lithiography, Photography Without a Camera; Thinking Animals; Wireless Telegraphy; The Effects of War on Crime, and notes on new and useful books.

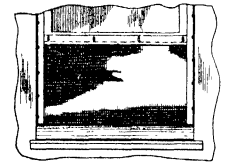
Canadian Electricity for Canadians.—A great deal of electricity generated along the Canadian border is used in the United States. Recently the Canadian government has declared itself as opposed to the export of such natural resources when the industries of Canada develop to such an extent that they could use the whole of the energy produced, and has stated that contracts to export energy from Canada to the United States may be revoked at any time.

or dirt which can collect therein. The pan is in convenient position to be readily brought into use as to fill it or to inspect its contents.

Household Utilities.

HIGH PRESSURE COOKING UTENSIL. T. J. NASH, 235 North 22nd St., Lincoln, Neb. This invention provides a utensil with a body and a cover, together with certain arrangements and means for evenly and tightly seating the cover upon the body whereby to render the same fluid and airtight. By these means it obtains a higher temperature and retains all of the food flavor and nutriment in the food and conserves the full amount of liquid within the utensil in order that it may be continuously utilized during the cooking operation.

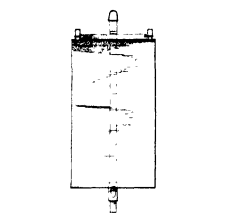
WINDOW SCREEN. C. H. FLETCHER, Coneytown, N. Y. This invention has for its object the provision of a screen for use either



WINDOW SCREEN

at the top, bottom or both, of a window, and so mounted as to be movable with a cord. A further object is to provide spring means for winding said screen upon a roller in the movement of a cord toward a roller.

PULP PAPER HOLDER. C. M. SICK, Salem, W. Va. The inventor provides a device for holding dry pulp provided on its one face with adhesive substance for attaching the feet of the fly, wherein the holder is arranged to securely grasp the paper, and to hold it in such



PULP PAPER HOLDER

position that it cannot be blown away or blown against curtains or the like to soil the same, and so arranged that the holder and this paper may be handled without the necessity of reaching the paper itself.

BABY DRESSER AND WARDROBE. CORA T. WYER, 1521 Columbus Ave., Sandusky, Ohio. The various parts of this device are arranged with reference to convenience and accessibility. The mattress is located upon the top of the wardrobe and dressed in such position that it is readily accessible to the mattress lying surface



BABY DRESSER AND WARDROBE

into the wardrobe and so arranged as to be readily grasped by hand and removed from the mountings. The latter may be put on the dresser which it requires attention, as all articles are handy for use that are needed.

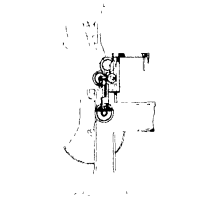
TOILET PAPER. C. M. HENNING, care of Telegram Publ. Co., Bangor, Tenn., Knoxville, N. Y., N. Y. The toilet paper roll is provided with openings corresponding to the seat on which the paper is to be used. In use, the roll is placed on the shaft or roller and the ends of the shaft or roller are inserted in the

openings of the arms. The free end of the strip is passed through the guide, and the paper is ready for use.

Machines and Mechanical Devices.

CHECK HOLDER. B. C. COLE, care of Shelby State Bank, Shelby, Neb. This invention provides a device embodying two relatively movable members together with means including connections between the members whereby to cause them to automatically move against and with respect to one another when a check has been placed therebetween, and wherein the members are connected by a check between the members by the use of one hand only.

ATTACHMENT FOR LOOMS. E. BATT, Box 136, Kennepet, N. Y. This attachment is for looms of any character, but especially for the Crompton Knives type, and may be applied to or detached from a loom of any character, and wherein mechanism is provided for connecting a rotating part of the loom with



ATTACHMENT FOR LOOMS

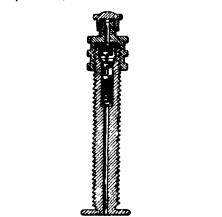
the pulley rollers for operating the said rollers during the weaving of text or job material, to deliver an even and uniform pick of any desired length and said connection being operable to control and disconnect the rotating part of the loom with the pulley rollers by the pattern chain. The attachment has been used with perfect satisfaction for the last six years.

STUMP BORING MACHINE. F. A. LONG, E. 827 Illinois Ave., Spokane, Wash. The invention relates to machines for boring holes and more particularly to a machine especially adapted to operations upon stumps and thrown logs for the purpose of permitting electric fires to be started in the stumps and throwing logs into sections which may be utilized to feed the stump fires.

WELL CASING DRILL. F. O. KAYSON, Fort Hatten, Cal. This invention improves and simplifies the construction and operation of well casing perforators of the drill type, so as to be reliable and efficient in its operation, also to manufacture and keep in operative condition, and so designed as to be safe, and quickly manipulated and positioned.

SAW BLADE HOLDER. A. MICHAEL, care of Shaw & Damich Co., 1 East Main St., Chicago, Ill. This invention relates to saw-blade holders and particularly to the means for holding the saw blades on the saw frame. With the frame of blade holder ordinarily employed a disengagement of the tension of the blades is a necessary incident to the shifting of the blades in the frame.

AIR VALVE. W. E. HENSON, P. O. Box 2, Wagon, Wis. In this case use is made of a valve stem having a longitudinal hole for inlet and outlet of air, and a valve chamber complementary to the hole. This chamber is



AIR VALVE

enlarged at its outer end and receives a long, longitudinally movable valve stem carrying a valve disposed in the enlarged end of the chamber. A valve seat is provided on a bent, bent, bent form with a nipple to receive a dustcap or to connect with a pump. Means provide for sliding the stem parallel guided movement in the chamber, and for seating the valve. The valve stem is disposed relatively to the bore of the valve body so as not to obstruct said bore, and is adapted to limit the lower movement of the valve.

LEVER LOCKING DEVICE. J. A. DUNN, 272 23rd St., West New York, N. J. This invention has a special application to a throw lever provided with a latching mechanism

which is cooperative with a notched segment, the device being designed to be removably attached to the lever and to fit between the lever and the grip of the latch to hold the engaging portion of the latter in positive engagement with the notched segment.

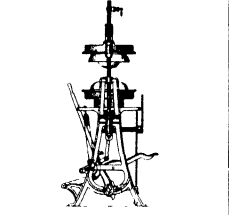
BOLLER CLEANER. J. W. SKONKOR, care of W. L. Sayers, 1111 City, Kan. This invention relates to the cleaning of boilers and removal therefrom of mud and other sedimentation of scale which accumulates therein. It accomplishes this result without the necessity for drawing off all the water and cooling the boiler as in the present method, which method requires the service of two men for practically one half a day.

CLUTCH POSITIVE CLATCH. M. BARR, 126 E. 12nd St., New York, N. Y. The improvement provides a shiftable clutch member having driving connection with a constantly rotating shaft and adapted to engage another shaft element for the purpose of starting a stationary machine, means being provided to cushion the impact whereby the driving shaft, even though operated at high speed, will not cause an undesirable shock to the driven element.

AIR PUMP. G. BRANNETTER, Hohenstadt, and P. K. N. Vindva, Austria-Hungary. The invention relates to air pumps designed to furnish vacuum and air under pressure simultaneously, and in which it is desired to govern the vacuum and the pressure of air independently.

ENVELOPE OPENER. A. MARK, care of the Trust & Blue-Mig Co., New Britain, Conn. This invention provides a device which is portable in use and which will insure a perfect cut of the envelope at each stroke, that is, as a cut which will be effective to open the envelope, but which will not be so long as to endanger the contents of the envelope.

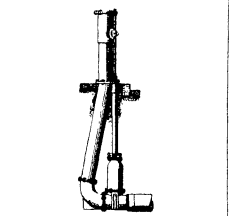
HAT PRESSING MACHINE. J. LARK, JR., 1710 N. 1st St., Philadelphia, Pa. This invention provides means for shaping hat crowns under pressure, the pressure being applied to the crown independently of the brim, provides for contracting the crown



HAT PRESSING MACHINE

within the desired contour and disposing the surplusage within the area usually covered by the hat band, to be in such position that it is, and provides means for distributing the compression area over a greater surface of the crown.

FIRE HYDRANT. M. M. ESKRANS, Gorham, Me., 18th St., Ellsworth, Wash. The present invention has reference to fire hydrants, and provides a hydrant which is economical and highly efficient and in which no restrictions are imposed upon the two passages of liquid there



FIRE HYDRANT

through when the valve is open and the hydrant in use, there being no internal mechanism to occupy any portion of the area of the valve seat or the shuttles in the position of the parts.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories. INTERNATIONAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.—H. C. WELLS, 1176 Walker Ave., Bronx, N. Y., N. Y. In the present patent the invention has for its object the provision of a new and improved means for rotating a valve valve in a cylinder, the said means consisting of a crank operable by a piston rod and geared to the sleeve.

Pertaining to Navigation.

RECREATION DEVICE.—H. SLEIGHT, 11 Long Acre, London, W.C., England. This invention consists in a device comprising an elongated structure adapted to receive a number of persons and adapted to rotate of movements substantially analogous to those of an actual navigable watercraft, so that when viewing situated pictures exhibited on a horizontal screen placed some distance below the structure, the viewer obtains a perspective view of the situation of an actual fight.

Railways and Their Accessories.

PIPE COUPLING DEVICE FOR RAILWAY AND TRAM CARS.—L. ROBERTS, 86 Rue Talbot, Paris, France. This invention relates to pipe coupling device for railway and tram cars and has for its object to construct a device of this character that it will permit of air steam hose, and other similar fluid pipes being brought into operative engagement with each other by simply coupling the cars together.

TRUCK STAND.—N. BROWN, Sanford, Maine. This invention refers to a stand for supporting a truck in jacking up the journal boxes of car axles. An object is to provide a stand for the inclined portion having means to secure and support the same on a car wheel independently of the track bed.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

DOUBLETTER CLIP.—D. B. JACOB, Apartment 402, 4200 Broadway, New York, N. Y. This clip is arranged to allow attachment of the clip to doubleletter, or various thicknesses, and widths, to permit of adjusting the clip in case of shrinkage of the wood of the doubleletter, to secure and position the clip to permit of the clip at the middle of the doubleletter for connection with the draw pin and handle, and to permit of the clip being moved along the doubleletter for connection with the singleletter.

SPRING RESTENSION FOR MOTOR CARS AND OTHER VEHICLES AND TRAVELING MACHINES.—J. A. SHERK, Glen Hammond Road, Parkside, South Australia, Australia. This invention relates to a device for extending the frame of a vehicle upon its axle by means of a spring connected with each axle and pivoted to the frame and adapted to be moved against the action of a spring or springs when the axle is raised so as to absorb the shock caused by rough roads or obstacles, and the object is to provide a construction which will prevent the transmission of shock or jar to the frame of the car, vehicle or machine.

SPRING TRIP.—J. P. HARRINGTON, Address Walter J. Smith, 1501 4th Ave., East St. Louis, Ill. This invention provides a spring trip including an inner rim, an outer movable rim connected to and spaced from the inner rim at a plurality of points by circular band springs, and a cover or guard plate connected to the inner rim and adapted to prevent the entrance of dirt or dust between the rims.

ANTI-MOULDER SIGNAL.—E. SORLEY, 339 Iowa St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a signal box or casing adapted to be carried in proximity of the rear end of the chassis of a locomotive and at either side or in the center thereof depending upon the arrangement of the steering apparatus or upon the personal preference of the conductors of the locomotive or requirements of State or municipal regulations.

SAFETY PRESSURE DEVICE.—W. H. WATERS, 108 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a device more especially designed for use in the domestic connection containing a pump with a pneumatic tire for inflating the tire and arranged to prevent in flattening the tire from a predetermined pressure, thus preventing bursting of the tire while inflating the same.

THRUST SPRING FOR LEAF SPRING.—P. E. FARRIS, Port Chester, N. Y. This invention provides a lubricator for leaf springs of automobiles and other vehicles, and arranged to permit of convenient and quickly applying the lubricant and passing a lubricant between the opposed leaves to prevent the leaf spring from squeaking and to reduce the wear thereof to a minimum.

Note.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for ten cents each. Please state the name of the patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

We wish to call attention to the fact that we are in a position to render competent service in every branch of patent or trademark work. Our staff is composed of mechanical, electrical and chemical experts, thoroughly trained to prepare and prosecute all patent applications, irrespective of the complexity of the subject matter involved, or of the specialized, technical, or scientific knowledge required therefor.

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What will this war cost England in men and money and resources?

Lloyd-George, the most brilliant Chancellor of the Exchequer that England has ever had, answers this question in Collier's for February 27th. It is the most striking article that has yet appeared in connection with this war, for, after all, war is an economic question. England went in with her eyes open.

What will she gain? What will she lose? "Lloyd-George Counts the Cost" in next week's

Collier's
THE NATIONAL WEEKLY

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The Building of the Panama Canal

Success of Government Methods

Illustrated with passages by W. B. Van Dusen and from photographs

A direct and clear narrative of the foundations of the success of one of the greatest achievements in human history.

The War from an American Point of View, by George B. McClellan, former mayor of New York and Professor of Economic History, Princeton University. A summary of the positions of the nations involved, of the possible effect of the war on America, and of our obligations to be prepared.

The New Conditions in War—As Seen from the German Side, by Hans F. J. Archibald, correspondent for *Forbes's Magazine* with the Austro-German army. Illustrated with the author's photographs.

King Albert of the Belgians, by Demetrius C. Bouquier, author of "The History of Belgium." Illustrated. The king whose character and misfortune have won for him the sympathy of the world.

The Shamways, by Armand C. Gordon, author of "Maja." Illustrated by Walter Dugg. Another of the delightful stories of the old South of Mary Jones, (Himself), and others.

John Galsworthy's Novel, The Free-lance. The young folks have already furnished romance. Mr. Galsworthy's broad interest in life has never been more attractively revealed. It is a very human story, a story that will enlist and hold your interest and your sympathies from beginning to the end.

Alice's Child, a story by Katharine Holland Brown. Illustrated by May Wilson. A story of an orphan, of an adopted mother's devotion, of love and loyalty.

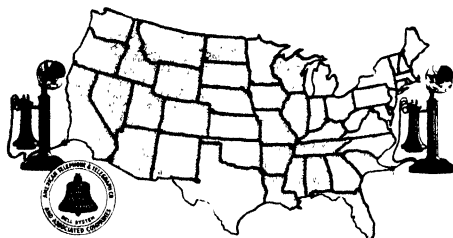
The Border-Land, by Francis Parsons. A story with a strange psychological experience, of adventure on the Ringling of the Mexican frontier, of the influence of heredity.

Pal—The Story of a Dog Who Resisted, by Lloyd Dorsey Willis. Illustrated by Howard V. Brown. Pal was a fire dog who loved to run with the horses, a regular "smoke-eater" of the rainy days of the old Fire Department.

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The Telephone Unites the Nation



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We are truly one people in all that the forefathers, in their most exalted moments, meant by that phrase.

In making us a homogeneous people, the railroad, the telegraph and the telephone have been important factors. They have facilitated communication and intervisiting, bringing us closer together, giving us a better understanding and promoting more intimate relations.

The telephone has played its part as the situation has required. That it should have been planned for its present usefulness is as wonderful as that the vision of the forefathers should

have beheld the nation as it is today.

At first, the telephone was the voice of the community. As the population increased and its interests grew more varied, the larger task of the telephone was to connect the communities and keep all the people in touch, regardless of local conditions or distance.

The need that the service should be universal was just as great as that there should be a common language. This need defined the duty of the Bell System.

Inspired by this need and repeatedly aided by new inventions and improvements, the Bell System has become the welder of the nation.

It has made the continent a community.

AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY AND ASSOCIATED COMPANIES

One Policy

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Universal Service

The Gyroscope

The mysterious behavior of the gyroscope is a source of wonder to everyone. From a curious toy, the gyroscope is being developed into a device of great practical value. Its theory and its method of action are set forth up to the latest moment in the Scientific American Supplement. The following numbers are of great interest and usefulness:

- Scientific American Supplement No. 1881**—Theory of the Mechanism of the Gyroscope. A clear explanation without mathematics.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1884**—Little-known Properties of the Gyroscope develops a peculiar action not generally observed and discusses the effect of this property on the motions of the planets.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1886**—The Gyro Compass, its principle and construction.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1921**—The Gyrostat for Ships describes the construction and application of the principle to prevent rolling of vessels.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1923**—Gyroscope Stabilizer for Ships by Elmer A. Sperry.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1924**—Gyroscope Apparatus for Preventing Ships from Rolling, takes up the subject in connection described first in No. 1921, and discusses its action and results fully.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1925**—The Theory of the Gyroscope is an excellent article treating the subject mathematically, rather than popularly.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1926**—The Gyroscope is an article giving a full discussion of the instrument without mathematics and in language within the comprehension of all interested.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1916**—A Recent Development in Gyroscopic Design illustrates a new form of construction and mounting adapted to engineering use.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1922**—The Gyroscope for Balancing Airships takes up this interesting field which the gyroscope alone seems capable of occupying.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1921**—Gyroscope Balancing of Airships tells of various suggested methods of maintaining equilibrium.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1927**—The Wonderful Gyroscope, gives a description of the gyroscope and its action, and applications to maintaining stability of ships and monorail trains.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1875**—The Mechanical Principles of Brennan's Monorail Car, a brief exposition.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1814**—The Rotating Gyroscopic describes the latest design of aeroplane stabilizer, from which great benefits are expected.
- Scientific American Supplement No. 1882**—The gyroscopic force of rotary engines, its nature and significance for aviation.

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The idea was sound. Today, one hundred and twenty-eight manufacturers incorporate Continental certainty and Continental prestige into their product.

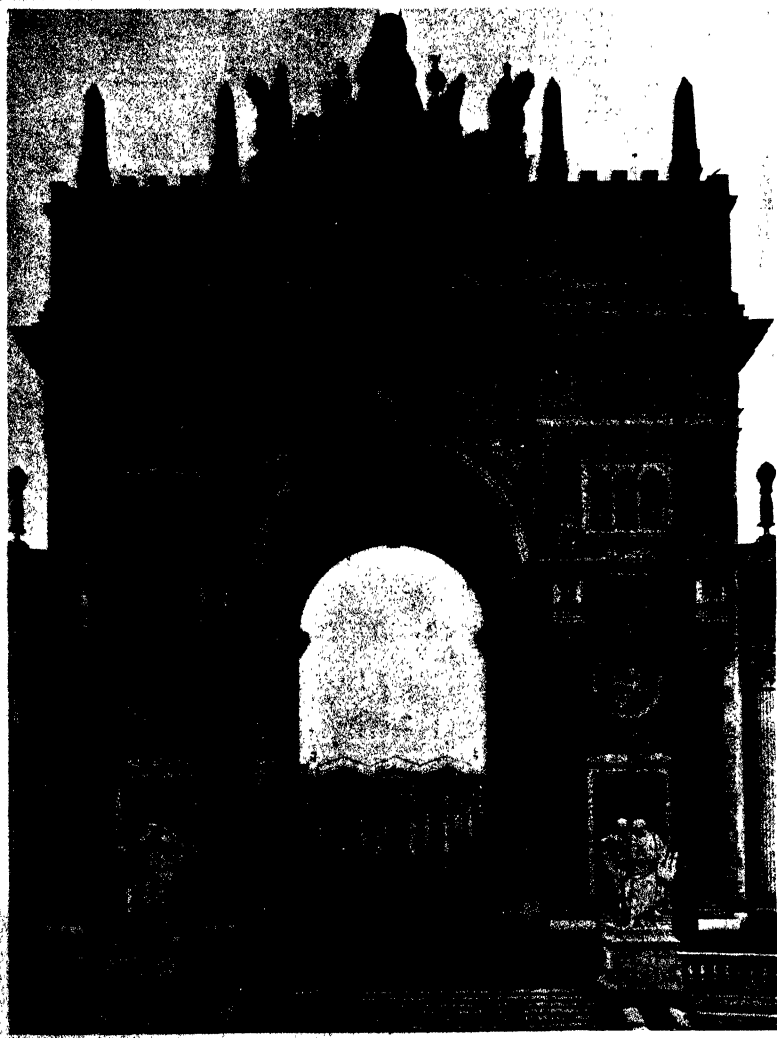
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NATIONAL ARCH OF THE RISING SUN, SURMOUNTED BY THE GROUP OF "THE NATIONS OF THE EAST."—[See page 194]

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February 1919

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SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

VOLUME CXXI
NUMBER 8

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 27, 1915

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The Bushmen of the Moori River, Natal

By D. Waterson

NEAR the source of the Moori River, Natal, some 6,000 feet above sea level, are some curious rock pictures made by Bushmen, and the owner of the property had some photos taken for me. These Bushmen, like Diogenes, have reduced their wants to minimum. They rarely build a hut, but prefer the natural caves they find in the rocks or they form a kind of nest in the bush. Their garments consist only of a small skin; their spears are mere branches of trees, to which is tied a piece of bone or flint. The arrow is a reed treated in the same way, and all weapons are poisoned. They have no flocks and hunt with the help of dogs as wild as themselves. A rounded stone, perforated in the middle with a piece of wood inserted, serves to dig up edible roots, while fire is produced by rubbing two pieces of wood.

Their faculty of imitation is great, and is well illustrated by the paintings shown and by the carvings on the walls of their caves and rocks.

These are done with different colored clays, and the carving with a flint chisel only.

Many pictures come close to caricatures. The Boer, the Hottentot with his large feet and grotesque body are unmistakably delineated. Elephants, ostriches, antelopes, hunters are all shown.

It is a curious spectacle to see these naked savages painting with a reed or carving with a piece of flint, and coloring them with ochre.

These curious little people, light-skinned, hair growing in tufts, ridiculously developed in the buttocks, yet with very small hands and feet, are keen lovers of freedom. They acknowledge no master and possess no slaves. Possessing a most rudimentary religion they are far superior to the Hottentot, never being uselessly cruel and showing kindness to fellow tribesmen. They are distinct from all other African races, have a strange and difficult language, and are divided into small tribes scattered and isolated all over southern Africa.

New Method for Concrete Flooring

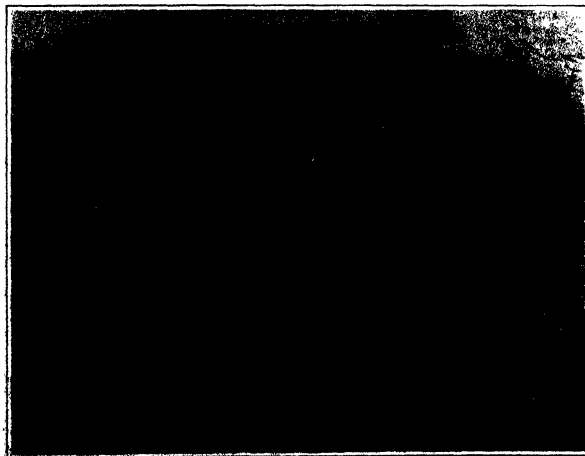
A RECENTLY patented system for reinforced concrete flooring was applied with success to a 6-story apartment house located at Paris. All the floors, as well as the roof terrace, were constructed on the new method of molding, which is the invention of Augustus Perret and François. A series of pre-

forced concrete beams running across the building in the usual way, serves as the basis for the flooring. A set of light planks is laid from beam to beam for scaffolding, and properly spaced at even distances. There are prepared hollow molds in plaster about 8 feet long and 5 feet wide, and about the thickness of the flooring. Such molds have a somewhat elliptical curve at the top, with straight flat bottom and somewhat inwardly sloping sides. All the plaster molds are laid upon the planking end to end, and there is a certain space between the sides of the molds, that is where they rest upon the plank, this latter of course running parallel to the molds. Then reinforcing iron rods are

properly laid down, and concrete is molded on after the usual manner. The part of the concrete that lies between the plaster molds thus forms a series of vertical webs, limited at the bottom by the wood planks, and as the concrete is put on to several inches above the tops of the plaster molds, it has a flat surface all over the floor. The plaster molds remain in place and are part of the flooring, being buried in the concrete, except on the under surface, and aid in consolidating the floor, for such molds themselves are braced in their hollow cavity by two vertical webs in the middle, the walls and webs of such molds being a few inches thick. Combined with the concrete, this makes up a solid floor, and what is of great advantage is that there is now given an under surface (formed for the main part by the flat bottom of the plaster molds), which is ready to receive the ceiling plaster, without the use of lath or any other preparation. After the cement has set, the wood planking is drawn from underneath, for according to the reinforced concrete construction, the flooring is made to rest eventually on the main stringers of the house, the under boarding being only to uphold the work during the molding of the concrete. Because of the air space in the plaster forms, there is given an air cushion which makes such floors sound-proof, this being another good point, and it is also to be noticed that the hollow plaster part makes a series of natural conduits for electric wires, piping, and the like.



Rock paintings by Bushmen, showing caves in which these men live.



Bushman's paintings in a cave near the source of the Moori River, Natal.

Fluorescent Photographs of Palimpsests

FOR some time the study of palimpsests has been facilitated not only by ordinary photography, but by ultra-violet photography. An even greater amount of success in reclaiming ancient texts from old parchments has been obtained recently by the use of fluorescent photography. This new method, invented by P. Raphael Kogel, was described at the meeting of the Royal Prussian Academy of Sciences, which took place at Berlin, on October 26th of last year.

The new method is based on the fact that parchment fluoresces under the influence of the ultra-violet rays, while the written characters remain almost entirely dark. Mr. Kogel states that this fluorescent photography gives on the average 50 per cent better results in the deciphering of old texts than either ordinary photography or ultra-violet photography, both of which he had previously employed. The communication was made before the session of the "Palästina-Klasse" of the Academy.

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated
articles on subjects of timely interest. If the photographs are
of the articles short, and the text is to the point, the Editor will
receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at
regular space rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately,
simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in sci-
entific knowledge and industrial achievement.

On the Edge of the Maelstrom of War

THE determination of President Wilson to call in all the political engineers at his command to jam through this bill, whose immediate effect may well be to involve us in the European conflict, is a piece of the most amazing inconsistency that ever threatened to shake the public confidence in the prudence and wisdom of the Executive Office.

Altogether timely and fitting and universally approved throughout the country, the President's appeal to the citizens of this country, issued immediately upon the declaration of war, to preserve an attitude of the strictest neutrality.

In the same spirit and to the same degree that the country applauded that manifesto, does it now stand aghast to see its President fathering and diligently fostering a measure which, in its effect upon the warring nations, may prove to be a veritable firebrand. A conflict of the Titanic nature of that now being waged in Europe shakes the whole world to its very foundations. There is not a nation, however small, whose interests are not affected and whose peace may not ultimately be endangered, and the risk of embroilment increases proportionately to the size and wealth and military and political standing of every nation affected.

The United States, as by far the largest and most important of the countries not hitherto entangled in the conflict, is peculiarly liable, because of its far-reaching interests, to be caught somewhere or other in the tail; and it is a most sacred and binding obligation upon those who happen for the time being, to constitute our Government, to avoid taking any legislative steps which, even in the most remote degree, might irritate the overstrained nerves and susceptibilities of the great nations engaged in this war.

Now the engineers with which the President is endeavoring to force his Ship Purchase Bill upon the country, is due to his honest, though sadly mistaken belief that this measure will solve the problem of rebuilding our merchant marine—a question in which for many years he has taken the deepest interest. We are willing to give him credit for the very highest motive, founded, although they are, upon a totally mistaken understanding of the situation. But this does not change the fact that the bill is the most serious menace to our peaceful relations with the warring nations that has developed since the opening of the war.

Say what they will, the sponsors of this measure must by this time be aware that the only possible source from which they can hope to secure the \$40,000,000 worth of ships and for is the German and Austrian ships which are at present interned in neutral ports. Senator Burton, in the article which we publish elsewhere in this issue, and at greater length in his various speeches, has shown that the proposed partnership of the Government with a corporation is a legal subterfuge, and that the ships, if they are purchased, will be to all intents and purposes, and certainly in the eyes of international law, the property of the United States Government. Certain it is, also, that if they are sold, they will be liable to seizure by the enemy's cruises, whether German, British, or French, and equally true it is that should any one of these ships be found to be carrying contraband, the United States Govern-

ment would stand guilty of a flagrant breach of neutrality and would be in danger of quick embroilment in the present struggle.

The President possesses a mind too logical in its processes for him not to be perfectly well aware that his insistence on the passage of a bill such as this is in direct contradiction to his attitude in urging upon the country the large preservation of an attitude of strict neutrality.

Well might Senator Burton say, as he does in the article published on another page: "I am sorry to say that there are a great many people in the United States who do not seem to realize that we are in the midst of the most titanic conflict between nations that the world has ever seen"; and we feel constrained to add that the present Administration, in endeavoring to force this perilous measure through Congress, seems to be steering the Ship of State on the edge of the maelstrom of war with a careless fatuity that is simply appalling.

We commend to the careful attention of our readers the article by Senator Burton, criticizing the policy of this Administration, which is published elsewhere in our columns. To us and, we believe, to the great majority of our readers, the Senator's trenchant arguments, based as they are upon a lifelong study of the shipping problem, are simply unanswerable. Judging from the tone of the correspondence which reaches this office, the great majority of the people of this country are not in sympathy with the Administration's bill; first, because they believe that, politically and economically, it is based upon false principles, second, because it will drive what shipping we have from the high seas; and, thirdly and chiefly, because they see in it the probable seeds of war. Therefore, we strongly urge upon the constituents of the country that it is their duty to make personal appeal to their Senators, and urge them to throw party considerations to the winds and unite in the defeat of the most dangerous and menacing bill that has been brought before Congress for many years past.

Preparedness the Only Sure Guarantee of Peace

THE assumption that the victors in the great war now being waged in Europe will emerge broken and exhausted is the deduction of ignorance and unwarranted by the experience of the past. Was the North exhausted by the civil war in the sense of being unready for further military effort? Quite the reverse—her population had increased and her host of well trained veteran soldiers, her ample equipment, and multitudes of all kinds made it practicable for her to speak in no uncertain terms to France concerning Mexico. Does anyone suppose that had the North at the commencement of the civil war been as strong, as experienced, and as well prepared as she was at the end, that the South could have offered effectual resistance?

Russia alone, at the present, exhaustion as a result of the war with Japan? Every soldier and all intelligent laymen know that Russia, from the military standpoint, greatly benefited by that war, and that to-day she has better equipment, arms, organization, and morale than before. Serbia, small in territory, poor in resources, fought Turkey, then Bulgaria, and almost without a breathing spell has waged a remarkable campaign against the great forces of Austria—and so on ad infinitum.

The pacifists ask who is to attack us. The same type of people asked the same question in England a year ago. We are not unready preparation for a war with any particular people; we are, rather, urging preparation against war with any and all people. Especially reasonable and careful preparation against those breaking boys a better chance of security than upon doors and complete heedlessness.

Some of our statesmen, who have been intimately connected with the building up of the present perilous system of army posts and administration and with its continuance, glaze with lip and simplicity that we have spent much money and must therefore be prepared. As a matter of fact, we are almost wholly unprepared, and every well-informed military man in the country knows it.

We have, it is true, more arms than we had last year, but how many more? And how long will it take us to secure the perfect reserve recommended by the General Staff? This is the question the American people have answered! "All the people cannot be fooled all the time" by juggling with words and figures. The question asked is: Are we ready? The honest answer is No: far from it, years and years away. Every foreign power knows it and knows that we could not get ready without a breaking up of the modern war. Much money has been spent, but the facts speak for themselves: regular army is without the necessary organization—the reserve of men needed to fill up existing organizations to full strength, the reserve of ammunition for the artillery, the ammunition trains, the transport trains, and

many other necessary things. The millions in the hands of, and is as a body only poorly equipped. The coast artillery is short of men and ammunition, and there are no available troops to co-operate with its defense against landing parties. Searchlights, which are absolutely essential for coast defense, are largely wanting; fire control systems are in many parts improved and unsatisfactory.

But we are told that we must be prepared because we have spent large sums of money. Other equally statesmanlike utterances are heard to the effect that a million men, full of the ardor of youth, will spring to arms between sun and sun. How utterly silly is the kind of pose. Look at England, striving to make soldiers after war has commenced, without officers or uncommissioned officers to train her recruits. Cannot we learn something from observation? Is it not time to stop talking without thinking and do something before it is too late? Ask your military experts to work out and present to Congress a plan of procedure, and for a time place the political military expert on the shelf. He costs too much.

The Battle With Foot-and-Mouth Disease

IN view of the fact that the drastic methods used to combat the foot-and-mouth disease have excited criticism on the part of cattle owners, statistical information in regard to the outbreak and its treatment, just published by the United States Bureau of Animal Industry, is of timely interest. Wherever a stevedecker in a herd has been found to be diseased, the entire herd has been slaughtered. An exception was made in the case of the National Dairy Show cattle, at Chicago, where a rigid quarantine was established and the herd spared, but the expense proved to be far too great to justify this procedure in ordinary cases. The total number of herds slaughtered was 2,046, consisting of 3,289 cattle, 7,135 pigs, and 2,728 swine, with an aggregate estimated value of \$3,890,110. Illinois has had the largest infected area, 50 out of a total of 102 counties being affected. The animals slaughtered in that State were appraised at \$1,140,985.

These figures cease to appear large when compared with the total extent of the livestock industry in the United States. On January 1, 1915, the number of cattle in this country was estimated at 88,226,000. Hence the number of cattle slaughtered in stamping out foot-and-mouth disease has been less than eight hundredths of one per cent of the total, and though the work is not yet complete the total loss will probably not exceed one tenth of one per cent. The number of animals slaughtered does not exceed the number killed in two or three days in some of the larger packing house centers. The bureau claims that if the plague had been tolerated with and had been allowed to get beyond control the United States would doubtless have had to endure permanently an annual loss of many million dollars.

From a circular issued last month by the Illinois Agricultural Experiment Station we get an insight into the critical situation that has existed in that State, especially as to the differences of opinion between many cattle owners on one side and the United States Bureau of Animal Industry and the Illinois State Live Stock Commission on the other, concerning the proper methods of handling the situation.

The financial loss entailed upon individuals by the slaughter of herds has undoubtedly been serious. The federal authorities agreed to pay half of the appraised value of the slaughtered animals, and there was an understanding, but no legal provision, that the State would pay the other half. The appraised value of an animal does not cover its breeding value, nor the disorganization of farm business which results from the destruction of a herd. The latter is especially important on dairy farms, where the farm plan calls for a herd to consume the forage. Where a herd is destroyed it cannot promptly be replaced, both on account of the temporary prohibition of stock shipments and also on account of the danger of immediately restocking an infected farm.

The answer to these complaints, however, seems to be that more liberal provision should be made for making good the losses of the owners, and that for any relaxation should be permitted in the stringent measures which, in view of the remarkable effectiveness of this disease and in the light of experience gained in previous outbreaks, have heretofore been adopted by the authorities.

The fact that in one month the disease spread from a single point in Michigan to New England in one direction and Montana in the other indicates the magnitude of the problem with which the Federal and State officers have had to deal.

Most important of all is the fact that if this disease had been allowed to establish itself as a permanent factor in the American livestock industry, the economic consequences would have been a permanent loss of the already high prices of meat and dairy products.

The Great International Panama-Pacific Exposition

How the United States of America Will Commemorate a Great Engineering Achievement That Promises to Effect a Readjustment of the Lines of Commerce of the Entire World



The Fountain of the Earth.

An Exposition Which Will Symbolize the Advance of Humanity and Which Will Contribute to a Better Understanding of Peoples and the Widening of the Influence of the United States

At its inception undoubtedly the only thought of the purpose of the Panama Canal, at least in the mind of the general public, was the closer linking of the great Pacific coast region of our country with the East, a closer commercial and social connection that would be of common benefit to all, but as time passed, and conditions were studied more carefully, it became evident that the Panama Canal was destined to become an epoch-making factor in the world's history, not only

of North America has been practically isolated from the rest of the world, and although a region of vast resources and possibilities it has been so difficult of access that it is practically undeveloped. The same is true, in varying degrees, of the coast of Siberia, Western South America and Australia, not to speak of the numberless islands of the Pacific, for indeed the entire territory lying in and adjoining the vast Pacific Ocean has suffered more or less from this difficulty of access.

The Suez Canal did much to improve this condition, but the penetration of the Panama Isthmus will undoubtedly have a more radical effect. The Panama Canal opens up lines of communication untouched by Suez, and probably affecting much more extensive areas, that must have a momentous effect on the tide of trade and emigration within a few years, especially under the upheaving influences of the war in Europe.

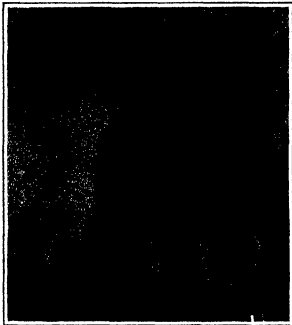
While the Canal bridges these great territories into easy communication with the rest of the world its special influence upon conditions in the United States is more direct, and the results are tremendous in their possibilities, for the Canal puts us into closer touch with territories including one fifth of the land surface of the world, and a third of its population, than London or Hamburg, and the possible influence and benefits arising from such a connection are too vast to be understood or appreciated at the present time.

Why the Exposition is a Fitting Way of Celebrating the Canal.

It is such a momentous event, far overshadowing the engineering and administrative triumphs of the actual work of construction, notable as these are, that the Panama-Pacific Fair is intended to celebrate and announce to all people, and apparently its organizers and creators accomplished their purpose and realized their ideals in a way that will be a credit to their country.

In planning the exposition it was decided to divide the buildings into three principal groups, massing the great exhibition palaces in the center, while the pavilions of the nations, and State buildings, lie to the west and the amusement section, the "Zone," is located nearest to the heart of San Francisco. The base of the central group is a great quadrangle composed of eight immense exhibition palaces, similar in character and separated by three great courts running north and

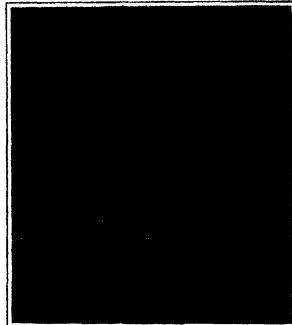
south between the three pairs. In the center is the vast Court of Honor, the Court of the Universe; on the west is the Court of the Four Seasons; on the east is the Court of Abundance. Huge colonnades screen the walls of the buildings, extending from the openings of the courts upon the harbor back to the courts themselves, and almost encircling them. The walls of these vast corridors are red, their vaults Venetian blue. Red, blue, green, and golden brown in pastel shades line the re-



Façade of the Palace of Machinery.

through the readjustment of the lines of commerce which it will compel, but fully as potently through the influences that result from the drawing together of great nations following improved facilities of communication.

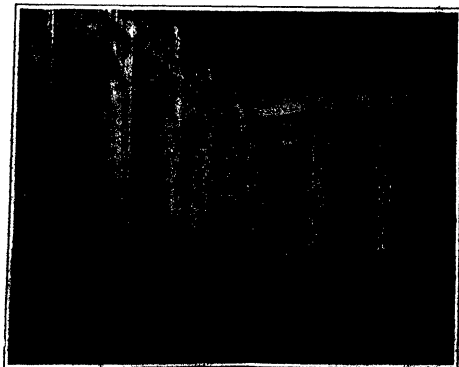
Comparatively few people realize that the west coast
* Illustrations of this article copyrighted by the Panama-Pacific International Exposition, 1915.



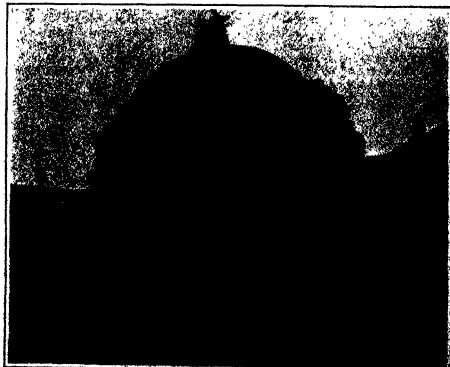
Vestibule of the Palace of Machinery.

cesses in the courts, silhouetting in color great groups of statuary placed within niches. Superb mural paintings by William Del. Dodge, Frank Brangwyn, Milton H. Bancroft, Edward Simmons, and other famous artists will be placed upon the walls of the courts behind the colonnades or will ornament the vaults of great triumphal arches.

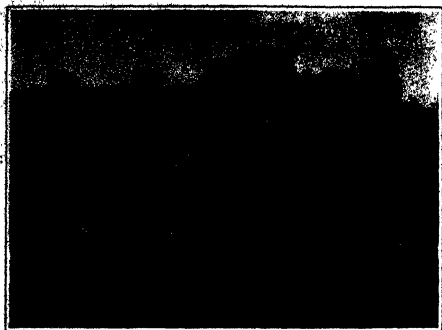
The huge domes rising from the center of eight of



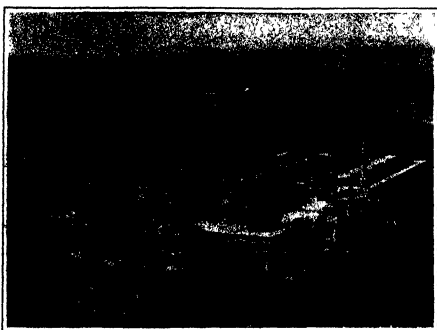
A corner in the Court of Abundance.



Unique half dome in the Court of the Four Seasons.



Equisite colonnade of the Palace of Fine Arts.



The Palace of Horticulture with its beautiful dome.

the main exhibit palaces are their most conspicuous architectural feature. These domes rise 100 feet above the floors of the buildings, are 100 feet in diameter and are set upon great octagonal bases that rise at the intersections of transverse and longitudinal naves that run through the centers of the palaces. The lattices in the bases beneath the domes are of green with glints of gold showing between their intersections.

To the south of this group of buildings is the beautiful South Garden, flanked on one side by the wonderful Palace of Horticulture, with its Saracenic architecture suggested by the Mosque of Sultan Ahmed I, and on the other by the magnificent Festival Hall. To the west of the main group is the Palace of Fine Arts, a creation that well merits its name.

The Wonderful Tower of Jewels.

The central architectural feature of the grounds is the Tower of Jewels, a Babylonian effect that rises 435 feet high by a series of seven decorative terraces, and is surmounted by a triumphal group of figures supporting a globe, typifying the world. This is the work of Thomas Hastings of Carrere & Hastings, and suspended upon its walls are 125,000 "jewels" of cut glass that scintillate in the sun, and at night glister and radiate multitudes of beams reflected from the many colored lights that are arranged to play upon the tower, as well as most of the other principal buildings. Through the base of this tower entrance is given to the Court of the Universe, by an archway 125 feet in height, and set within a vast colonnade in its base are the two great fountains, the Fountain of El Dorado and the Fountain of Youth.

Contrary to general expectation, the architecture of the exposition buildings is not of the Mission style, but the prevailing character is rather the Italian Renaissance and Greco-Roman. There is, however, a flavor of Spanish architecture, but of the highly ornate High Renaissance Spanish style, and the Hispano-Moorish. Decorative detail has been used with a lavish hand, but also with taste and judgment, and days could be spent in studying and admiring these subordinate features alone. Upon the architectural effects and details the best thought of the country has been bestowed, and the results have surpassed anticipation.

The general character of great fairs has tended to settle into certain general lines, but in the case of the Panama-Pacific the richness and variety of the archi-

tecture and the luxuriance of the decorative detail preclude all possibility of an impression of sameness, while a special feature of the decoration gives the exhibition as a whole a daring character of novelty and a beauty that is individual.

Not a "White City" but a City of Color and Beauty.

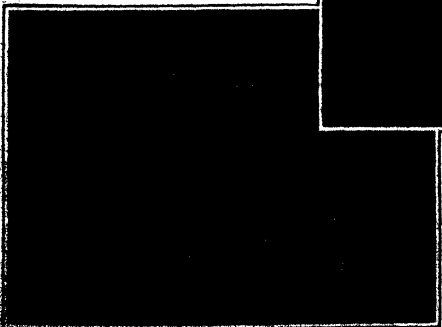
This special feature, that gives a startling beauty and brilliancy to the entire scene, is the introduction of color, not for an occasional contrast, but everywhere, and making the whole scene poly-chromatic. We know that the Greeks in their most beautiful creations did not rely on form alone for their effects, but used colors liberally, not only in their architectural work, but in their sculpture, and this is the plan adopted at San Francisco. Early in the preparation of the plans the management called in Jules Guerin. He has wrought on this six hundred and thirty-five acre canvas a harmonious picture, vivid in color and beauty. In contrast with other similar undertakings there are here none of the great familiar areas of white showing up on every side, for white has been entirely eliminated from the color scheme everywhere. In its place we have the marvellous blending of brilliant shades of red, orange, and blue with the green of the trees and shrubbery and the soft, warm buff of the walls of the buildings, for this shade has been adopted as the universal tint for

all of the large blank surfaces. The many domes are gold and copper green, while the roofs show in some places the old red Spanish tile, while others are cerulean blue. The capitals and friezes are picked out in gold, blue, and orange, while the colonnades show pleasing contrasts of warm buff against Pompeian red.

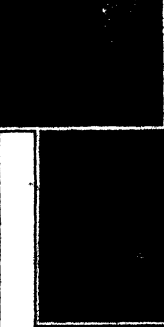
These colors are not applied as paints or stucco, but as pigments mixed with the material of which the surfaces of the buildings are composed, and this is of the character of cement rather than of the once familiar "staff," for which reason the colors are not as easily or as quickly affected by the weather. Furthermore, the surfaces have a natural stipple character that softens the color effects and eliminates all disturbing reflections. Cunningly arranged in the decorations of capitals, and in the flutings of columns, are numerous electric lights, which, with the many searchlights distributed about the grounds, illuminate the buildings at night and startlingly bring out their beauties.

Sculpture is freely and effectively employed everywhere, and this branch of the decorative work was in charge of Karl Bitter and A. Sterling Calver, while the various notable works were created by many well-known artists. Monumental fountains are located in the various courts, and many spectacular groups are found surmounting the arches. Mural paintings, skillfully rendered in harmony with the general color scheme, have been appropriately located and distributed. Considered as a whole this fair is an object lesson of the greatest value to every architect, artist, or other student or lover of the beautiful in color and form.

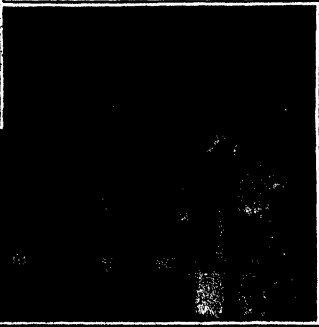
In its exhibits the great progress that has been made in every branch of art, science, manufacture, and industry should insure an array of novelties to satisfy the most exacting; and the management gives assurances that this is the case. Naturally the war has had its effects, but apparently this will not be appreciable, especially in view of the fact that even since the war started several of the nations involved have increased the appropriations made for the purposes of their displays, and even desolated Belgium will be represented by notable collections. This same is the general situation in regard to European countries generally, but irrespective of these the contributions of our South American neighbors and the displays from the Orient are probably sufficient to amply reward every visitor for his pilgrimage.



Fountain of the Rising Sun with group "Nations of the East."



Fountain of the Festival Hall and the tower of the Court of Palms.



The Tower of Jewels covered with thousands of flashing crystals.

Doing Without Europe—V

Some Striking Instances of the Value of Research in Industry

WHEN one considers the opportunities that confront the American manufacturer and the ease with which many of the problems connected with the establishment of new industries in this country can be solved by industrial research, it is amazing indeed to discover how backward we have been. In the automobile and upper leather manufacturers, for example, chromium is of great importance. Most of the ore comes from South Africa, Austria, and Russia. Who knows but a substitute may be found if a competent expert is employed to find it? Caudate of potassium is made in Germany and is much used in gold plating and electroplating. The war has completely upset the industry. Who will be the first to employ an industrial research chemist to work out a process which will be profitable in America?

Ichthyol, a peculiar asphaltic material found in Austria, which finds application after appropriate chemical treatment as a very important ingredient, has been cut off almost entirely. The raw material comes from a fossiliferous deposit near Seefeld, in the Austrian Tyrol. It is carefully selected and subjected to dry distillation. The distillate thus obtained is then saponified and subsequently neutralized with ammonia. The use of this material has greatly increased in the last few years. Since the beginning of the war its price has doubled. Already one firm in St. Louis has a material on the market which has been favorably recommended as an efficient substitute closely resembling ichthyol itself.

Chemical glassware has gone up markedly in price since the war. There is nothing mysterious in the making of glass—at least there ought not to be. The glass industry, with the exception of plate glass, is in a low condition. That is because it has never been scientifically conducted. Its processes are still based upon formulae handed down from father to son. Often as many as twenty-four different ingredients are mixed together to form a batch of glass-making material, notwithstanding the fact that, scientifically speaking, only four are required. In glass-making alone there is an enormous opportunity for industrial research since the war began.

There is one carbon that is manufactured in Europe that is superior to the American carbon, and that is the projector carbon used for moving-picture machines. The American manufacturer has not been able to produce a carbon which seems to be as satisfactory for the purpose as the German. The Siver Carbon Company of St. Marys, Pa., is conducting research which probably will produce a carbon that will ultimately compare very favorably with the equivalent European product.

One Effect of Prohibition in Russia.

When Russia placed a ban upon vodka it little realized the industrial effect. Fuel oil is a by-product in the manufacture of vodka, and fuel oil is necessary in the making of lacquers. Hence, the lacquer supply at present in this country must be carefully guarded. Now, it happens that about two years ago the E. I. du Pont de Nemours Powder Company made a very careful and exhaustive study of the synthetic manufacture of amyl acetate and refined fuel oil and succeeded in developing a process by which both of these materials can be made synthetically. Fuel oil is a by-product of the distillery, and in the past has been allowed actually to run to waste. Because of a corner engineered by a Russian syndicate, the price was greatly advanced two or three years ago, but there was no legitimate reason why the cost in this country should exceed \$25 to \$35 per 100 kilos. At this price it is not possible to compete with the synthetic article.

If we were to ignore all the possibilities that have been opened up by the war, we would have to publish an article which would require page after page of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*. We do not advocate industrial research as a panacea for all our industrial ills; nor do we believe that it will answer the requirements of every manufacturer. On the other hand, it is safe to say that the helplessness of most business men in face of an industrial situation which is one of the severest that they have felt for many years could be removed if expert advice were sought.

After the War—What?

It must not be forgotten that, if their plants are not damaged in the present war, German manufacturers will put forth the most strenuous efforts to regain their trade with outside markets. The loss which has been sustained by the interruption of their manufacturing operations must be recouped, and the United States with its low tariff would be a shining mark for these commercial attacks. What little headway we have made in foreign markets will probably also be lost; for

This article is to be regarded as a direct continuation of that published in last week's issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Its object is to set forth the possibilities of industrial research not only in solving the industrial problems created by the war, but in enriching the country in a new way.—Editor.

In foreign markets we have always been helpless when we met the competition of the Germans.

Now, the Germans' strongest asset is industrial research. The smallest German manufacturer knows how significant it has been in the upbuilding of Germany's industrial power. He knows exactly where he is weak, and proceeds to strengthen his business with the aid of the *Materiel-Entwurfung* of Gross, Lieberfeld, near Berlin, and of dozens of private institutions which are scattered throughout his native land. Apart from any patriotic desire to do without Europe, it will become vitally necessary to the American manufacturer to take more than a passing interest in industrial research if, after the war, a flood of German goods will inundate this market at prices even lower than those with which American manufacturers had to contend before.

Once the American begins to take a healthy interest in the scientific improvement of his manufacturing processes, we will find him as restless in that respect as he has been in developing the mechanical efficiency of his plant. He will change his whole attitude toward manufacturing.

The Folly of Trade Secrets.

In the first place, he will care less about trade secrets than he now does. Even now the industry dependent on trade secrets is fast giving place to the industry that is scientifically conducted. The dye house of a textile mill is a case in point. There was a time when the master or "boss dyer" had a special knowledge which he guarded carefully. He was on close personal terms of intimacy with his several helpers, the most ambitious of whom ultimately and in turn became a "second hand" and was taught the principles of the trade—in reality, the "drugs" utilized and how prepared for dyeing. When Perkin discovered mauve, a new era dawned. The secrets of the dyers have given place to the great amount of practical technical data disseminated by the large color manufacturers. As a technically informed person, the dyer of to-day is infinitely the superior of the boss dyer of yesterday.

The introduction of the glucose industry into this country is also interesting because it shows how secrecy gave place to science. In measures the industry was an imported one, as Mr. T. B. Wagner of the C. O. Products Company once pointed out; for glucose had been made from potatoes in Germany many years before the establishment of the first factory in this country. In those early days it was necessary not only to import the machinery, but skilled labor as well. Among the most important were the men in charge of the vacuum pans. They were brought here at the expense of the manufacturer and engaged at extravagant salaries. They were quick to realize their advantage and soon became the bosses of the plant. They ruled absolutely. Their work was surrounded with great mystery, but it had to give way to efficiency, and to-day the position of a pan man is no more important than that of any other workman; in fact, unskilled men are often selected for this work and soon become experts at their post.

Wealth from Waste.

In the reclamation of industrial wastewaters—the truest kind of conservation—an immense amount of profitable work remains to be accomplished. The glucose industry is an object lesson in that respect. One of the last by-products to be recovered in that firm was that so-called "steep water"—the water in which the corn is immersed and softened prior to grinding. In the words of Mr. T. B. Wagner: "It contains the most valuable ingredients of the grain, namely, the organic phosphorus compounds, magnesium and potash salts, nitrogen bodies and sugars. Many efforts have been made to recover these solids in dry form, but it was to the hygroscopic condition of the residue, such methods were found to be impracticable. At one Iowa factory grinding about ten thousand bushels of corn per day, the steep water was run with the wash waters from starch and gluten into a creek, which in turn discharged into a river of fair size. This method of disposing of the steep water soon became a nuisance to the plant, and court suits were started against the factory, since the fish were killed and the residents were disgusted. The owner of the factory was compelled to

run a pipe line to a farm located about three miles from the factory. For that privilege, besides furnishing a most excellent fertilizing material, he had to pay the farmer \$8,000 annually. To-day this by-product is recovered by collecting it, concentrating it, and adding it to the gluten used in the form of a syrup, with which it is subsequently dried, the seed acting as an absorbent. Instead of investing in pipe lines and paying for dumping rights, the waste of a 10,000-bushel plant was thereby converted into a revenue of almost \$100,000 a year. Applied to the industry as a whole, this form of waste furnishes to-day an annual gross income of approximately one and one-half million dollars."

The utilization of waste by industrial plants has always been a difficult problem. The question is pressing for cellulose plants working according to the sulphite process. The waste liquors of these plants contain, in addition to sulphurous acid, about 10 per cent of wood pulp in suspension, which has been simply allowed to run off with the waste water. Because of the sulphurous acid, the lye is biologically detrimental to water courses, and has given rise to damage suits as well as complaints. In addition, the air in the vicinity is badly contaminated.

In Sweden the lignin liquors are used in the production of alcohol. In Germany this was not economical, and accordingly a process was developed in a Rhine plant for obtaining a useful solid product—a transparent, resin-like substance, which can be utilized as a binder in coal or metal briquetting, for which purpose it is said to have an advantage over coal tar pitch. At a plant in Bruchhausen, 18,000 tons of blast furnace dust are daily transformed into briquettes with this cellulose pitch.

How Old Problems May Be Probably Solved.

As far back as 1872 chemists had hinted that perhaps there were industrial uses for what they called "phenolic condensation products," which were modified forms of carbolic acid. But resin-like substances were formed in obtaining these phenolic condensation products, and no one knew what to do with them. Dr. L. H. Heckel, a well-known industrial chemist, set to work and discovered how they could be controlled. From carbolic acid and formaldehyde, two ill-scented substances, he produced an absolutely new compound—a solid, hard, infusible, insoluble compound which might easily be mistaken for amber or the Chinese lacquer. Cigar holders, bettishole switchboards, jewelry, acid-pump valves, brass bedstead lacquers, photographic records, billiard balls, automobile magneton, unbreakable dolls, newspaper stereotyping matrices, and much electrical machinery is made with his transformed carbolic acid. He has given America a new industry.

An equally notable solution of a technical problem which had long baffled other investigators is the Franch process for refining the crude, sulphur-bearing Canadian and Ohio oils. The essence of the invention consists in distilling the different products of the fractional distillation of the crude oil with metallic oxides, especially oxide of copper, by which the sulphur is completely removed, while the oils distill over as odorless and sweet as from the best Pennsylvania oil. The copper sulphide is roasted to regenerate the copper. The invention had immense pecuniary value. It met the production of the Ohio fields to 80,000 barrels a day, and the price of crude Ohio oil from 14 cents a barrel to \$1.

The Money that Research Can Make.

The effects that may be produced by even slight improvements almost surpass belief. Gayley's invention of the dry air blast in the manufacture of iron involves a saving to the American people of \$15,000,000 to \$25,000,000 annually. A modern furnace consumes about 40,000 cubic feet of air per minute. Each grain of moisture per cubic foot of air means a gallon of water per hour for each 1,000 cubic feet of air. In the Pittsburgh district the moisture varies from 1.5 grains in February to 5.94 grains in June, and the water per hour entering a furnace varies, accordingly, from 78 to 287 gallons. In a month a furnace using natural air received 164,000 gallons of water, whereas with the dry blast it received only 28,000 gallons. A conservative statement, according to Prof. Chandler, is that the invention results in a 10 per cent saving in output and a 10 per cent saving in fuel. It has been estimated by a well-known research statistician that the metallurgical improvements in American steel, brought about within the last few years by modern metallurgical research, represent a saving of money which would amount to \$15,000,000, to the amount of approximately \$15,000,000, to the amount of the great manufacturing corporation alone.

The Government Ship Purchase Bill—II

The Fallacies of the Administration's Policy

By Senator Theodore E. Burton

DURING all the lengthy and strenuous period during which I have been privileged to be a member of the Senate, I ought recall my proposed legislation, which, having regard to its great importance and far-reaching consequences, was so hastily considered and ill-considered as the Ship Purchase Bill of the present Administration. The very first reading of the bill brings up a dozen questions to not one of which is a satisfactory answer given or even suggested.

First of all is this policy to be permanent or is it to be temporary? If it is to be temporary one set of reasons would apply. If it is to be permanent another line of policy should be adopted. I find that the statements of the sponsors of the bill on this phase of the subject are at variance. Thus, in an address at Boston, the chairman of the House Committee, Mr. Alexander, said: "The Government ownership bill is spoken of as an emergency measure. It should not be so called. European governments have in the past laid the foundations of their merchant marine by government protection." Yet on the previous day, Senator Fletcher bringing forward this bill in the United States Senate said: "Without going further into the details of this bill, I assure the Senate in the first place, and the country, that it is not a permanent business undertaking of the Government that is intended here." And yet again, the President in his message in December said: "It is not a question of the Government monopolizing the field. It should take action to make it certain that transportation at reasonable rates will be promptly afforded, even when the carriage is not at all profitable, and then, when the carriage has become sufficiently profitable to attract and engage private capital and engage it in abundance, the Government ought to withdraw." Now here we have two distinctly contradictory statements. Which are we to take as authoritative?

Is it to be an enterprise for profit or not for profit? Is it supposed that by running at a loss for a period, in some mysterious way the business would become profitable as implied in the President's message and that the Government would then be able and willing to turn it over to private hands? It is self-evident that such a supposition is without any foundation in reason. The side-effects of the Government operating merchant ships as well as the complete demoralization of the shipping industry, the destruction of such merchant marine as we still have, and a long postponement of the day of its revival. Furthermore, when the measure was first brought forward, it seemed that what was under consideration was trade development in South and Central America; new avenues of trade, "empty markets" to use the expression of the President, "were the objects in view." Now there is an entire change and the advocacy of the bill is based upon the necessity of sending freight to Europe.

Now what are the facts with regard to this South American trade? We find that ten boats leave every month on the average from New York for Rio de Janeiro on the east coast of South America. Before and since the war they have been running with a surplus of cargo space, sometimes being only half-filled. On the west coast of South America, notwithstanding the stimulus afforded by the opening of the Panama Canal, the Peruvian and Chilean Navigation Companies, which jointly ran boats weekly, have withdrawn the weekly service and made it fortnightly.

I am sorry to say that there are a great many people in the United States who do not seem to realize that we are in the midst of the most Titanic conflict between nations that the world has ever seen. We should have a deep realization of what it means. Certainly we should not at this time allow fondness for the enlargement of trade—a disposition with which I sympathize—to erase from our minds a realization of what this war means and of the duty of the American people. I want the American people to realize this fact: There is war, and this war has destroyed the routes of trade. It has destroyed many of the sources of transportation. It has distributed shipping facilities. It has introduced demoralization, partial demoralization, in almost every branch of commercial and industrial activity. We must not ignore that fact. Certainly we must not treat this question as if it was one to be decided at all times now as at peace.

What are the conditions of shipping now? It has been relieved by the United States Government. What is it that has caused the shortage of shipping and an increase in freight rates? It is the fact that German and Austrian submarines are sinking about 18 per cent of the tonnage of the world's shipping. But let us not forget the fact that Germany and Austria

shipping is withdrawn, so also are Germany and Austria cut off from the trade of the world. The Baltic Sea and the Black Sea are both practically closed to trade, and roughly approximating an estimate we may say that the trade of the world has decreased because of the war in just about a like proportion to the decrease of available shipping.

Another factor of great importance is the liability of boats to search and seizure. Still more important is the cost of war risk insurance. Another factor is the dangerous channels through which shipping may go, confronted as it is by the fearful menace of the high explosive mine; and yet another factor is the requisition, especially by Great Britain, of a good share of the shipping to be used for military purposes. Finally, and most desirable of all elements in the situation is the delay in foreign ports due to congestion.

Regarding this last condition, a man said a few days ago—and I am not sure but that he was pretty nearly right—the provision of more ships would add to the congestion, for they are all at present in each other's way in harbor. By way of illustration I mention the case of an American boat chartered to carry horses to a port in France, which had an additional cargo capacity of 8,000 tons dead weight. Upon the owner's learning that in the port to which they were going there had been a delay of 60 days in loading and unloading, he dispatched the ship without filling a foot of the space, rather than be subjected to the risk of delay and destruction. A few days ago 30 ships were waiting in vain at Genoa to be unloaded. There is similar congestion at Liverpool and London. It is evident that should the Government purchase \$40,000,000 worth of shipping to be used in the trans-Atlantic trade (and this as I have shown is the latest proposition of the Administration) these vessels must be subjected to all the disabilities incident to the present disturbed condition occasioned by the war, to which I have referred above.

But where is the Government going to obtain its ships? A leading shipping authority who has been quoted by the Secretary of the Treasury says that there are not more than ten ships available under neutral flag that would be suitable for the purpose, and he therefore advises the building of new ships. Very good, but we are told that it is a "present emergency" that is upon us. Nevertheless we all hope that this war will close in less time than ships could be built. Most of our shipyards are busy already and it would be 10 to 16 months before a boat of any considerable size suitable for trans-Atlantic trade, could be built in one of our shipyards. In the meantime we have those ten ships. What is the Government going to do with them? What better would the Government do with those ten ships than the private owners are now doing? Is the Government, which we must concede is sometimes very unwieldy, going to manage the shipping business better than the private owners?

Although Government ownership has not the terror for me that it has for many, it must be borne in mind that in the proposed bill it is partial Government ownership which is advocated, although there is nothing surely more disastrous than to have part Government and part private ownership. This is not a fair test of Government ownership and operation. Furthermore, the ships purchased with \$40,000,000 would be a mere bagatelle in the shipping of the world. Even if it were half the world's shipping, the country would be in about the same condition as the citizens are when there are two telephone lines in their city. We have all heard the statement, "You have one telephone line here. If you put in another you will have the benefit of competition." We are all familiar with the result; separate wiring in each building; separate conduits in each street, two telephones in each office; inconvenience all along the line, and finally either insufficient service, or the public has to pay the interest on both systems.

But what if this Government-private corporation scheme possesses itself of one-fourteenth or one-twentieth of the shipping of the world. What is to be its policy of operation? Will special ports be selected? If Galveston is chosen, will not Mobile and New Orleans complain? If a special product such as wheat or cotton is chosen as freight, every other class of produce will complain that the Government is giving a special advantage to this line of business. Suppose the Government carries at lower freight rates than private owners. What would be the result then? Simply that one-twentieth of the traffic of the country—certainly not more than one tenth—will be carried at a lower rate. What is the result? Does the great body of the American people get the benefit of his? No. It is the few who are benefited by those

rates. It is impossible for the Government or for anyone to go into this shipping business profitably and make a success of it. If the country is to go into Government ownership it is necessary that the United States should control the whole business. There is no middle ground.

I fear that there is no general recognition in Congress or outside of it of the fact that the shipping business is one of the most complicated and difficult of all industrial activities, and that it calls for long experience and a thorough acquaintance with the conditions on the part of those who wish to enter the field with any hope of successful competition. I recognize the disposition on the part of many of the American people to disparage expert knowledge. It is thought that inexperienced men may gather round the table and smoke cigars and make plans and devise organizations for the trade or industry just as well as those who have given their lives to it.

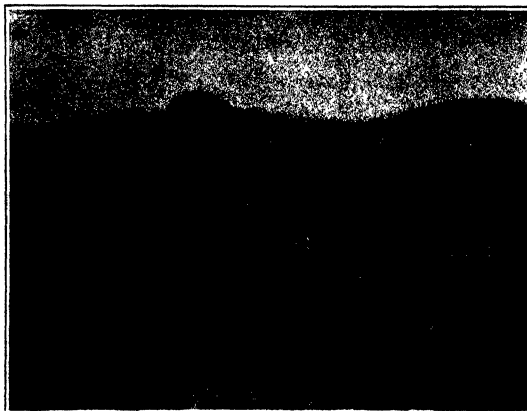
Now the shipping trade has been developing for centuries. It has adopted new routes of trade, new methods. There are certain necessities in regard to it.

There must be terminals for the loading and discharge of freight. It is not sufficient to have ships; there must be wharves and piers. Is the Government going to secure these also? There must be affiliation with shippers, is the Government going to secure such in a month or two months? There must be a familiarity with the routes of commerce. A most careful calculation must be made so that the ship will not only have an outgoing but a return cargo, that she shall have something to do the year around.

Then there is that serious question of the purchase of the ships of belligerent nations. The doctrine of the continent of Europe is that the transfer of a belligerent ship to neutral flag in time of war is void, and that if she sails with the neutral flag, she can be seized, taken into the prize courts and condemned. This continental doctrine was agreed upon by all the commercial nations, practically, in convention in London in 1909. With all these belligerents united in the idea that ships cannot be transferred under these circumstances, I want to state that we cannot afford to take the chance, particularly if it is borne in mind that the ship will not only have an outgoing but a return cargo, that she shall have something to do the year around. And just here it cannot be too strongly emphasized that this is not a private enterprise. Instead of buying the boats directly the Government is to organize a corporation, 51 per cent of the stock of which is to be paid directly from the Treasury, and if the remaining 49 per cent is not taken by private subscription then the Government takes that also. The Secretary of the Treasury and the Secretary of Commerce exercise certain supervision over this corporation with three others who constitute a shipping board. We have been informed that the President is to have control of this enterprise. But what I ask is, How is that policy consistent with private business of a private corporation? The fact of the matter is that this corporation is a mere mask. It is a Federal enterprise. Now a citizen can ship munitions of war to a belligerent and the Government is not compelled to intervene. If the citizen's boat is caught, he loses that which is contraband in his cargo, but the moment the Government of the United States does a thing of that kind, it is an act of hostility leading to the most serious complications. You cannot get out of that situation by passing a bill of this kind and going through the fiction of organizing a corporation of the District of Columbia.

It is simply preposterous to believe that a Government Board entering into this business without affiliation with the shippers, without wharves and docks, can utilize those boats and carry any more freight on them than the private citizen who has made it a business all his life. The scheme is foredoomed to failure by the very economic necessities of the case, and if it should be once set afloat and include the purchase of belligerent ships, the United States will be very fortunate indeed, if it does not find itself in a pitiable financial failure; it does not find itself with a serious international quarrel upon its hands. I should tremble with apprehension if this corporation should be organized, and the boats owned by it, under the direction of the Government, or as Secretary McAdoo has said, under the general direction of the President of the United States, should go out to sea and be seized by England or Germany on the ground that the cargo was contraband or that the ship had been transferred to our flag by a belligerent in time of war. I for one certainly do not want such a bone of contention, such a source of friction and quarrel brought into our international relations at this time, when everything is so tense.

(Continued on page 204.)



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In the advanced trenches at Vera Cruz.

At the end of the Civil War we had, North and South, about three million effectives who had seen actual military service. In other words, we had a splendid unorganized reserve, out of which first-class armies could have been made on short notice. We had a very strong navy, and immense reserves of guns and other munitions of war. All these men have gone. The guns are obsolete, and we are now, with greatly increased responsibilities, absolutely without reserves, and with a regular army and militia which are, in effect, only a handful of men.

False Estimates of Our Military Prowess.

We have never had war with a first-class power prepared for war, which we have fought unaided. During the Revolution, the English option concerning us was divided, and at a critical stage of the war we had the invaluable assistance of France. In the War of 1812 England was engaged in the death grapple with Napoleon, and the largest number of British regular troops in this country at any one time was about 16,800. In fact, from the military standpoint, we were a side issue. England's energy and effort were concentrated against Napoleon. While we had individual, brilliant, single-ship actions at sea, at the end of the war such ships of war as we had afloat were under blockade, our coastwise commerce practically destroyed, and our commerce on the high seas suspended. We were almost universally unsuccessful on land up to the Battle of New Orleans, where for the first time the British met a foe skilled in the use of the rifle and men many of whom had been under fire.

Moral of the Loss of the Capitol in 1812.

We put into this war 527,000 different men, we abandoned our capital to a force little more than one half that of the defenders, with a loss of eight killed and eleven wounded, and this at a time when nearly every American was familiar with arms and knew how to take care of himself in camp and field. It should also be noted that the force defending the capitol was made up largely of troops drawn from sections which had furnished some of the best troops of the continental

armies. The reason for failure and general defeat on land was because we trusted to untrained, raw levies, men utterly unprepared to meet well-trained troops. The nation was responsible, and showed that it had learned little from the experience of the past and that it was fairly entitled to the criticism of Light Horse Harry Lee, who said in effect, "That nation is a murderer of its people who sends them unprepared and untrained to meet in war men mechanized and disciplined by training."

We Were Unprepared and Untrained in 1812, and, Relatively, We Are Even Worse Prepared To-day.

The people of 1812 were unprepared and untrained. To-day, we are not only unprepared, but are absolutely ignorant of the use of arms; the population has a large percentage of newcomers, who are not deeply interested in our institutions; the possibility of war is many times greater than hitherto; and the nations whom we have to fear are always ready. We are, relatively speaking, less ready than ever before.

The days of small standing armies, of slow preparation, and of still slower transportation have passed. The possible enemies of to-day are fully prepared. They control almost unlimited transport, and once in possession of sea control can land when and where they wish, certain that no well-organized or thoroughly equipped force will be ready to oppose them. The weakness of our military establishment, our total lack of reserves, or trained men, or of adequate reserves of material, are known to the last detail by all our possible antagonists, some of whom have more thoroughly trained reservists in this country than we have immediately available mobile army and efficient militia combined. This is true of both seaboard and for the country as a whole.

What Australia and Switzerland Have Accomplished.

The solution of our difficulties will be found in the establishment throughout the country of a system of military instructions on the general lines of that which is in force in Switzerland or Australia. Switzerland, with a small population, is able to put 220,000 men in the field in two days and to follow it with nearly

300,000 more in a week, and she has accomplished this through the operation of a system which has cost her only a little over \$6,500,000 a year. The effect of this training has been generally beneficial both upon the



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A rough forward trench.

IV—The United States and the defended Treasure Land

The Lesson of the Teacher

[The peril of invasion, the necessity for being prepared to meet and repel it, the certainty of overwhelming national disaster and disgrace if we stay as we are, are immeasurably greater to-day than when Washington, Adams, and Jefferson urged upon the United States the necessity for maintaining armed forces for the protection of the country. In those days war gave ample notice of

its coming, and there were ample provisions to meet its sure. To-day war is hidden and the flash-bomb. For a nation which is prepared, a modern war is a bogus. Every soldier

in an emergency is a volunteer. The nation is totally unprepared before it is attacked in the

preceding, and in this the final chapter of this series, is based upon absolute facts, and he who tells this country that an effective army of defense can be raised between sun and sun is his country's worst enemy. The words of Washington are as true to-day as when they were spoken: "To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace."—EDITOR.]

at well-being and economic efficiency of the individual, and has increased their respect for law and order, as shown by the comparatively low criminal and the orderly character of the people.

The Reservist Would Patriotically Answer the Call to Arms.

There has been a great deal of opposition to a reserve in this country on the ground that we shall be unable to keep track of the men. People seem to think that the American reservist is going to be a type of shirk, who will be skulking and hiding when needed for military service. Of course, if this is true, the country will be largely defenseless in time of war; but it is not true. We shall have no more difficulty than other nations have. Their reservists have gone back to the great war by tens of thousands, and done so voluntarily, as they were quite outside the reach of their country's authority.

A system of general instructions in the schools, such as is in force in Australia and Switzerland, will result in an increased sense of responsibility on the part of the individual toward the State and the gradual doing away with the idea that, while we all pay the routine taxes of every-day life, we are not under any obligation to pay the tax on which all others depend, namely, the tax represented by service in war. All history indicates clearly that when the citizens of a nation fail to recognize and pay this tax, the life of the nation is run.

The Immediate Military Requirements for the Defense of the Country.

To sum up briefly what we need: First, are the new organizations for the regular army as shown in the table of organization of the land forces prepared by the general staff, the necessary field artillery guns and ammunition and other reserve equipment. Second, an adequate reserve behind the regular army. Third, the artillery and cavalry organizations, field artillery guns, ammunition and reserve supplies for the militia and the reserve of men in a word a properly balanced militia, with its reserve of men and material. Fourth, a great number of men trained to be officers of volunteers. Fifth, a gradual building up of trained enlisted personnel for volunteer organizations, at least sufficient to supply the coast guard troops above referred to and the additional troops needed to bring the combined reg-

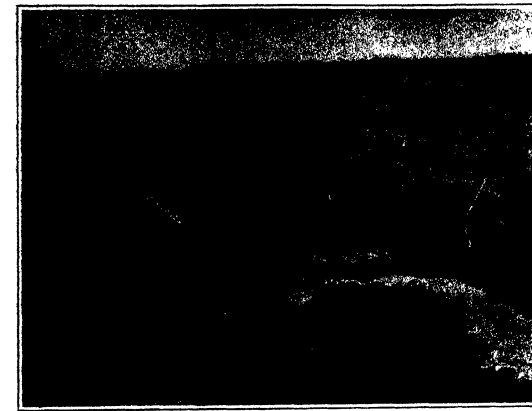


Photo by International News Service

Entrenched troops repelling an attack.

ular army and militia when at war strength up to a force of at least 500,000.

Modern Wars Are Brief, and We Cannot Prepare for War When War Is On.

Unless we take to heart the lesson so clearly indicated by the experience of others and prepare in time of peace all this will have to be done, when war comes, in the hurry and confusion of war, and it will be accomplished at a frightful cost of life and treasure and with great attendant humiliation, for this country is not prepared and cannot defend itself successfully against any well-organized force of reasonable strength, landing on its shores, without such loss and delay as would be gravely disastrous. Such a force will take and hold until we can organize and build up a sufficient military establishment to drive it out of any area it chooses to occupy. Idle talk and boasting will have no effect upon its operations.

We should strive to establish throughout the Republic a universal system of military instructions through the public schools on the general lines now in force in Australia or Switzerland. Such a system will be in every way beneficial. It will make the American youth a better citizen physically, morally, and from a patriotic standpoint. It will also greatly increase his economic efficiency through the habits of regularity and promptness, which characterize military training. He will learn to respect the laws, the constituted authorities and the flag of his country. The system of reserves can be maintained very economically and, once established, both militia and regular army can be kept, in time of peace, at the lowest strength consistent with the needs of the hour, because they can be promptly filled up. We can maintain ten reservists for the regular establishment for the cost of one man on the active list. This proportion may not hold good for the militia, but still the militia reservist will be much cheaper to the State than the man who is on the active list of the militia.

The Utterly Vicious Bounty System.

We must never again depend upon the bounty system.

(Continued on page 204.)



Photo by Bert Williams

A CAVALRY BRIGADE IN CAMP

An Electric Shriek to Warn Mariners

By Our Paris Correspondent

A NEW apparatus which is likely to be of great service in signaling between vessels at sea is the bifilar air siren, it being operated by an electric motor, while the sounds are produced in the shape of Morse signals by an electromagnet device. It will serve mainly for making connection between warships or even submarines when in more or less compact groups, and will be valuable for transmitting orders, for it can be distinctly heard at a distance of at least 1½ miles. More reliable than optical signals, for it works in all weathers, it is considered as more practical than wireless telegraphy for this class of short distance operating. The French navy is interested in the matter, and is now engaged upon official trials with a view of adopting it upon battleships. Placed on the top of the mast, the sounds will carry at sea under the best conditions.

Referring to the general view of the apparatus, and also to the section, the siren is designed to produce sounds on the usual principle of an air or steam siren in which the air is propelled through a rotating disk or cylinder working against a fixed one, both containing sets of openings, so that by means of the fixed and movable holes, the air comes out in intermittent jets or impulses, and as the movement is very rapid, owing to the high speed of the revolving piece, such impulses go to form an audible note such as is heard, for instance, on an automobile siren. By varying the speed of the revolving part, low or high notes can be emitted. The bifilar device uses the same principle, but is designed to secure a very powerful sound which will carry for 1½ miles or more. At the top of the device will be seen the portion which carries a set of holes for the passage of the air, and within it rotates a corresponding perforated cylinder so that the air leaves in the sets of holes in fixed and revolving parts, on the siren principle. What is now described is to obtain a powerful current of air, such as is needed to produce a very loud sound. This is done by the use of three separate rotors blowers which lie in the three flat chambers seen just below the siren proper and act on the three-stage principle to produce a powerful current. Below these chambers is a set of holes for admitting air. The bottom square part of the device contains an electric motor of upright kind, and the shaft of the motor runs clear up to the top of the apparatus, carrying the three air blowers as well as the rotating cylinder of the siren proper. These siren and blowers are all rotated by the same motor.

An ingenious principle is employed here in order to produce a very strong air current for the siren, and, as will be seen in the section, each blower or flat blast fan works inside its chamber in such a way as to take in air at the middle next the shaft and to drive it to the edge by the use of sets of blades as in the usual blast fans, so that the air leaves the edge of the fan at a high rate of speed. The blades are so designed that this speed is higher than that of the rotating blower itself. But above the blower and inside the chamber is mounted a set of fixed blades or wings, so that the air passes up from the edge of the blower and through the fixed wings before it reaches the center space next the shaft. By this means the speed of the air is transformed to pressure. Then the air enters the second blower, and so on to the top, so that when entering the siren the air has a high pressure due to these combined effects. Speed of the motor is 5,000 revolutions per minute. It remains to be able to form the Morse signals by cutting off the air when needed. Between cylinder and outside part is a rotating sleeve which takes

the form of a cylinder with holes corresponding to the foregoing. It works to and fro, and serves as a shutter to stop off the air or allow it to pass. Moving the shutter so that its holes correspond with the outside holes, the air can escape, but when the solid parts come opposite, the holes are closed off. At the top is a magnet device for working the shutter so as to operate it by a Morse key. Were the shutter coupled momentarily to the rotating key, it would be drawn forward by friction to the limit of its stroke, then releasing it would allow a spring to bring back the shutter to the off position. This coupling is done by the use of a rod with a small cork washer, which serves as a "clutch" in order to couple the shutter to the rotating cylinder when the rod is lowered, so that the washer touches the inside of the

commodations of a hotel, and the car is a most uniquely equipped "sleeping" quarters. It is a compact chassis fitted with a special body designed for the personal supervision of the owner. It is built in such a way as to be of space saved, and with the necessary camping supplies and passengers the number is not crowded.

On the top the extra floor is covered by heavy canvas. There is a compartment for the extra baggage which clothing is hung, as in a closet, and the extra gear is stored. The bedding is carried in neat, separate bags. The seats make down into a full-size berth, and there are compartments just above the seat next where guns, fishing tackle, and other equipment are stored, with pillows and cushions packed in canvas bags. Under the seats four steel rods and one side-rod of canvas are carried. These rods fit into concealed sockets on the side of the car and two sleeping hammocks are swung on outriggers. The side outriggers are of extra length, and these buckle down over the guy straps, providing a good shelter.

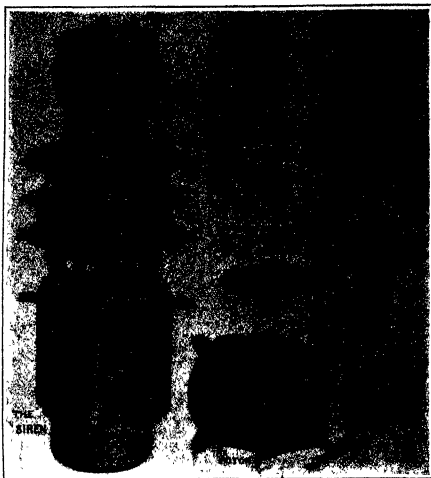
Several plates, rather heavy, are strapped on the right running board, which are convertible into a table on the rear of the car or into a bed, as the occasion requires. There is also a frame which is anchored into the ground with drive pins, and on this it is but a matter of a few minutes to make a comfortable double bed.

With the two side beds, or hammocks, the double bed on the running board, and room for three in the berth inside the car, seven persons are provided with comfortable sleeping quarters. It requires but a very few minutes to transform the car of the road into a complete camp for the night.

The car is electric-lighted throughout. In every place conceivable there are small compartments for various necessary articles, and the curtains, besides being utilized for covering the hammocks at night, offer protection from rain, wind, or extreme hot weather while traveling.

The Current Supplement

IN the current SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN Supplement, No. 2545, for February 19th, 1915, an article on Roman Technics and Industry in Early Germany describes a condition of affairs similar to those claimed to exist at the present time between Germany and her neighbors, and suggests the origin of many of Germany's industries. *Chemical Systems and Their Functions in the Development of Organism* deals with important questions of natural functions influencing natural selection. A *Physiological Puzzle* discusses curious cases of hypnosis and cataplexy in insects, animals, etc., and is of intense interest to all engaged in biological study. The spinning of a Web describes, step by step, the actual construction of a spider web, showing the wonderful engineering instincts of the insect. A beautiful series of illustrations accompany the article. *Standardizing the Art of Voice Production* deals with the fundamental principles, and the recommendations of the recent New York State Vocal Congress. The *Chemistry of the Incandescent Gas Mantle* tells of the principles and the processes in the making of this familiar light. The *Artificial Production of Pearls* tells how the Orientals induce the oyster to work according to their wishes. *Color Photography* reviews the history of this branch of photographic art, and describes modern methods. The article on treating gas from furnaces is concluded, and there is a good practical description of how to make a complete Oxy-Acetylene Welding Outfit. There is a page of notes of new and valuable books recently published, together with a number of short, but interesting notes.



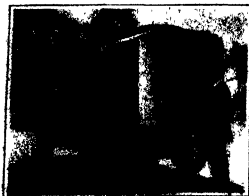
Electric siren for marine use.

shutter and the flat top of the cylinder at the same time. This rod is worked by the magnet, so that the usual operator's key can produce Morse signals from the siren. Official tests were made with the apparatus before a technical commission from the French navy, and it was found that even under unfavorable conditions of wind and position of the siren, the signals could be taken down anywhere within a radius of 1½ miles using low, middle, and high notes. After using it on land, further tests were made at sea, with equally good results.

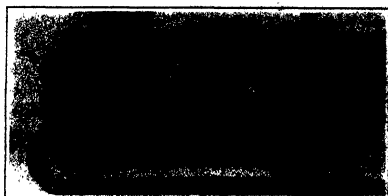
Equipping the Automobile for Travel

By Charles Alma Byers

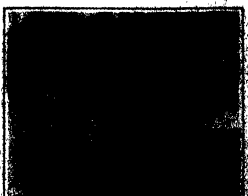
THERE have been many suggestions made for equipping the automobile for extensive travel, but probably one of the neatest, most complete, and most practical arrangements ever devised for such purpose is shown in the accompanying photographs. This is truly a touring car *de luxe*, and more than that, it has been put to a thorough test, having recently completed a trip of approximately 1,000 miles, extending from Denver to Los Angeles. It made this trip over what is known as the Santa Fe-Grand Canyon-Needles route, carrying a total of seven passengers. Fifteen days were required for the trip, stops having been made at various points along the scenic route, and at no time were the ac-



Cabinet compartments for food and suit cases.



Appearance of the car when ready for the road.



One of the side compartments.



Bringing in the victim, the team equipped with oxygen helmets.



Giving artificial respiration for two minutes was one of the requirements.

Mine rescue contests at the University of Washington.

Mine Rescue Contests

IN the State of Washington a team of miners equipped with oxygen helmets represents the town in the State-wide contests that have of late years become an annual affair. The last First Aid and Mine Rescue Contest was staged on the campus of the University of Washington, Seattle, and prizes were given to the winning teams.

A large dummy mine shaft was built before the convention and the various teams brought their own equipment for the contests. Six events were held on each of two days. In the team events, each town or mine was represented by six men: a captain, four men to do the actual work, and a man to represent the victim, who was obliged to submit to bandaging and artificial respiration for two minutes. Arms, legs, back, and face were bound up after the "rescue" while the pumpator was being applied, and the team that fulfilled the requirements in the shortest time won the event.

An exhibition was given to show how a rescue team would work under special circumstances. A man was slid into the dummy shaft and rescued, the team pretending that he had gone in too soon after a shot and had been overcome by fumes from the exploded powder. Another event was the rescue of the man during a shaft fire. Before the team could leave in good order it was necessary to seal up the burning shaft. The United States Bureau of Mines supervised the contests.

these stay in front of the class all of the time, and credit is given the source as each is taken down and used.

Lantern slides have been made of Nos. 3 and 4, and these two form the basis of a 45-minute lecture to each of four classes each semester—a summary of previous discussion—a final preparation for the visit to the gas plant.

Constructing Selenium Cells

WE have already given a few practical hints about preparing a base for selenium cells from slate or other material, and would now say a word about how to wind the base with platinum wire. Constructors who make a business of producing selenium cells will not employ any other metal than platinum, as other metals are said to be affected by the contact with selenium. This will, of course, alter the electric resistance and make the cell variable with time and generally bad, while with platinum no such effect is seen, as is besides attested by the brightness of the platinum, while copper when removed from contact with selenium, is seen to have a black surface. In procuring platinum wire, care should be taken that it is reeled off upon a spool, and not wound off as one would naturally do by hand, for this results in twisting the wire at each turn, and it

thus has weak places which are almost sure to break afterward, to the great detriment of the work. The same holds good in winding it off from one spool to another by the amateur. A good method of handling is to use a common spool and screw it down to the table, then by loosening or tightening the screw it can be wound or unwound, for instance, bending the surface, which should be done by chemical skin wet with alcohol to remove grease, then flaming the wire in a Bunsen burner. This is a useful precaution to be sure that all impurities are removed. Subsequent handling of the wire should be done by paper to avoid touching with the fingers.

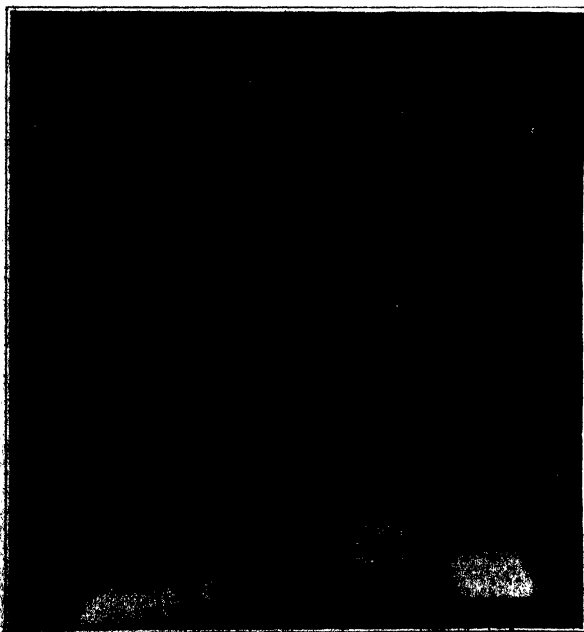
The wire is fastened to the base by wrapping it around a few times through one of the two small holes that are drilled in each end of the slate base, then with about a yard of wire off the spool, the cell is turned about in the hands so as to do the wrapping in the grooves, always keeping the wire taut as one approaches the spool; then by unscrewing another yard of wire can be released. When the cell is full, the end of the wire is fastened by wrapping in the hole at that end of the slate. Naturally every other groove is left free, so as to wrap on the second or parallel layer of wire in the same way. By proceeding in this way the wire is never twisted, and breakage of the platinum is avoided as much as possible. Before coating with selenium, the cell should be kept in a glass box and quite free from dust.

How to Use the Scientific American

A TEACHER of chemistry in a Minneapolis high school has found good use for the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN in her classes. The accompanying photograph of the front of her recitation room shows how she preserves and uses "some of the great amount of helpful material the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN gives for high school work in chemistry."

The exhibits above the blackboard are, from left to right:

1. Dr. Wiley.
2. Chart showing derivation of the chief chemicals and manufactured products from the raw materials.
3. Water gas. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)
4. Coal gas. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)
5. Drawing the charge. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)
6. The model of "working low speed" in making coal gas.
7. The separator. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)
8. Water gas. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)
9. Coal gas. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)
10. Drawing the charge. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)
11. The separator. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)
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201. Coal gas. (From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.)



How the "Scientific American" is used in a high school chemistry recitation room.

Capt. Brusilov's Arctic Expedition, which left Petrograd in July, 1912, and endeavored to effect the Northeast Passage to the Pacific, is lost somewhere in the Arctic Ocean and may be drifting westward north of Franz Josef Land or Spitzbergen. The ship was caught in the ice in the Kara Sea in August, 1912, and drifted for a year and a half in a generally northerly direction. On April 27th, 1914, when the vessel was at about 83 deg. N and 90 deg. E, the mate and thirteen sailors left her, and two of them were found in Franz Josef Land by the Sleds expedition, with which they returned to Russia last autumn. Nothing further has been heard of Brusilov and the part of the expedition which remained on the ship, the "Saint Anna." Meanwhile, before news of the above events reached Europe a relief expedition under Capt. Sverdrup, on the "Egloff," had been dispatched in search of the missing explorers, and followed their intended route to the eastward. At present this expedition is reported to be in winter quarters on the Taimyr Peninsula; i. e. in a region somewhat remote from the probable location of the Brusilov party if still alive.

Portable Stump Boring Machine

IN the States of Michigan and Wisconsin, and also in several Southern States and on the Pacific Coast, there are large areas of undeveloped land, which at one time was covered by heavy forest growth, and which, after being "cut over" by the lumbermen, was abandoned as worthless, and eventually taken over by the State governments because of non-payment of taxes. Occasionally a small tract of such land is taken up by some energetic foreigner who, by extreme patience and much labor, manages to clear a small acreage. The land when once cleared is highly productive. In fact, some of the most fertile land in the United States is contained in the stump-ridden sections of the great lumber States.

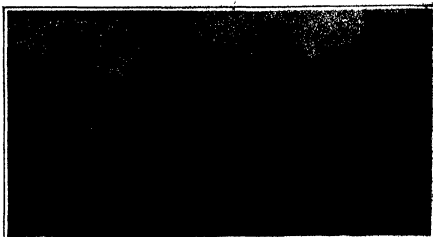
Recently a machine has been devised for removing the tree stumps. This machine consists of a $1\frac{1}{2}$ horse-power gasoline engine mounted on two wheels fitted with a light frame. A countershaft is mounted on one end of this frame, and is operated by a belt from the engine. To the end of the countershaft is attached a universal joint, connected to a $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch shaft, 1 foot long, and key-seated on two sides within 6 inches of the end. This shaft slides in a hollow tube, $\frac{3}{8}$ inch inside diameter, and the tube and shaft are located by means of two keys which are fitted in the end of the hollow tube, and held in position by sleeves which screw to the tube.

An auger is fastened by a chuck to the hollow shaft, and is 2 inches in diameter, with a 3-inch shank, and 36-inch barrel. The shaft is fitted with a cross handle located about 18 inches from the auger, but which can be shifted to any desired position on the shaft. The purpose of this machine is to bore stumps, for burning, and the auger, when boring into sound wood, feeds itself, the operator having merely to steady it with the handles. After the hole is bored, the auger can easily be withdrawn while the engine is running. Under bad conditions, such as hollow and unsound stumps, the auger will sometimes need crowding by pressing the handles.

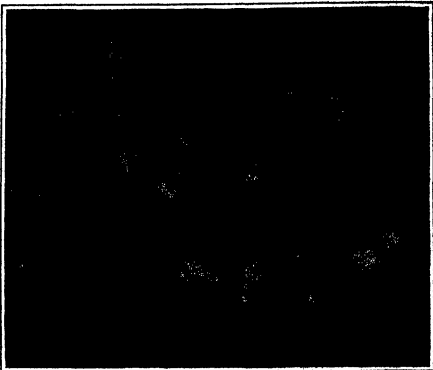
In order that the machine may be operated by one man, a hole is drilled in one end of the handle for a $\frac{5}{16}$ -inch sharpened pin to slip in and the bar is swung into position and the pin inserted in the ground to support the auger while the operator starts the engine. He then lifts the boring pin and applies it in any desired position to a 45-degree angle, and bores the hole.

The method of procedure is to dig a hole approximately 14 inches deep along the top root of the stump with an ordinary spade. When the stump is pitted the machine is wheeled into position on the opposite side and the auger applied to the top root as close to the ground as possible. Its course through the stump is downward at an angle of 45 degrees, and it emerges at the bottom of the pit. It is then withdrawn and shavings are placed in the pit surrounding the auger hole and set on fire. The fire created by the auger hole ascending from the pit at an angle of 45 degrees, draws the flame through the hole and thus fired, it burns outward and inward until the stump is entirely consumed.

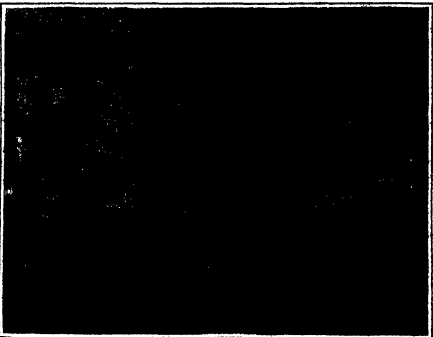
In a recent test two men operated the machine, and only one gallon of gasoline was required to bore one hundred stumps. The machine weighs 350 pounds, and can be transported on a one-horse wagon or wheeled by hand by the two operators from stump to stump on any desired area.



Boring a stump with a portable machine preparatory to burning it.



A giant that will type news bulletins at the Panama-Pacific Exposition.



Artificial spider web as a lawn decoration.



A Barnes city built on piles.

A City on Piles

ONE of the strangest cities in the world is Brunel, capital of the State of the same name in Buenos Aires. It has Venice completely outdone, for not only are its streets waterways, but the entire city is built over the water. The city is located on the river Estancia, its houses being constructed on slender piles made from the Nilong palm, a wood that resists

the action of water for many years.

The inhabitants of Brunel, the Malaya, Malayan, Chinese, and a few Europeans, support their living mostly by trading with other tribes in the interior of Malaya and Sumatra. From these, some of their heavy artificial beads, neckers, and brooms are made. They also trade in cloth, silverware, and commodities with gold thread. Rice is grown in the valleys nearby, and a small quantity of rice is also raised there. In the early part of the nineteenth century Brunel was the headquarters of the famous Burmah trade, and a market for the slave trade.

The Largest Typewriter in the World

ONE of the exhibits at the Panama-Pacific Exposition which can hardly escape observation, is a typewriter of gigantic proportions. Less their product be overlooked among the myriads of typewriters that are to be put on exhibition, an enterprising company has had a machine built 1,728 times larger than a standard typewriter. It is not merely a colossal image, but a working model that actually writes; and during the Exposition it will type news bulletins on a sheet of paper 9 feet wide, in letters 5 inches high and 2 inches apart. The monster machine will be operated by electrical connection with a typewriter of standard dimensions. For instance, on depressing a key of the small machine the corresponding key of the large machine will respond. A lever is used for the return of the carriage and for line spacing or rotating the cylinder. The big machine weighs 14 tons as against 80 pounds, which is the weight of a standard machine. It is 21 feet wide, in section, by 15 feet high, and requires for its operation a room measuring 25 by 30 by 25 feet. The plates, 9 feet 6 inches long by 21 inches in diameter, weigh 1,200 pounds, and the carriage 3,500 pounds. Each key cup, which is the part of a typewriter that is pressed by the fingers, is 7 inches in diameter, while each type bar is 32 inches long and weighs as much as a standard typewriter. This mammoth typewriter has been under construction for about two years and cost \$100,000.

The Largest Spider Web in the World

By Robert H. Moulton

THE largest spider web in the world was spun, not by a spider, but by human hands. It stands on the lawn of a Chicago man's country home, and is of such tremendous size as to startle the passer by when he first sees it.

The creator of this interesting oddity conceived the idea of attempting to see how closely an actual spider's web could be reproduced with rope. Selecting two immense trees on the lawn of his home, he span between them this spider's web, forty by sixty feet, which is so strong that a boy or man may easily climb to the center or top of it.

The web faces the main thoroughfare, which passes the house, and is one of the most fascinating country ground decorations ever seen. The spinner could not attain the minuteness of the actual spider's work, but came so near to it that the illusion is almost perfect. The uniqueness of the undertaking catches and fascinates every eye.

Watch With One Hand.—While watches without hands, or with but a single hand, are by no means new, an ingenious watch of the latter class, of French make, is noteworthy. On a semicircle at the top of the dial plate is a scale graduated to indicate minutes. The lower part of the watch face has a raised plate, and projecting from under it is a wide pointer which passes along the scale of minutes, so as to point to the minute figure. Near the end of the pointer is a large figure indicating the hour, 6 for instance. When the pointer reaches 60 on the minute scale it disappears under the plate and a new member of the series at the zero side of the scale.

Achoo!—and he sets free millions of germs

WHAT of your own throat, when a person with an infected throat suddenly sneezes beside you? Is it protected? Or must you inhale the germs that your fellow men send flying and take a chance that your system will be able to repel them?

In every crowded place, you know, you are always exposed to just such dangers of infection—not only to sore throat, but to even more dangerous ailments. And that is why over 10,000 physicians advocate the use of Formamin—the germ killing throat tablet.

Dissolving in the mouth with a pleasing and refreshing taste, Formamin releases a germicide that flows with the saliva into every tiny crevice of the throat—destroying the germs, blocking their entrance into the system, and soothing away the irritation.

And coming in such a handy form, Formamin makes it easy for you to give your throat this needful protection—as well as to get prompt relief when the irritation has already set in. But we experience of the gratifying relief that Formamin brings will more than convince you. At all drug stores.

A. WILKING & CO.,
27-M Irving Place, New York
Affiliated with the Besser Chemical Co.,
Makers of Formamin—The Fast Tonic

From an article in "The Medical Review of Brooklyn," (New York Times), 1911.

"I have found Formamin to be an excellent antiseptic and bactericide, harmless in its action, and extremely pleasant to take, capable of relieving painful local eruptions on the lips and throat, and of maintaining the function of the vocal cords in the case of the singer."

Dr. Wm. Lee Howard, the well known medical author writes: "It is not too tedious to state that in Formamin I have found a remedy that is invaluable in keeping the mouth and throat free from germ infection."



THE GERM-KILLING THROAT TABLET

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eliminated
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6c for 10 Hours

With ordinary cheap power develop 1 horse power. Through simple engine made. Starts either way, reversible while running. Starts without cranking. No oil. No oil. No oil. Starts giving 1000 horsepower in 10 hours.



Soldering and Brazing

for nearly all metals, including such difficult ones as cast iron and aluminum, have been the subjects of hundreds of paragraphs in the Scientific American Supplement. We quote a few of the more important articles, as follows:

Scientific American Supplement No. 1673—Full instructions for Soldering and Welding Cast Iron, give both the best and the latest methods.

Scientific American Supplement No. 1713—Soldering Cast Iron and Other Metals, gives detailed instructions for the whole operation, and formulas.

Scientific American Supplement No. 1644—Soldering and Brazing Processes, gives broad general information, and contains in particular a method for galvanizing solders and alloys of great use.

Scientific American Supplement No. 1687—Soldering and Brazing Processes, describes the blow pipe and the furnace in their various forms.

Scientific American Supplement No. 1481—Soldering of Metals and Preparation of Solder, gives many formulas for soft and hard solders.

Scientific American Supplement No. 1610—Soldering and Brazing Processes, gives full instructions for the use of the blow pipe and the furnace in their various forms.

FOR 80 cents—the price of the eight numbers, the purchaser of these Supplements has a complete treatise on the subject of Soldering and Brazing, containing the results of the greatest value.

EACH number of the Scientific American or the Supplement costs 10 cents. A set of papers containing all the articles here mentioned will be mailed for 80 cents. Send for a copy of the 1910 Supplement Catalogue free to any address. Order from your newsdealer or the publishers.

JOHN & COMPANY, Inc., 361 Broadway, New York City

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This is what we mean by Goodyear Fortified Tires. In five ways—each exclusive to Goodyears—they are fortified against a major trouble.

These Five Ways

1. Our no-rim-cut feature fortifies against rim-cutting in the best way known.
2. Our "On-Air" cure—used by us alone—ends a major cause of blowouts. It costs us \$450,000 yearly.
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4. Six bands of 126 braided wires in each tire base hold tires firmly to the rims.
5. Our All-Weather tread—tough and double-thick, sharp and resistless—offers ideal protection against punctures and skidding.

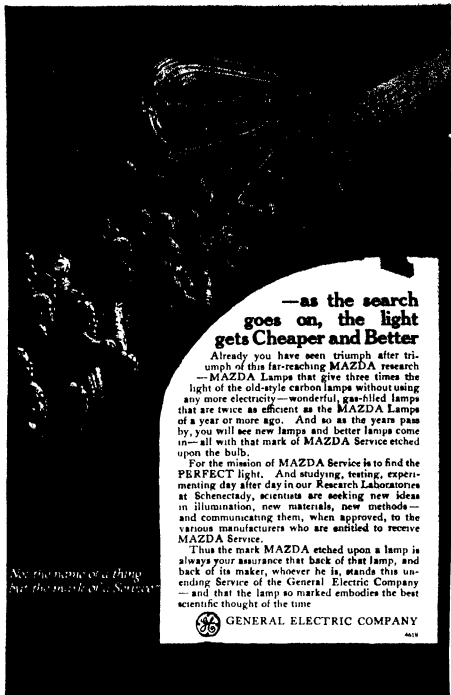
Remember, these are all exclusive Goodyear features. No other tire offers these defenses. And each contributes vastly to the staunchness of a tire.

Together they have made this the dominant tire of the world. It outsells any other. Last year we sold about one tire for every car in use.

Won't you try the tire which so excels all others, yet costs no extra price? Any dealer will supply you.

THE GOODYEAR TIRE & RUBBER COMPANY
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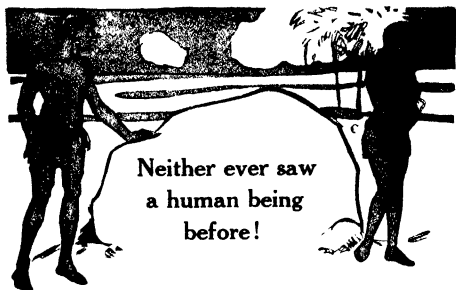
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Neither ever saw
a human being
before!

A boy of three is cast on a desert island—all that's left of a ship's company. On the opposite side of the island a baby girl is cast up. Both grow up—neither knows of the other. How they survive—how they meet—what they think—throws a light on how our prehistoric ancestors may have lived—a vivid picture of instinct and need for love. The title of the story is "Benardine." and it is one of many stories—stories that writers like Rex Beach, Booth Tarkington, Robert W. Chambers and others say are some of the best stories ever written by an American author. To-day the writer of these stories is old, broken and penniless.

You can help the genius who wrote these stories to come into his own and you can get a new set of his books FREE

FOR years he had been a sailor before the mast, and then when he was 36 years old, came the impulse to write. He never had an education in the regular sense, but he had to write. He had with him no strong an impulse that he was forced to write.

He wrote his first story on the wash-tub of a dreary little room while his wife watched him with discouraged eyes. It was written on the back of circulars which he was to distribute at \$1.00 a day.

At once he was famous. His stories began to appear everywhere. He wrote the greatest sea stories that ever have been put on paper—laughing, stirring, tragic—glorious—many—stories of sailing vessels—square-riggers in the old days—in the American coastwise service and in strange ports—stories of the steam monsters and stories—human—unique—in of the long steel beasts of the deep—the dreadnought that crumbles before the slim and deadly torpedo. Stories of mutiny—of good fights—of rescue—of shipwreck—

stories of brutality—of crimes and shanghaies—stories of courage and wild daring—stories wild as the hurricanes and stories laughing as the sea and at peace.

But stories of the sea and battle are not all that he wrote. His fancies play about all conditions of life. He had his love stories. The story of the man whose sweetheart is led astray, who had every feature of his face changed by a scurvy, then shanghaied her betrayer as a sailor on a ship and got a slow and terrible revenge. And there are stories of love and of sweet and tender women. And there is a beautiful and pathetic story, "The Closing of the Circuit," of a boy born blind, whose father brought him up so he thought all the rest of the world blind also. How he learned otherwise, makes a dramatic tale full of tender charm.

Yet today—Morgan Robertson is old and poor—for his stories appeared in the days before magazines paid big prices to authors—and though he got much fame he got very little money. And fame is a poor substitute for bedstead!

TWO BIG MAGAZINES—Metropolitan and McClure's

have joined forces to give this writer the reward and recognition due him

WHAT THEY SAY OF HIS STORIES

Indeed, my dear Sir, you are a first rate seaman—one can see that with half an eye.

JOSEPH CONRAD

His stories are bulky, his sea is foamy and his men have half on their chests.

BOOTH TARKINGTON

If you do not tell us soon what happens to Captain Bligh, I will tell us for you.

RICHARD HADING DAVIS

Morgan Robertson has written some of the best sea stories of our generation.

GEORGE HENRY LAMMER (Editor Saturday Evening Post)

What surprises me so is how the author gets under the whole of the characters and knows how they feel.

ADMIRAL "HOE" EVANS

HERE IS OUR OFFER

We will send you a handsome autographed set of Morgan Robertson's best works in 4 volumes without charge—we will pay for them—we will pay the cost of getting them to you, and we will pay a royalty to Mr. Robertson—we will pay for one year's subscription to Metropolitan and McClure's at the same price you would pay if you bought them from your news-dealer every month, and in little installments. Send only 10c. now. You will receive at once the set of books and the first copies of Metropolitan and McClure's. You then send us 50c. a month for seven months. And that's all.

If you prefer to pay all at once send only \$3.25 with order or \$5.00 for beautiful full leather binding. (Personal checks accepted.) (Canadian and foreign postage extra. Magazines may be sent to different addresses if directed at present a subscriber to either magazine your subscription will be extended.)

The very ocean ought to rise up and howl at Morgan Robertson for his faithful portraiture of itself and its people. RUPERT DUGHES

The trait of the sea serpent is over them all. WILLIAM DEAN HOWELLS

It will give me great satisfaction to offer you my subscription. ROBERT W. CHAMBERS

The ablest writer of sea stories in this country, and sincerely hope that your venture will help him to gain the recognition of his work which is richly his. REX BEACH

The made and thrill of the sea that bring back to us the day-dreams of boyhood. FINLEY PETER DUNN, (Mr. Dooley)

I know of no American writer more entitled to preservation in volumes. His whole life vibrates with experience and drama. ROBERT H. DAVIS, of Munsey's.

moreover, the records, which it would be impossible to replace, are in great danger of destruction by fire. Another place where this lack of room and facilities is badly felt is in the library, which consists of an invaluable collection of 75,000 scientific books and 2,000,000 foreign patents, and which is indispensable not only to those connected with the department, but is also used extensively by many others. These conditions are such that much of the valuable material is not available for use, and the entire collection, like the records, is constantly menaced by fire. To say the least, conditions in the Patent Office are by no means creditable to Congress.

A summing up of the work in the office shows that there was a considerably smaller number of applications awaiting official action on January 1st, 1915, than at the same date of the preceding year, and although the decrease was almost entirely in applications that had been acted on ones, still this indicated an improvement. A change in office practice that has been made is in handling interferences. Hitherto each of the forty-three examiners has declared interferences, each according to his own judgment, and this has led to great discrepancies. Since December, 1913, one of the primary examiners has consulted with the supervising examiner whether an interference should be declared, and far greater uniformity in practice has been secured. One result of this system is that since it was established, of the total number of proposed interferences reported to him in a motion for dissolution have been rejected, and in 10 per cent of the cases the issues were modified, and this in spite of the fact that 33 per cent more applications were passed in 1911 than during the previous year. Another commendable feature of the new practice is that in case of a motion for dissolution the law examiner who instituted the interference does not hear the motion, which was contrary to the previous methods, where the same examiner who declared the interference heard all motions in relation to the dissolution of his action. There are other directions where the knowledge of the law examiners would prove of decided advantage, both to the department and to applicants, and it is recommended that at least three additional law examiners be appointed—a recommendation that Congress will probably ignore.

An increase in the Board of Examiners is chief is also desirable, as not only is the present business greater than they can properly attend to, but in cases of appeals the absence of one member frequently leaves a divided board, and the absence of two suspends the work of the board.

The number of set aside patents and patents for designs is steadily increasing, and here, as in other divisions, assistance is needed.

Among a number of suggestions for changes in the law is one to require the clerks of the Federal courts to file a copy of every decree granting or refusing an injunction in a suit for infringement of a patent and every final decree affecting the validity of a patent.

If such copies were filed it would enable any one to determine the litigation in which this patent had been involved—a thing which is now practically impossible, since neither of the decisions of the lower courts are now published.

Another suggestion is in regard to protecting designs. The problems of a court in passing upon the validity and infringement of design patents are so simple, generally speaking, as not to require the assistance of expert opinion. Little or nothing, therefore, is gained by examination prior to the granting of a patent. It is recommended that protection of designs be put upon a registration basis and the fees be greatly reduced.

Great delay often occurs from the omission of the signature of a witness in the drawing, frequently necessitating the filing of substitute papers, and involving the office and the applicant in much additional work; and as such witnesses are of no practical value or importance it is recommended to change the law to omit the requirement of witnesses to signatures; and to include an acknowledgment of the signature of the specification in the oath.



"A Man Would Die in the First Alcove"

"There are 850,000 volumes in the Imperial Library at Paris," said Emerson. "If a man were to read industriously from dawn to dark for sixty years he would die in the first alcove."

And he would not die a well-read man.

But if a man could know how few great books are enduringly worth while and could read those few—histories, biographies, dramas, works of travel, fiction, poetry, philosophy, and religion—he would become well read even though he could devote to them but a few pleasure moments a day.

Expert Advice on Your Reading—Free

For years Dr. Charles W. Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard, has maintained that the books really essential to the Twentieth Century idea of a cultivated man could be contained in a Five-Foot Shelf, and from his sixty years of reading, study, and teaching—forty of which were spent as President of Harvard University—he has put aside those few books that he considers most worth while—the few that best picture the progress of the human race from the earliest times down to the present day, through the writings of those who have made our civilization what it is.

\$50,000 was spent in compiling and indexing the set, arranging foot notes, and Reading Guide, and the result was finally presented at a cost of \$150,000 as

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More than 4500 owners will now tell you of the wonders of The Eight-Cylinder Cadillac

At long intervals there appears a product, about which the whole truth cannot at once be told.

If *all* of its new and wonderful qualities were set forth, before the public had actually experienced them, the description might not be credited.

When we issued our initial announcement of the Cadillac with its Eight Cylinder V-type Engine, we found ourselves in precisely this position.

The most ordinary statement of its advantages appeared overdrawn.

Our certainty that it would revolutionize motoring amounted to a conviction.

But we dared not tax the credulity of the public, by telling the entire story, even though the public has always reposed implicit confidence in Cadillac announcements.

Our one thought was to hold ourselves within bounds—to be temperate—to place a check upon our own enthusiasm.

We told only a part of the truth—and yet we are conscious, now, that some of our statements must have sounded at least a trifle fervid, coming from a company committed to conservatism.

But there is no need now to understate the case, *because the public knows.*

The strongest statements which we made are mild by comparison with those which are echoing from one end of the country to the other.

Thus we said, in an early announcement, that in the new Cadillac "good roads yield up a velvet quality of travel undreamed of."

We said that "bad roads lose much of

their terror, and hills seem almost to flatten out before you."

Many a man no doubt made the mental comment that these were strong claims.

But they are as nothing to the assertions which you can and will hear in every city in which the new Cadillac is being driven today.

Again, we said, that the Cadillac Eight Cylinder V-type engine "produced eight impulses in every cycle—overlapping so completely that they melt and merge, one into another."

And, we added, that this power, "ebbs and flows so flexibly that the car can be operated almost continuously under throttle control, without change of gears."

Consult your own Cadillac acquaintances, and you will find that this condition of almost continuous throttle control is a commonplace of the Cadillac owner's every-day experience.

We said that "the motor did not seem to be driving the car, but rather to have given it wings"—and the Cadillac owner will express his riding sensations, today, in even stronger terms than these.

The burden of testimony has passed from us to the finest citizenship of the land.

The uttermost that we might say is being outdone by our friends. The Cadillac car itself, and the owners of the Cadillac have relieved us of the necessity of praising our own product.

We do not believe that anyone, after riding in this car, can resist the charm of such surpassing ease, smoothness, steadiness and flexibility of power.

Our conviction is that the enthusiasm over the Eight Cylinder Cadillac means nothing short of a national conversion.

Styles and Prices

Standard Seven passenger car, Five passenger Sedan and Roadster, \$1975.
Landulet Coupe, \$2500 Five passenger Sedan, \$2800. Seven passenger
Limousine, \$3450. Prices F. O. B. Detroit.

Cadillac Motor Car Co., Detroit, Mich.

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



Vol. CXII, No. 10
March 6, 1915

Munn & Co., Inc., Publishers
New York, N. Y.

Price 15 Cents
\$3.00 A Year

YOU CAN PUT YOUR FINGERS ON THE SAVING IN THE NEW PACKARD TRUCKS

The improved Packard Models furnish the surest, quickest and most economical means of transportation.

They put an end to the rule-of-thumb extravagance of horse hauling.

There is nothing obscure or hidden about their wide range of usefulness and their low cost of upkeep.

You can put your fingers squarely on the reasons why Packard trucks may be operated with the least expense and the least manual work.

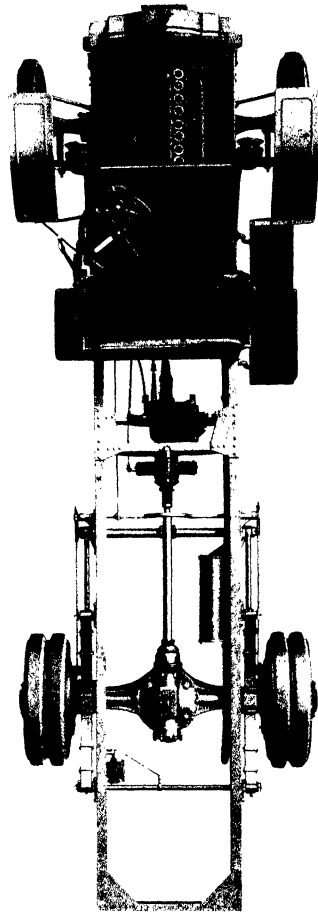
You can see for yourself that the compact, clean-cut chassis has no unnecessary parts—that all the working units are enclosed from mud and water—that wear is taken by small inexpensive parts and not by large parts more difficult and costly to replace—that a minimum need of adjustments saves the driver's time and the owner's money.

Centralized control within easy reach of the driver, special electric cranking and lighting system, left side steering and improved worm drive, are additional proofs that the new type Packard is the nearest approach to the ultimate truck.

The design is founded on the experience of thousands of Packard truck users and the evidence gathered under every possible hauling condition.

Capacities from one to six tons inclusive.

Why not have a talk with a Packard dealer or write us for catalogs and further details.



(Plan View of Chassis—3-Ton Unit)

PACKARD MOTOR CAR CO., DETROIT



The experience of big business and little business with the Dictaphone

Carries a significant message to every business man—especially—

To the man who has never dictated a letter except to a stenographer, who writes his every word twice, once in shorthand and once on the typewriter—

To the man whose own time is valuable and who knows the money value of the time of his typists—

To the man who believes he is fully informed on the subject of dictation systems, but may be years behind the Dictaphone situation

If you want to find out how to save money, time and worry in handling your correspondence, just reach for your telephone and call up the "Dictaphone." We'll demonstrate the "Dictaphone" in your own office and your own work. If you don't find "Dictaphone" in the book, write to the

DICTAPHONE

If you don't find "Dictaphone" in the phone book, just turn off this "Man at the Desk," pin him on your letterhead and send him in. Nothing else. That's all.

"Your Day's Work"—a book you should like to read you.



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Stores in the principal cities
—dealers everywhere

Official dictating machine of the Panama Pacific International Exposition

The Croquet Ball that Rolled 'round the World

IMAGINE YOURSELF in a great business office with numerous workers—where mail, money and merchandise, papers and parcels fit to and fro, with the speed of wings, on tireless carious, from one floor to another, from building to building.



Then again in the works of a monster industrial plant where materials and products are carried to and from the workers, on endless belts or chains, ceaselessly, promptly, economically.

Or down in the heart of some big hotel where message carriers shoot through batteries of shining tubes to every floor.

You marvel. And the wonder grows when you know that all these carrying systems, serving thousands of times and institutions are an evolution from a simple croquet ball, hollowed out and rolled along a wooden trough to carry change more quickly.

This metamorphosis of a croquet ball occurred in a store in Lowell, Massachusetts, in 1860, and the storekeeper-inventor's name was Lamson.

Today, Lamson Service encircles the globe. It works for governments, railroads, banks, libraries, hotels, factories—more than 300 kinds of business and institutions.

The fitting of a correct system to the need is Lamson Service. Lamson Service will study your problem, show you office or factory, and show you where, if possible, a Lamson Service System will save you money and avoid waste. This without placing you under the slightest obligation.

A recent on your letterhead or on the coupon below will receive prompt attention—when help on interesting story entitled "How Wings for Business."

Some of the places where Lamson Service are in service.

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THE WINGS

15

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Agents and Distributors will find complete references in Lamson Service to Street's Index and Card, Ch. A. B. M. R.

THE LAMSON COMPANY, 161 Devonshire Street, Boston, Mass.

Write for literature to Mr. F. Lamson. Service can serve you economically and save.

(Write name, address and telephone of business here.)

PIERCE-ARROW

The mind of the owner of a Pierce-Arrow does not run on ahead of him in vain speculation as to whether the car will be on time, or will get him there on time. He soon sinks into a feeling of trustfulness in regard to his Pierce-Arrow. He need never interrupt his plans, break an engagement, allow greater time for going to and fro, or omit doing anything that counts upon the faithful efficiency of a Pierce-Arrow.

THE PIERCE-ARROW MOTOR CAR CO
BUFFALO NEW YORK



BUDA MOTOR

The part to buy the car by

If the MOTOR is not right the car is wrong.

It may have the finest body, the best transmission and axles, springs, wheels and tires—but what do they all amount to if the motor is not right?

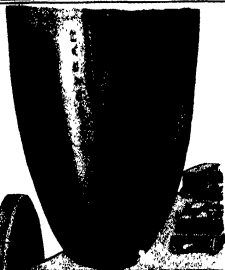
Motors all look more or less alike. Only the expert can judge between one and another on scientific grounds. But there is one way YOU can be as expert as the greatest engineer—LOOK FOR THE NAME BUDA

If the car or truck contains a Buda Motor it is backed not only by the good name of its maker but by the name and reputation, the whole great plant and resources of the Buda Company, and all it stands for and has stood for for thirty-four years. When you buy your next car, ask if the motor is a Buda.

Above we show one of the giant heavy duty vehicles, all the cylinders of the BUDA "Six" at one operation. This means perfect accuracy and perfect interchangeability of parts.

THE BUDA COMPANY, 611 BROADWAY, NEW YORK

74 Steps to Reach This Final Truck Tire



The 1915 Goodyear S-V Truck Tire—pressed onto the wheel—surmounts all obstacles that makers have faced from the first. And Goodyear experts built 74 separate tire structures in this one type alone to give the world this triumph. Each was a distinct step upward.

Now 2,100 test tires have been run and recorded. These records—the court of last resort—award S-V to-day's top place.

A Life-Long Unit

By a secret method we weld into life-long union the soft rubber tread, hard rubber backing and steel channel base.

This feature alone must soon win experienced truck owners.

In other ways, too, this S-V towers above all previous truck tires.

A Five-Fold Economy

It reduces tire mile cost by giving 10 per cent more available tread rubber.

It reduces the cost of mounting by 75 to 80 per cent—through ending preliminary work on wheels, and also the expense of metal fastenings.

For flanges, wedges, bands and bolts are now discarded. Hence these lighter-weight tires abolish the cost of carrying excess weight *below the springs*.

They save power also, by means of design, and the special Goodyear compound.

They Cannot Creep

1915 Goodyear S-V Truck Tires are pressed on the wheels in 5 or 10 minutes at a minimum of 50,000 pounds. This exceeds by far all strain that a tire can get in actual use.

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FORGING INNER TUBE FOR A GERMAN 16.8-INCH SIEGE GUN IN THE FAMOUS KRUPP WORKS AT ESSEN.—[See page 216.]

Notes on the War

Is the "Andalusian" Still Afloat?—We note that the leading papers of this city have given publicity to a detailed story to the effect that the "Andalusian," which was reported to have been sunk off Lough Swilly, did not actually founder but was towed into port, has been repaired, and has again taken her place in the Grand Fleet. According to this story, immediately after the explosion, collision masts were thrown overboard, and, by means of sandbags and extemporized bulkheads and cofferdams, the inflow of water was so far out of that the pumps were able to master the situation. The vessel, if we are to credit the report, was towed into Belfast, and repairs were executed with such dispatch that the ship is now in first-class condition.

The Fate of the "Koenigsberg."—But little has been reported of the fate of the German cruiser "Koenigsberg," which was forced to take refuge in the Ruzhij River last October by the British cruiser "Chatham" (owing to her greater draught the "Chatham" could not enter the river, and the German vessel was so thoroughly concealed by the surrounding trees and by being covered with foliage that her range could not at first be obtained. To meet these conditions a small crew from the "Chatham" took an English commercial steamer up the river and sank her where the bulk would effectually block the escape of the "Koenigsberg." A damaged cable ship was also sunk in the channel. Shortly afterward an aeroplane was shipped to the scene of operations, and the location of the "Koenigsberg" was soon ascertained and the vessel entirely destroyed by the gun-fire of the "Chatham." The German liner "Seydlitz," which acted as a supply ship, was also destroyed.

Science in Warfare.—As soon as the Germans had established a foothold in Belgium a full staff from their observatories was on hand to take up their work in observatories at Liège, Brussels and other places, where they have performed most efficient services for their forces by predictions relating to the weather, particularly in regard to fog and rain. Information has been shown to have been of decided value both in the operations of the air fleet and to the submarines as well. This has been demonstrated by the results of the raids by the Germans on Scarborough and Hartlepool, and the operations of the submarines in the Channel, all of which have depended largely on fog conditions for their success. At their observatories stations the weather men have not depended altogether on the equipment they found, but have supplemented that by improved instruments they brought with them, and by the use of the testing balloons which they have made use of extensively.

The Soldier's Chances in War.—Basing his estimate on the death rates of the Union army in the Civil War, the German army in the Franco-Prussian war, the British army in the Anglo-Boer war, and the Japanese army in the Russo-Japanese war, Edward Burnett Phillips, editor of the *American Underwriter*, says that the loss by death in the present war may be 540,000 if the average number of men engaged during the year amounts to 6,000,000, which is something more than the total annual death rate for the entire adult male population of the United States. But this does not mean that the average number is much more uncertain than that of a civilian under certain conditions. Thus Mr. Phillips finds from the American Experience Table of Mortality that a soldier's chances of living through a year of the war are greater than those of a civilian for living from the age of 25 to the age of 36, from 30 to 41, from 35 to 45, from 40 to 49, from 45 to 52, from 50 to 58, from 55 to 60, or from 60 to 63 years.

War has Lost Its Luster.—In spite of the enthusiastic descriptions written by correspondents far from the scene of action, the fact is that war has lost its luster, and the spectacular side of war has been abolished by the changes of time; in fact, war has become stupid. As a writer in the *London Times* tells us: "The general no longer rides at the head of his legions, if indeed he ever rides at all. Far in the rear, almost out of sound-range of the guns, he directs, if we can call it directing, the movements of his armies. Neat by in some field the m.s.t.s. for the wireles; in every direction airplanes and cables; in some inner room, poring over the map set out by the operations branch, the commander-in-chief, endeavoring to piece together news and to make things as unpleasant as he can for his enemy." In the field, no more the clatter and jingle of the squadrons. Trenches and always trenches, and nothing showing above the surface of the ground. Day after day the bubble of the unknown by the unseen, and events decided by the greatest mass of projectiles hurled simultaneously in the general direction of the enemy. The thundering crash of infantry has become more ghastly than glorious, for in the face of a devastating fire by every description of weapon, and innumerable mines and entanglements, few of the attacking force survive, and the result, at least on the western front, is merely an advance of a few feet and the capture of a few hundred yards of trench in a line hundreds of miles in length.

Science

Work of the "Carnegie" in High Latitudes.—The non-magnetic ship "Carnegie," belonging to the Carnegie Institution's Department of Terrestrial Magnetism, spent last season cruising in high northern latitudes and is to make a longer cruise in 1915-1916 to high southern latitudes, viz., between the 50th and 75th parallels, which will take her far into the Antarctic. On her last trip she sailed from New York, June 8th, 1914, and traveled about 10,000 miles, touching at Hammerfest, Norway, reaching latitude 79 degrees 52 minutes north, west of Spitzbergen, thence proceeding to Iceland, and ultimately making magnetic surveys in Hudson Bay. She returned to New York in October.

Agricultural Alcohol.—Some years ago the U. S. Bureau of Plant Industry began an investigation of the problem of utilizing the waste and surplus products of American farms as a source for the manufacture of denatured alcohol. Dr. Edward Kremers, of the University of Wisconsin, was sent abroad as a special agent to study the development of this product, especially in Germany, and his report has just been published as Bulletin 182 of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. German agriculturists have devoted a great deal of attention to finding new industrial outlets for alcohol and to improving and popularizing existing outlets. In violation of a great secret of alcohol. About 6,000 agricultural potato distilleries were in operation in Germany at the time of Dr. Kremers' investigations.

The Size of Seed as a Factor in Plant Production is the subject of a report by M. B. Cummings, of the Vermont agricultural experiment station, in which the author describes experiments in planting sweet peas and a number of garden vegetables. There is, on the whole, a great advantage in using large and heavy seed. This sweet pea from such seed were earlier in blooming, were more and finer blossoms, and were generally more thrifty. The results were not uniform for all the species tried, but all showed some effect of the size of seeds except garden peas, when harvested as green peas. When these peas were allowed to mature, large and heavy seed gave the greatest advantage in size and yield. A subsidiary investigation related to the location of large and small seeds in the pods of peas and beans. In the latter, 49 per cent of the small seed were found to occur in the basal end, while only 18 per cent occurred in the middle of the pod. In garden peas the small seeds were almost always found at the end of the pods.

The *Journal of Agricultural Research*, published by the U. S. Department of Agriculture, recently entered upon its third volume, and at the same time opened its columns to contributions from the agricultural experiment stations. This important publication was founded for the purpose of bringing together the more technical research papers prepared in the department. Such papers were previously issued in the "bulletin" series of the several bureaus and offices of the department, along with papers of a more practical character. The number of these series caused the more advanced scientific memoirs to be scattered through an immense literature, and tended to make them difficult of access. An analogous situation has heretofore existed in connection with the results than small seed. A subsidiary investigation related to the location of large and small seeds in the pods of peas and beans. In the latter, 49 per cent of the small seed were found to occur in the basal end, while only 18 per cent occurred in the middle of the pod. In garden peas the small seeds were almost always found at the end of the pods.

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The Migration of Tuberculous Persons in the United States, and its effects upon the public health, has been the subject of elaborate investigations by the Public Health Service for nearly two years past, and the work has now been completed in several states, while it is still in progress in others. Studies made in southern California in 1913 and 1914 showed that 17.8 per cent of deaths from tuberculosis in that section occurred within one year after arrival in the State, indicating that many tuberculous persons leave their homes for health resorts under conditions that are clearly contraindicated. Little or no evidence was obtainable to show that the migration of tuberculous persons has any decided bearing on the health of other travelers or of the employees of railways and other common carriers. One striking result of the investigation in southern California is that the presence of tuberculous persons who have migrated to this section has, as a rule, had a beneficial effect on the health and social and economic status of the recipient communities. Many communities in northern California have been built up by migrating consumptives, and important enterprises have been originated by them. The only communities in which the public health has suffered are those to which large numbers of far advanced and hopeless cases resort without adequate financial resources; such consumptives are generally more careless in their personal habits and necessarily reside in cheap rooming and boarding houses.

Automobile

British Cyclecar With Novel Points.—One of the latest "cyclecars" or "light cars" manufactured in Great Britain, possesses a number of unusual features, not found in any other automobile model. It has a cylinder motor with both valves and spark plugs set horizontally into the cylinder heads; a full steel casting in the form of a pan, which forms the forward end of the chassis, a mechanical starter which works on the principle of a ratchet screw driver or drill, and a new type of coil-over spring which is said to possess unusual flexibility and resiliency.

Motor Trucks Dominate Automobile Exports.—Stories of huge exports of motor trucks for the warring nations, which appeared early last fall, are borne out, at least partially, by the export figures for the month of December, 1914, which show more than \$3,000,000 worth of "commercial" motor vehicles shipped abroad. France took two thirds of this total and Great Britain the remaining third. Shipments to Russia are held up at present because of the impossibility of getting anything through the ring of ice which surrounds the North Russian ports.

2,500,000 Motor Cars in 1916.—That on January 1st, 1915, there were 2,500,000 automobiles in the United States, appears a somewhat wild prediction, when it is considered that there are only about 400,000 automobiles in the whole world, outside of this country. Figures collected from the various States of the Union show that on February 1st, 1915, the number of registered cars exceeded 1,800,000, and the growth in the last 13 months has been equal to not less than 500,000. As the rate of increase during the individual months has been much greater toward the end of 1914 than in the early part of that year, it seems certain that fully 600,000 cars will be added between February 1st, and December 31st, 1915.

Radiators for Power Wagons.—Of the various types of radiator which are found suitable for power wagon use, the smooth tube type used extensively on recent cars of French build. The two water holders of the radiator are connected across by flat tubes placed side by side so as to present the edges to the air current of the fan, or in other cases the radiator uses a great number of round tubes of very small section (3/8 inch). The first method is used in the Berliet wagon, while the second employs the "A" radiator. Another notable make-ups, the Goudard and Monson water-cooled motor, and it was the type preferred for the Paris-autos, besides being in use on De Dion, Schneider, Delaunay, and other cars. An air fan is mounted inside a drum formed by a top and bottom water holder joined by circular tubing. Such tubing has five rows in width and the same number in thickness, the top and bottom water holders being a square section with 25 tubes. The air fan is designed so as to draw in air on each side of the fan, and drive it out from the edge, and it thus passes through the set of tubes, which thus receive a strong draught. Hot water from the motor enters the top receptacle and after descending through the tubes it collects in the bottom holder and returns to the motor. One point about this type of radiator is that as the tubes are curved, they become stronger and chances of breakage are less. On the road, should a tube break, it is an easy matter to remove it and stop up the two holes left, and the radiator works as before. Gravity water cooling can be employed in this type without the air fan, as it will work well either way.

Motor Laundries at the Front.—The latest use to which the automobile has been put by the warring armies of Europe is that of a laundry for the field hospital corps. The laundry consists of four vehicles, the leading one being a very powerful motor truck on which is mounted a steam mangle, which is easily removable. The second vehicle in the train contains a complete steam plant with boiler, turbine, drying cabinet and hot water tank. The third truck carries the washing machine itself, centrifugal driving drums, pumps for hot and cold water and a condenser for steam when the ordinary water of the neighborhood is too hard to be used for washing. The fourth truck is loaded with soap, soda, oil, gasoline and tools. On the march all four trucks are coupled together, while at the point of use the last three are detached and the laundry is erected, they are arranged in the shape of a horseshoe. The entire laundry can be covered by a large tent. When in use, the train requires the attention of twelve privates and one non-commissioned officer. The motor truck, as soon as the steam mangle is removed, is used to carry laundry to and from the hospital. Bloody linen is first thrown into the draining tank and boiled with strong soda and cresote soap. The drying cabinet is for woolen wear which is difficult to wring dry in the mangle. The capacity of such a laundry is about 3,000 pounds of assorted dirty linen daily. It has proved a tremendous success at the field hospitals on the German side, and has greatly reduced the work of the sanitary corps, with far greater cleanliness and efficiency.

Tests of Armor and Projectiles

LEADING down from the turret of a battleship through the protective deck is a tube known as the ammunition tube, through which shells and powder for the turret guns are brought up from the magazine. As this is a vital artery in a fighting ship the tube should be proofed against the shells of the enemy. Herewith is a photograph of two steel ammunition tubes, the one at the left being of a special armored steel developed at the Hadfield Works, in Sheffield. The tubes are shown after having been attacked by an 8-inch capped armor-piercing shell fired at a velocity of 1,400 foot-seconds and developing a striking energy of 1,600 foot-tons. The Hadfield tube was neither bent nor cracked, and the projectile that struck it was shattered without doing the shell any material damage. Had the shell been loaded with a high explosive filler it would have burst harmlessly outside the tube.

To the right in the photograph is an expensive forged, hydraulic-pressed, soft-tempered, nickel-steel tube. When an 8-inch shell was fired at this tube it splintered the target fragments of the shell passing through the tube. The tube was cracked as the photograph shows, and as it was perforated the shell, which was not broken up by the impact, would have burst inside the tube had it been loaded with the customary high explosive filler.

On this page we also show a picture of a 12-inch armor-piercing projectile after undergoing the test of passing through 12 inches of Krupp steel. Note the spiral scoring on the surface of the shell showing its rotation.

Nerves and the War

GERMAN is a month president, *The Times*, recently published an article by Dr. A. Eulenburg on the changes wrought by the war on the nervous system of the combatants and the non-combatants who are subjected to the usual anxieties attendant on war.

Dr. Eulenburg opens the article by stating that the most popular German army commander, the general in charge of the Russian campaign, who has created a field marshal in a short time ago, and is presumably von Hindenburg, expressed the opinion in a recent interview that the war against Russia resolves itself into a question of "nerves," and as the Germans have the better nerves they eventually will win. While conceding in this view, Dr. Eulenburg thinks it opportune at this time to examine and consider the effects which six months of war have thus far produced on the nervous system of the nation, considering both those in the field and those who remain at home. From all reports, and from extensive personal observations embracing participation in a number of campaigns, Dr. Eulenburg is convinced that in healthy individuals, endowed with a normal nervous equipment and having the requisite resistance, the so-called war nerves are not a factor to cause alarm. On the contrary he considers war with all its physical and psychological stresses and experiences as a powerful salutary medium, a purifying, hardening and strengthening remedy for nerves which have become enfeebled and sluggish during long years of peace. Neither the leaders of the army nor the rank and file have thus far shown the slightest signs of exhaustion or nervousness of any sort. In spite of all the hardships and horrors of warfare, the severe physical exertions and exposures the rigorous life in the trenches, the troops have maintained their vitality splendidly, as well as their courage and their good humor.

In view of these illuminating facts we may accept the contention that a so-called war psychosis in the sense of a pathological condition caused exclusively by the hideouts of war does not exist. Whenever cases of war nervousness, or neurasthenia, or other psychoses develop, which happens not infrequently they, with the exception of those resulting from severe wounds to the head or brain, may always be traced to a preexisting psychopathic constitution. In these cases of unstable nervous balance the impressions and terrors of war act as the exciting cause. Thus the cases which were frequently observed in the war between Russia and Japan and in the Balkan wars are explained in the same manner and no evidence whatever has thus far been adduced that perfectly healthy individuals have ever suffered from nervous disturbances caused by the war itself.

The term war psychosis has been defined by Russian as a form of cerebral neurasthenia accompanied at times by hysterical symptoms, delusions, and even complete insanity. It is variably developed in persons who are constitutionally predisposed. The clinical picture presents increased irritability, exhaustion and great mental depression. The prognosis in the majority of cases is favorable, recovery being gradual with a disappearance of symptoms.

Another form of psychosis known as fear psychosis is observed most frequently in recruits who have not yet seen service. Occasionally it is observed in those who have been in the field and are temporarily relieved on discharge for purposes of recovery. The patients suffer from sleeplessness, hysteria, an exaggerated sense

of fear and terror which at times becomes unbearable and even drives the victims to suicide. Of course these cases are not suitable for service and must be removed at once. Neither an appeal to reason nor the employment of sedatives or narcotics seems to have the slightest effect upon them. Generally the only thing to do with these poor victims is to place them in suitable sanatoria, where by time and the requisite care their shattered nervous system may be restored to normal.

Then there are cases in which the nervous disturbances take the form of a mania or hypomania. These are characterized by great mental excitement, an increased bodily activity and an irresistible desire to talk or write. This condition may be overlooked at first, but when recognized demands prompt remedial measures for the good of the afflicted as well as the service.

Dr. Eulenburg insists that these morbid conditions are in no respect due to the effects of the war, but that their cause must be looked for in long existing predisposition of the individual and in a psychopathic constitution. In other words in an enfeebled nervous system unable to bear the trying and strong impressions of the war.

Still more sad, however, is the condition of those men and women who are obliged to remain at home, who are condemned to patient endurance and anxious waiting, whose emotions are always on edge, whose nervous system is always under a strain, experiencing sorrow and happiness by turns, one moment depressed by grief, the next elated with joy; always wrestling with doubt, fear and uncertainty.

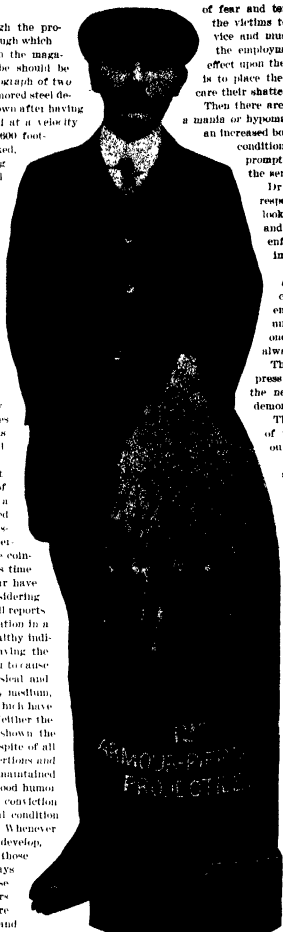
These depressing, nerve destroying emotions leave their impress permanently or otherwise according to the condition of the nervous system of the individual. Many succumb to the demons of doubt and despair.

This class furnishes the true martyrs of war, the real victims of war neuroses. They require our greatest sympathy and our most considerate care.

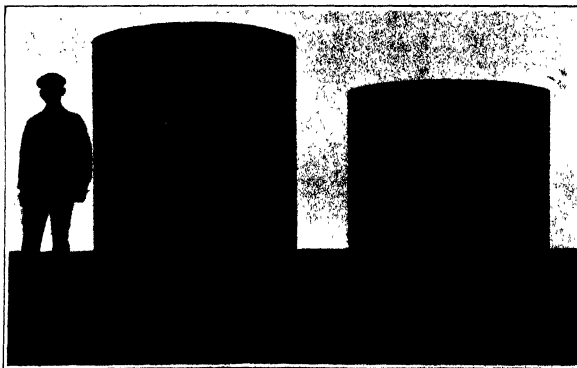
Whatever may be the experience of this war—and it is still too early to draw any conclusions—there was evidence enough gathered in our own civil war, that three battles produce nervous disorders. A hospital for nervous disorders was created at Turner's Lane, near Philadelphia in August, 1862, and pavilions were built for four hundred men. It was in charge of the late Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, whose interest in nervous diseases was aroused while he was working as an army surgeon. In a fascinating address delivered before the Physicians' Club of Chicago on February 25th, 1913, in which he discussed the medical department of the civil war, Dr. Mitchell said:

"The cases were of amazing interest. Here (at Turner's Lane) were eighty epileptics, every kind of nerve wound, palsies, singular choreas, and stupid disorders. I sometimes wonder how we stood it. If urgent calls took us back into town, we returned to the hospital as if drawn by a magnet. In fact, it was exciting in its constancy of novel interest. Thousands of pages of notes were taken. There were many operations, many consultations, and toward the close we planned the ultimate essays which were to record our work. Each of us took his share, but all three were mentioned on the title pages of our essays. There were many cases of nerve injuries and an even on reflex palsies, both of which I wrote. Dr. Keen contributed an admirable paper on malingering. Our notes on epilepsy were very full, and there were things recorded which I have never seen since or seen but once. . . . Our notes and conclusions in cases of acute exhaustion and extreme myasthenic conditions would have entirely anticipated the delineation of those orders which we now accept under the name of neurasthenia. In this hospital massage was used to restore action to limbs in which healing nerve wounds left the muscles palsied, or for the rigidity of splinted cases."

Among the numerous other matters . . . were the influence of nerve lesions on nutrition and temperature, the first record of wounds of the sympathetic nerve and the study of reflex palsies. The victims of nerve wounds were often men worn out from fever, dysentery and long marches, however, some of the symptoms of nerve wounds we described have never been seen since in like intensity. That hospital was, as one poor fellow said, a hell of pain. In one year over 40,000 injections of morphine were used. Time lacks here to re-describe cases of neuralgia of such intensity that the pain was increased by the vibrations of a hand paper handled, and by a loud footfall in the ward. I have seen men pour water into their boots to lessen the vibrations which walking caused. I have never encountered such cases since."



A 12-inch shell after having passed through 12 inches of Krupp steel.



Effect of 8-inch shells fired upon armored steel ammunition tubes.

Making Clothes for the German Army

A NUMBER of industrial works in Greater Berlin, mainly belonging to the metal, wood, leather, food, and clothes industries, are at present engaged on a large scale in the making of articles for war use. One of the accompanying views shows how a series of sewing machines, connected together by a nearly invisible common shaft and operated from the top by an electric motor fixed to the wall, are producing knapsacks and cartridge boxes out of ready-cut leather pieces. In another picture we see the manufacturing of pouches for field telegraphs. The material prepared beforehand is cut into shape on cutting machines and finished on punches, drilling machines, etc. The cutting of "field-gray" cloth for uniforms and cloaks is likewise done on electrically driven machines.

How Electricity Makes the Iron Cross

THE Iron Cross, a decoration created in 1813, at the time of the German Wars of Liberation, and revived in 1870, during the Franco-German War, is the most highly prized recognition of valor in the present conflict. While the decoration and the spirit animating those on whom it is conferred have remained the same as one hundred years ago, typically modern methods have been adopted in making the crosses. In fact, an extensive use is made of electrically operated machinery for the various stages of manufacture at the workshops entrusted by the German army authorities with producing the Iron Crosses.

Iron Crosses are by no means produced by casting. Rectangular pieces of sheet iron stamped out with a punching machine are struck with steel dies on powerful presses, in accordance with the rules laid down by the Order Committee. One of our views shows two such cutting presses in the foreground, each of which is provided with a big electric driving motor, while in the background is seen the punching machine, the motor of which is carried by a bracket on the ceiling.

After being thus prepared and tested, the Iron Crosses are taken to the silver-smith's, where the soldering is done, a fine silver border added, and the finishing completed. A second illustration shows how the silver border surrounding the Iron Cross is polished on electrically driven polishing and grinding motors.

Clothing a Winter Army

AS with everything else pertaining to an army, its clothing is primarily one of the duties of the General Staff. The watchfulness of nations against one another has resulted in an intimate knowledge of the number of men actually on duty, every arm adopted, each piece of new equipment, the resources of the country in every particular, and the probable mode of procedure to meet each hypothetical condition developed into actualities.

Naturally the *raison d'être* of an army is defense, and defense means war; peace times are used in preparation for war, and in the days of peace the General Staff is engaged in working out each detail of possible war, reducing the results to paper, carefully checked and proved, and then filling them away against the time of need. War is planned on paper against every possible enemy; the duration of the war is carefully estimated, and in the estimate the seasons are considered and the comfort of the soldiers; for while the entire object of maintaining an army in the field is to see the most men available up on the line of battle, by far the greater work is to be found in caring for the men in the intervals between combats, that they may be in condition to fight when the time comes.

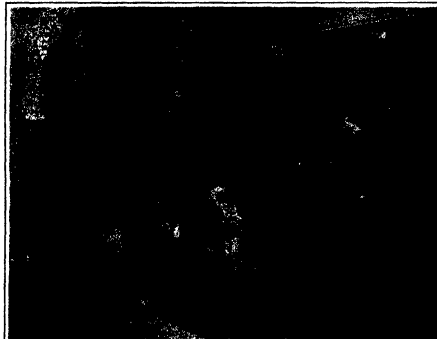
It is therefore perfectly safe to say that the present war which is devastating Europe has been fought out in more or less detail in the longest of study in days of peace. And in the fighting out, the



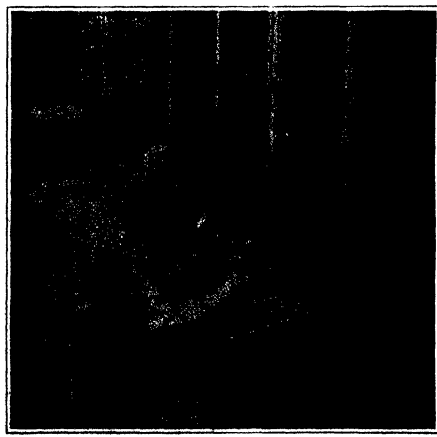
Electrically operated sewing machines for manufacturing knapsacks and cartridge boxes.



Cutting uniforms with an electrical knife.



How the Iron Cross is made with electrically driven punches and dies.



Polishing the silver borders of Iron Crosses on electrically driven polishing and grinding machines.

problem of rading and maintaining stupendous armies has been worked out, the feeding of the armies, the supply and the clothing as well, with special regard to the chill ravages of winter in the field.

Take Germany, for instance. The German staff knew almost to a dot how many men could be turned out in defense of the empire. The staff knew almost the exact date when a certain number would be formed in the ranks, and in anticipation, clothing was ready for them, shoes, equipment and arms, stored away in ware-houses where they could be brought to light with little or no confusion. Probably not five hundred persons in Germany outside the staff had ever seen the new field uniform of the German army until it was issued upon the trench call to arms last August, yet it was there.

Germany is, justly, accorded the highest and most complete military organization of any country which has ever been in existence. It may therefore be taken as standard by the other military nations, such as France, Russia, and Austria, are not far behind in completeness of preparation, and it is a fact that every resource has been computed for each eventuality. Consequently long before war became more than an ever-present possibility, plans were completed for equipping for clothing the soldiers, and with the declaration of war the call to arms, the wheels of the clothing organization were set in motion, not to stop until the necessity for their grinding ceased.

Let us take a hypothetical country, declare a war and set the wheels to going. Utopia has declared war against a neighbor. Four million men will spring to arms, expanding from an army with a peace strength of 600,000. In anticipation the staff has long ago caused the manufacture of 4,000,000 uniforms and equipments, the mobilization reserves, the storehouses are opened and over the railways, automatically brought under the direction of the military with the declaration, they are shipped to the various fronts.

The theater of war has long been known, as well as the probable duration of conflict. In accordance with the plans, based upon experience, observation of other countries at war, test and always common sense the staff well knows that the first equipment of clothing will not last over three months at the most of arduous service in the field when one outer uniform is all that may be carried about. The men have no change of and forms the marches take place alternately under burning sun, drenching rain or chill, and clouded day. Rivers are to be waded, breast high, mud-plastered trenches are to be occupied, grinding, cutting dust of a hot march is to be encountered, and the rough wear and tear of a campaign will surely reduce the material to a most thoroughly worn-out condition in a short time. The shoes most important articles to a soldier receive constant wear, for they are seldom off the tired feet, and alternate wetting and drying play havoc with the leather.

The staff, then knows that all this clothing must be replaced within three months. In addition, the reserve classes which are to be called to reinforcement must be clothed. Casualties will occur, and there must be fresh clothing to replace that so lost, although frequently the bodies of the dead are stripped, through necessity, and the clothing thus removed saved for issue to another new man, sometimes with a small bullet hole through the breast pocket and a dull stain around it. War does not make for squeamishness.

As the railways are seized upon war's outbreak, all the clothing factories of the land are assigned certain work to be performed. Either bids are called for or a just, flat price is fixed by the staff and a certain amount of work assigned to each house, with ally.

Four million overcoats must be ready by the first of November, say. The houses which have the wool and other material

(Continued on page 222.)

German Agriculture in War Time

By the Berlin Correspondent of the Scientific American

THE present war places before German agriculture a number of problems which it is confidently hoped will find a satisfactory solution. The death of hands will no doubt be met by recourse to female and volunteer labor as well as by a temporary influx of workmen from the cities into the country, so that there may not be any serious difficulty in this respect. Apart from this, there will, however, be a scarcity of certain commodities heretofore imported from abroad, which German agriculture stands in urgent need for fertilizing the fields of the country, and these will have to be replaced by convenient substitutes.

Prof. Gerlach of the Emperor William Institute of Agriculture, Bromberg, Germany, has worked out some valuable suggestions for the manuring of the German fields in the absence of foreign fertilizers, which it seems will allow the present crisis to be met success fully. In order to appreciate the extent of the problem, it should be remembered that Germany in 1912 consumed 750,000 tons of Chile saltpetre, 425,000 tons of ammonium sulphate, 50,000 tons of lime nitrogen, and 25,000 tons of Norwegian saltpetre. To this is to be added the nitrogen contained in non-animated bone meal, Peru guano and other nitrogenous fertilizers, the amount of which, however, remains far behind that held in the above materials.

Though the manufacture and use of ammonium sulphate, and even more that of lime nitrogen, have during the last two years undergone a considerable increase, Prof. Gerlach is of the opinion that half the nitrogen spread on the fields in the form of concentrated fertilizers is still Chile saltpetre. According to a conservative estimate about 200,000 tons of nitrogen per annum would seem to be utilized in this way by German agriculture. When deducting this uniformly over the whole area of fields under cultivation a consumption of 7 to 8 kilograms per hectare is obtained, though present tendencies are toward a further increase of this amount. By far the greater part of the nitrogen, especially saltpetre nitrogen is employed in the spring, from March to May. It accordingly the war should continue until next spring the greater part of the indispensable nitrogen would be wanting. The German ammonia and lime nitrogen industry will doubt less endeavor to make up for the deficit, in which connection it will certainly be encouraged by the government. On the other hand two to three times more saltpetre may be expected from Norway than in 1912, the manufacture of this product having in the mean time made great strides.

How indispensable is the use of soluble nitrogen compounds can be inferred from the following: One hundred kilograms of Chile saltpetre will enable the yield of rye fields to be increased by 400 to 500 kilograms per hectare. This corresponds to a total of 2,500 to 3,000 millions of kilograms for the total area of German rye fields (in 1912), viz. 614 millions of hectares. Similar results can be obtained by means of ammonia salts or lime nitrogen, and a similar calculation can be applied to the remaining cereals, to potatoes and turnips. In fact, nitrogen is the vegetable food exerting the most striking influence on the yield, and no other manure can be fully utilized if there is a deficit of efficient nitrogen compounds in the soil. On the other hand, there can be no doubt that these artificial nitrogen fertilizers at present in the market are very suitable substitutes for Chile saltpetre, Norwegian saltpetre, e. g. being absolutely equivalent to the natural product.

According to Dr. Gerlach's suggestions, the available amounts of Norwegian saltpetre should be used primarily as top manure for the rye next spring and for the beet-roots. For the rest, he recommends the following top manuring for the spring of 1915: Rye in rye soil proper, that is, in light loamy sand, should, in the spring receive 20 to 30 kilograms of saltpetre nitrogen, as top manure, unless some sort of green manure is used. The same applies to the dark alluvial soil of the lowlands. In case of a deficit of Chile or Norwegian saltpetre, Dr. Gerlach suggests substituting for the above quantity of nitrogen either ammonium sulphate (100 to 150 kilograms) or lime nitrogen (150 to 250 kilograms per hectare), both fertilizers being applied as early as possible in the spring. In the case of wheat, the dose of artificial fertilizer should be reduced, on account of the better soil and more satisfactory conditions, 15 kilograms per hectare (corresponding to 75 kilograms of ammonium sulphate and 100 kilograms of lime nitrogen, respectively) being mostly sufficient. The excellent effects exerted by saltpetre on the development of oats are well known. Ammonium sulphate has also in this case given good results, 150 kilograms per hectare being generally sufficient. Barley does not always require nitrogen fertilizing. In the case of middling ground, 75 kilograms of ammonium sulphate or 100 to 150 kilograms of lime nitrogen will be sufficient.

Stable manure should preferably be reserved for potatoes. In case of an abundant use of animal manure

(200 to 300 kilograms per hectare) no special nitrogen fertilizers will, as a rule, be required. Root-roots, however, even in animal manure, cannot dispense with nitrogen fertilizers, 300 to 400 kilograms of Chile saltpetre or the corresponding amounts of artificial fertilizer being generally used.

Should it be absolutely impossible to provide the necessary amounts of nitrogen fertilizer by next spring, a reduction will, of course, have to be made. This, however, should, as far as possible, be avoided with rye in light soil, where nitrogen fertilizing is the most indispensable and cannot be made up for later on. A deficit of bread wheat would also be felt most keenly by the German people.

On account of the great importance of artificial nitrogen fertilizers destined to serve as substitutes for Chile saltpetre, both the government and private parties will promote their production. Should there, however, be no possibility of making up for the deficit, there would, of course, be a reduction in the yield of cereals, but the country would not by any means be brought to the verge of starvation. In fact, Dr. Gerlach estimates the deficit of corn in the worst possible case, that is, if there should not be even a partial compensation, at about 1,000,000 tons, viz. barely 4 per cent of the total crops. It is true that, on account of the partial or total cessation of imports, even this deficit would be keenly felt.

As regards the question of potash fertilizing, German agriculturists need not entertain any fear, the production of potash salts continuing undisturbed. Even in the event of there being a deficit of nitrogen, the amount of potash fertilizers should not be reduced, these materials being relatively cheap, while any potash not absorbed mostly remains in the soil.

Whether German industry will be able to provide the full amount of phosphorus fertilizer needed by the country cannot yet be said. The production of Thomas meal continues, and since the German iron works are the largest producers of this valuable material, the fertilizer will be brought on the market. On the other hand, it is doubtful whether sufficient amounts of crude phosphates and pyrites for the manufacture of superphosphates may be available, the larger part of these materials having so far been imported from the United States, Algeria, Belgium, Portugal, and Spain. In the event of a deficit the use of these manures would, of course, have to be reduced, which in many cases could be done without any inconvenience.

The Prussian government has granted individual agriculturists and agricultural societies considerable loans for the erection of potato drying plants, of which a large number are already in course of construction. Two hundred new installations are to be added to those so far in operation, so that the greater part, if not the whole, of the potatoes left unused during the winter may be dried. Three products will be marketed, viz. potato flakes, potato shavings and compressed potatoes, all of which constitute excellent, durable and handy fodder. The digestibility of these products is not altered by the drying process and actual tests have shown some of them to be utilized to the same extent. Their nutritive qualities can be even increased by soaking them in skimmed milk, whey, or water.

Germany's Nitrate Supply

A FRENCH Senator, in calling attention to the probable diminution in agricultural crops, in Germany and Austria, caused by the cessation of the imports of Chile saltpetre, amounting to 750,000 tons annually, recently asked how the supply of explosives would be affected. A writer in *Le Temps* gives the following conjectural answer:

It is probably not far from the truth to estimate the consumption of explosives, by each group of belligerents, at 400 tons per day, or 150,000 tons per year in practice from three to ten tons of nitric acid are used in making one ton of explosive. Assuming five as the average proportion, we arrive at an annual consumption of 750,000 tons of nitric acid.

The available sources of supply are the following: In Bavaria and in Innsbruck, in the Austrian Tyrol, are two factories which produce nitric acid from the atmosphere. Their combined power is 65,000 horsepower, which, if completely utilized, would produce 20,000 tons of nitric acid per year. A factory in Westphalia annually produces 1,500 tons of nitric acid by the Ostwald process, in which the ammonia evolved by coke ovens is oxidized in presence of platinum. This interesting method has probably attracted the attention of German chemists, especially in present conditions which make the cost of the product relatively unimportant. The production of nitric acid in this way may have been increased tenfold since the war began, but it cannot have been increased a hundredfold.

The French bacteriological method of Muniz and Lainé which consists in sowing great beds with nitrifying bacteria, is capable of yielding 500 tons of nitric acid per hectare (2½ acres), but several months elapse before the beds begin to produce regularly, and the yield

is greatly diminished in winter. Hence, this method is not likely to be employed.

The total annual supply of nitric acid obtainable from the domestic sources enumerated above may amount to 50,000 tons, or one-fiftieth of the consumption. The deficiency would not be supplied even if all of the nitric acid produced in Norway by the Rirkeland process, about 400,000 tons per year, should pass into the hands of Germany and Austria—a very unlikely supposition. This is a French view of the situation. We have more confidence in the ingenuity of the German chemist to meet the requirements of the situation.

Forging the Inner Tube of a German 16½-Inch Siege Gun

THE ability of the Krupp works to turn out 16½-inch siege guns possessing a certain limited amount of mobility, is due partly to the undoubted skill of the designing department and even more to the great advances which have been made of late years in the art of gun-steel manufacture. The prime consideration in building a 16-inch siege gun for field operation was to reduce the weight to the lowest point compatible with the required strength. The Germans have not given out any details regarding this piece, but this much is certain, that in order to make such a gun practicable, it was necessary to employ low pressure in the powder chamber and to make the gun barrel of a special quality of steel, embodying great tensile strength in proportion to its weight. Probably the barrel is forged from one of the new steel alloys from which such remarkable results have been obtained in the Krupp works, particularly in gun manufacture. Our own Lieut. Cleland Davis used for the barrel of his torpedo gun a vanadium-steel alloy, from which he obtained excellent results. Possibly the Germans are using an alloy of this or kindred character for the 16-inch siege gun.

The production of gun-steel is a long and tedious and costly process and even for the greatest care in making up the composition of the steel, in casting it, and in forging the ingot to the required rough shape ready for the lathe.

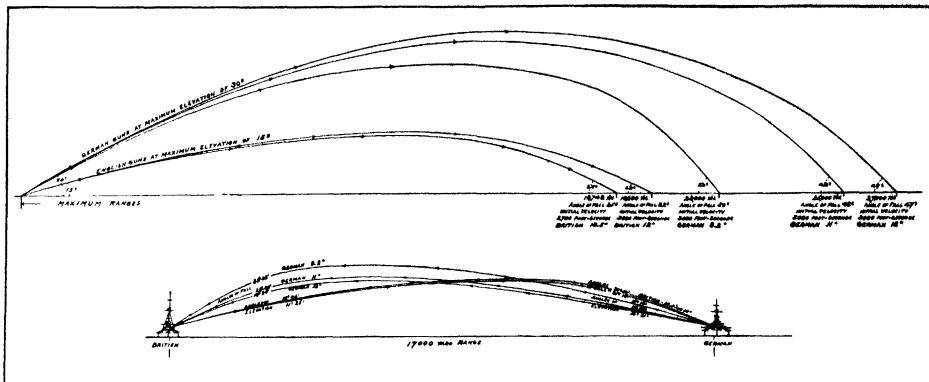
It is a prime requisite in gun steel that it shall be perfectly homogeneous throughout. Also it must be absolutely free from irregularities due to segregated material, inherent flaws, seams, etc. These qualities are secured largely in the process of forging, and in order to obtain that thorough working of the material which conduces so greatly to its toughness and strength, it has long been the practice to forge the gun barrel upon a central mandrel which is inserted in an axial hole through the forging, when it is brought white-hot from the furnace and placed in the hydraulic press as shown in our illustration. The material is squeezed between the mandrel and the press, the ingot being given a slight turn between each squeezing, by means of a chain which passes around the forging and is operated by the gears shown in the upper right of the chain. Gradually the piece is reduced in diameter and drawn out to proper length, until the desired final size of the rough gun barrel is reached.

The Current Supplement

THE leading article in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2454, for March 6th, is a most valuable paper by Dr. George M. Gould on A System of Personal Biographical Examinations the Condition of Adequate Medical and Scientific Conduct of Life, that will be found of interest not only by the layman, but especially so by the medical profession, as it discusses some of the most valuable features of medical practice. The account of the experiments in registering radio time signals with a physiological recorder gives an interesting account of the application of frog dissections for detecting slight impulses. Reproductions of the records are given and illustrations of the apparatus. Experiments with Flying Boat Hulls give some of the results secured in experiments made in the model basin at the Washington Navy Yard, Runabouts on Flood Rivers tell how snags get into rivers and the methods adopted by the Government to remove them. Several instructive illustrations accompany the article. Electroreception of the Soil is a valuable discussion of a topic that is attracting wide attention, as it deals with the electrical power in vegetation reactions. The illustrated description of the hydraulic mining machinery and its various applications and the results obtained tells of a very efficient mechanical device for breaking down minerals where it would be dangerous to use explosives. A timely article is a report of the Committee on Resolutions of the Snow Removal Conference, held at Philadelphia in April, 1914. This is a subject of interest to the citizens of every city in the country within the snow belt. Other articles are German System and Method, telling what their industries are doing since the war began; Electric Waves and Oscillations as a Means of Investigating the Interior of the Earth; Diseases Dangerous at Different Periods of Life, and a number of shorter articles.

Hitting an Invisible Ship at a Ten-mile Range

How the Greater Elevation of the Lighter German Guns Enables Them to Outrange the Enemy



Data for maximum possible elevation, 30-degree German, 15-degree English.

BRITISH 13.5" GUN
Fifteen Degrees
Initial velocity, 2,700 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 1,250 lb.
Angle of elevation, 15°
Range, 18,745 yds.
Angle of fall, 25°

BRITISH 12" GUN
Fifteen Degrees
Initial velocity, 1,900 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 850 lb.
Angle of elevation, 15°
Range, 19,835 yds.
Angle of fall, 22°

GERMAN 12" GUN
Thirty Degrees
Initial velocity, 3,080 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 860 lb.
Angle of elevation, 30°
Range, 27,800 yds.
Angle of fall, 47°

GERMAN 11" GUN
Thirty Degrees
Initial velocity, 3,080 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 600 lb.
Range, 25,900 yds.
Angle of fall, 45°

GERMAN 8.2" GUN
Thirty Degrees
Initial velocity, 3,080 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 275 lb.
Angle of elevation, 30°
Range, 22,000 yds.
Angle of fall, 50°

Data for 17,000-yard range.

BRITISH 13.5" GUN
Initial velocity, 2,700 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 1,250 lb.
Range, 17,000 yds.
Angle of elevation, 12° 44'
Angle of fall, 21° 42'
Striking energy, 12,800 ft. tons

BRITISH 12" GUN
Initial velocity, 1,900 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 850 lb.
Range, 17,000 yds.
Angle of elevation, 11° 25'
Angle of fall, 21° 10'
Striking energy, 8,325 ft. tons

GERMAN 12" GUN
Initial velocity, 3,080 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 860 lb.
Range, 17,000 yds.
Angle of elevation, 10° 31'
Angle of fall, 18° 54'
Striking energy, 8,800 ft. tons

GERMAN 11" GUN
Initial velocity, 3,080 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 600 lb.
Range, 17,000 yds.
Angle of elevation, 11° 25'
Angle of fall, 22°
Striking energy, 6,100 ft. tons

GERMAN 8.2" GUN
Initial velocity, 3,080 f.s.
Weight of projectile, 275 lb.
Range, 17,000 yds.
Angle of elevation, 15° 19'
Angle of fall, 50° 46'
Striking energy, 2,115 ft. tons

ONE of the surprises of the present naval war is the extraordinary range at which the engagements between ships carrying armor-plating guns are being fought. In the action between Von Spee and Cradock off the coast of Chile, the first 8.2-inch salvoes of the "Scharnhorst" and "Goeben" landed on the "Good Hope" with telling effect at 12,000 yards. In the engagement off the Falkland Islands, the earlier stages of the tussling fight were fought at 15,000 yards range. Later in the historic engagement in the North Sea, Admiral Beatty in his official dispatch stated that he began to land on the enemy at 17,000 yards, or six ten miles, and later descriptions of the fight by those engaged stated that the range never fell below seven miles.

The question has been raised as to whether the lighter German guns were able to reach the British battle-cruisers during the earlier stages of the fight when the 12.5-inch shells were getting home. This is a decidedly interesting point, and with a view to presenting the actual conditions, we publish the accompanying photographs and diagrams, which show that not only the 12 and 11-inch, but also the 8.2-inch guns of the German battle-cruisers, and at a noted cruiser were able not only to reach but to outrange the British ships, and also that their penetrative power was theoretically sufficient for them to have done deadly execution.

It should be explained that the data regarding these guns, both British and German, are taken from the published commercial tables of Vickers, Maxim, Armstrong, and Krupp. With the exception of the British 13.5-inch guns, whose initial velocity is 2,700 feet per second, the velocities given are very high for guns of larger caliber. They are perfectly possible, but because of the intense heat of combustion of the large

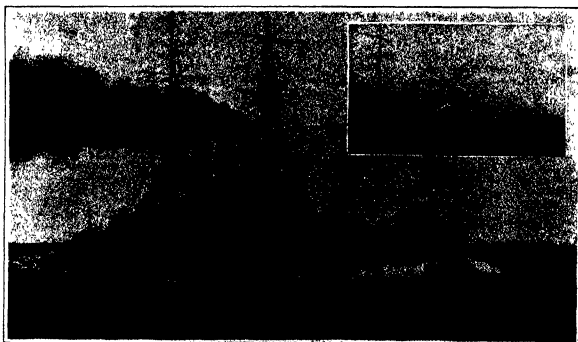
powder charges necessary to secure these velocities, the erosion is presumably very high, and the accuracy-life of such guns is limited. The Krupp people claim to have mastered the problem of erosion, but whether by use of a special steel for the inner tube or by the quality of their powder, or both, they do not state. We do know that one of the leading naval powers not long ago made an offer to give the Krupp firm a contract to provide all of their heavy guns, provided a guarantee was given that, using these high velocities, the guns would have an accuracy-life of 250 rounds. The offer was refused. As regards the British guns of Vickers-Maxim and Armstrong, it is known that erosion is severe, but the British claim that they can refine their eroded guns so quickly, and at a cost so moderate, that they prefer to use high velocities, because of the great advantages of accuracy and hitting power at long ranges conferred thereby.

It will be noted from the diagrams that the British guns are credited with a maximum elevation of 15 degrees. That is the maximum for the main batteries in our own navy, and we believe the same practice is

followed by the British. The motive for setting this limit is the fact that at 15 degrees elevation, when the ship is on an even keel, the shells will carry to a far greater distance than can be covered by the average sighting conditions on the high seas. The German Admiralty, however, with wise provision, as it seems to us, have given to their heavy batteries a maximum elevation which is at least twice that of the British guns, namely, 30 degrees, or possibly more.

We present illustrations of two of their ships, the battleship "Schlesien," carrying 11-inch guns in its main battery, and the 11-fisted "Blucher," which mounted the 8.2-inch gun. In each photograph these pieces are shown swung up to full elevation, which apparently is slightly over 30 degrees. Now, referring to the diagram showing the trajectory of the shells at the 17,000 yards or ten-mile range at which the British first began to land on the Germans, we find that, if the velocities given are correct, the 8.2-inch guns of the "Blucher," with an elevation of 15 degrees and 10 minutes, would have fallen on the British cruisers at an angle of 30 degrees and 46 minutes; that the 11-inch guns of the "Seydlitz" and "Moltke" bring at 11 degrees 25 minutes elevation landed their shells upon the British at an angle of 22 degrees, and that the 12-inch guns of the "Derfflinger," elevated to 10 degrees and 31 minutes, would have hit the British ships at an angle of 39 degrees and 24 minutes. This last, it will be observed, is a flatter trajectory than that of the British 12-inch and 13.5-inch guns, the angle of fall of these being, respectively, 21 degrees 10 minutes and 21 degrees 48 minutes.

The diagram showing the curves of flight and the extreme ranges at the maximum possible elevation of the various guns, brings out the surprising fact that the 8.2-inch guns of the "Blucher" were



German battleship "Schlesien" and armored cruiser "Blucher," showing high elevation of guns.

capable of throwing their shells to an extreme range of 22,000 yards, or over 3,000 yards farther than the British 13.5-inch guns. The greatest range is that of the German 50-caliber 12-inch, which can throw its shell to a distance of 15½ miles; the German 11-inch can cover 14½ miles; the German 8.2-inch, 12½ miles; the British 12-inch, 11½ miles; and the British 13.5-inch guns about 10.2 miles. It will be noted that the British 13.5-inch is outranged by the British 12-inch; which is to be accounted for by the fact that its initial velocity is 530 feet per second less.

The predisposing motive of the Germans in giving such high maximum elevation to their guns was to enable them to reach the enemy after their own ships, due to injury at the water line, had a heavy list toward the enemy. It is evident that the "Derfflinger," for instance, might be listed 15 degrees toward the enemy and still have 15 degrees of elevation available for long-range fighting. This wise provision has rendered it possible even for the lighter armor-piercing guns of the Germans to land upon the British at the great fighting ranges selected by the latter. It was the most striking reason of the 13.5-inch gun and its much heavier burning charge, coupled with better shooting and better engine-room equipment and operation, that enabled the British battle-cruisers to win the North Sea fight.

The striking energy of the projectiles at 10-mile range are: German 8-inch, 2,110-foot-tons; German 11-inch, 6,190 foot-tons; German 12-inch, 6,900 foot-tons; and British 12-inch, 8,353 foot-tons; British 13.5-inch, 12,930 foot-tons, or about 50 per cent more than that of the 12-inch gun.

When the British battle-cruisers began to land on the "Blücher," her hull was invulnerable. Only by the fire control officers a hundred feet above the deck could her whole hull be seen. Similarly, when the 13.5-inch shells began to fall out of the blue upon the "Blücher," the gunners in her turrets did not see the hull of the ship from which the projectiles came.

Among the many accounts given by participants in the North Sea fight, by far the most dramatic and instructive is that given by German survivors from the "Blücher," and published in the *London Times* and *Sphere*, from which we take the following description:

"The British ships were away on the horizon, some 15 or 16 kilometers distant, when they started to fire. Shots came slowly at first. They fell ahead and over, raising vast columns of water; now they fell astern and short. The British guns were finding the range.

Those deadly water spouts crept nearer and nearer. The men on deck watched them with a strange fascination. Soon one pitched close to the ship, and a vast water pillar, a hundred meters high one of them affirmed, fell lashing on the deck. The range had been found. *Dann der gung's last*. Now the shells came thick and fast with a horrible droning hum. At once they did terrible execution. The electric plant was soon destroyed, and the ship plunged in a darkness that could be felt. 'You could not see your hand before your nose,' said one. Down below decks there was horror and confusion, mingled with gasping shouts and moans as the shells plunged through the decks. It was only later, when the range shortened, that their trajectory flattened and they too holes in the ship's sides and raked her decks. At first they came down from the sky. The position is of particular interest; the diagram given on the adjoining page explains to what a great height the shells must have risen before they began falling toward the "Blücher's" decks.

"The shells penetrated the decks," continues the *Times* narrator. "They bored their way even to the stokehold. The men in the stokehold were set on fire. Since the bunkers were half empty the fire burned merrily. In the engine-room a shell leaped up the oil and sprayed it around in flames of blue and green, scaring its victims and blinding where it fell. Men huddled together in dark compartments, but the shells sought them out and there, Death had a rich harvest. The terrific air pressure, resulting from explosion in a confined space left a deep impression on the minds of the men of the 'Blücher.' The air, it would seem, seared through every opening and tears its way through every weak spot. All loose or insecure fittings are transformed into moving instruments of destruction. Open doors hang to and fro—and are blown from the deck outward like leaves in the wind, and through it all the bodies of men are whirled about like dead leaves in a winter blast, to be battered to death against the iron walls. In one of the engine-rooms—it was the room where the high-velocity engines for ventilation and forced draught were at work—men were picked up by that terrible *Lufdruck* like the whirl-drift at a street corner and tossed to the horizon. *Der Herrgott* said the machine. There were other horrors too fearful to recount.

"It was appalling below deck it was more than appalling above. The 'Blücher' was under the fire of so many ships. Even the little destroyers peppered her. 'It was not continuous explosion,' said a gunner. 'The ships came over the horizon and then they disappeared, leaving a smoke. Gun crews were so de-

stroyed that stalkers had to be requisitioned to carry ammunition. Men lay flat for safety. The decks presented a tangled mass of scrap iron. In one case, the only one, as they thought, undestroyed, two men continued to serve their gun. They fired it as the ship listed, adapting the elevation to the new situation. The 'Blücher' had run her course. She was lagging slowly and with the steering gear gone was beginning slowly to circle. It was seen that she was doomed. The wounded 'Blücher' finally settled down, turned wearily over, and disappeared in a swirl of water."

The Present Geographical Position of Serbia By J. Cvijic

Serbia—the country which we of English speech so long misnamed "Serren," to the great advantage of its inhabitants—has suddenly become an object of interest to the whole world, on account of the crucial role which it has furnished to the great Powers of Europe. Hence it seems timely to present the following abstract of a paper which appeared just before the outbreak of the present war in the recently founded *Bulletin of the Serbian Geographical Society*, as giving some idea of what the Serbs themselves think of the position of their country in contemporary geography.—EDITH

At present Montenegro, Serbia was the first Balkan original form, 1813-1833, it had an area of 7,790 square miles. Since that time it has spread mainly in a southerly direction. In 1833, enlarged by Prince Miloš, it attained an area of 14,570 square miles, and in 1878, after the Congress of Berlin, its surface amounted to 18,650 square miles. Since the treaty of Bucharest, 1913, the area is about 33,900 square miles. Along with those extensions in area, there has been a considerable modification of its original geographic position. It has gradually ceased to be a sort of outlying dependency of the great Pannonian basin and of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and has pushed its way south toward the center of the Balkan peninsula, along the axis indicated by the great valley of the Morava. At the same time, to a more and more marked extent, there have been added to the Danube Serbs, who constituted essentially the Serbia of Karageorge, the Serbs of the southern Morava and of the Vardar.

The territorial extension which followed the wars of 1876-78 definitely determined the development of Serbia toward the south. The country now not only included nearly the whole southern basin of the Morava and commanded the entrance to the Balkans, but also contained the focus of the two great highways intersecting the peninsula, viz., Nish, at the bifurcation of the road to Constantinople and that to Salonika. It had entered a new ethnic zone, in its spread toward Thracian and the southern Morava. This southerly movement had been forecast in the popular songs of the country, in which reappeared the names of Kosovo, Prizren, Skopje, Priepole, etc., and was stimulated by unhappy political and economic experiences in the north.

Serbia now occupies a truly central position in the Balkan peninsula, extending from the Danube to the vicinity of Salonika. To the Serbia of the Morava has been added the Serbia of the Vardar. The country possesses, through nearly its whole extent, the central artery of the peninsula. Belgrade, Nish, Skopje, and Salonika, which mark out this great natural route, are now about to assume the importance to which they are entitled. Moreover, Serbia now holds what may be termed the heart of the Balkans, viz., the region lying between Nish and Velue, and especially that including Skopje and the Oreshopolje. In this region meet and intersect, or are destined to do so, all the great highways of the peninsula. Finally, the barrier between Serbia and Montenegro formerly presented by the sanjak of Nish has now disappeared. Bosnia is cut off from the sea by the Adriatic, while Serbia is now able to gain direct access to the sea by way of Montenegro.

When we consider the progress of the civilizing influences at work in Serbia we find that the Serbs, and especially the Danube Serbs, readily respond to such influences, but at the same time have the faculty of adapting new ideas to suit the national character. Serbia, unlike the countries constituting the other two Mediterranean peninsulas, is united to Europe by a great plain. Moreover, the shortest route from Europe to the rest of the Balkan peninsula, the Aegean, and Asia Minor passes through her territory. Again, the spread of the Serbian race beyond the frontier toward the north, and west, to the Adriatic, tends to attach Serbia more intimately to Europe than any other Balkan state. Nevertheless Serbia is by no means so strongly dominated by the influence of her northern neighbors as these facts might lead one to suppose. More and more, in her intercourse with the rest of Europe, she tends to pass right over the vast Pannonian basin, the immense Hungarian plain, and to reach those people who have remained strangers to her in language, mentality and institutions. By

a curious geographic anomaly, not only is this great fertile plain devoid of any marked influence upon the rugged country which borders it to the south, but it actually plays the role of isolating the latter more effectively than a chain of mountains might do. Only two routes, Belgrade-Budapest and Belgrade-Fiume, put Serbia in communication with the countries beyond.

During a recent period, lower Austria and Bohemia were the regions which gave most to Serbia, especially in supplying the material needs of everyday life. In recent years this intercourse has very sensibly diminished. Ideas, policies, and institutions have come under the influence of western Europe. With the exception of medical students, who are still educated mainly at the Austrian universities, nearly the whole youth of Serbia obtains its higher education in more distant countries—France, Germany, Switzerland and Belgium.

Since 1913, Serbia, previously subject almost exclusively to European influences, has pushed southward into the regions of old Balkan culture—i. e., Byzantine civilization as modified by Turkey—a type of culture from which, however, Moravian Serbia had not yet had time to become completely divorced since its liberation from the Turkish yoke. This finds expression, for example, in markets of wooden booths, crooked and narrow streets, crooked-merchants selling a little of everything, household furniture, cuisine and costumes very different from those of Europe, marked contrasts between the civilization of the towns and the patriarchal life of the country, etc. Moreover, in the south Serbia has entered a zone of climates and products which are new to her.

The old Balkan culture seems destined to disappear from the Serbia of the Vardar basin as it has disappeared from Moravian Serbia, since its existence appears to be dependent upon the rule of the Turk. It will, nevertheless, leave enduring traces.

Along an extensive frontier Serbia now finds herself in contact with modern Greece. In this contact the Greek temperament will probably exercise a greater influence than the Greek culture. This is characterized by alertness, a strong commercial spirit, and intense national pride. She will also feel the influence of Salonika and the distinct type of culture of which that place is the center. Lastly, she will come more fully than in the past under various Mediterranean and Levantine influences.

On the one hand contact with Bulgaria will continue to play a neutral role, as to effects on her culture, while her new frontier with Albania will exercise a somewhat unfavorable influence in this respect.

Berlin Higher Schools and the War

THE higher educational institutions of Berlin have been greatly affected by the war, says the *Berlin Lokal Anzeiger*. Of the 7,620 men and 970 women who are enrolled as students in the university, 4,200 men and 75 women are on leave of absence for army and hospital service, and it is probable that many others have gone to the front without notifying the university authorities. Among the 25 faculties, 21 have been reduced in number. The university has 22 law-suits and 1 Englishman at the Charlottenburg Technical School, which had 2,414 students last summer; only 684 were enrolled for the winter semester and so many of these have since been called to the colors that the actual attendance is probably less than 200.

The Academy of Music, which had 213 students last summer, now has only 203 of whom 20 are foreigners. The Academy of Fine Arts, which usually has 700 students in winter, now has only 100.

The Veterinary College, which last summer was attended by 140 pupils of the Military Veterinary Academy and by 311 other students, now has a total attendance of 115 students, most of whom are now gone for military service. The attendance at the Agriculture College has fallen from 807 to 169.

The Royal Academy of Mines still has the names of 180 students on its list but 140 of these are "on leave," i. e., in the field. Finally, the High School of Commerce, which had 562 students, even in the summer now has only 372 enrolled, and only 167 in actual attendance.

Protection from Frost

IT is safe to say that much more attention has been paid to the problem of protecting plants and trees from frost in the United States than in all other countries combined. The problem is far from complete solution, however, and hence there was an ample room for the collection of memoirs on the subject which constitute almost the entire contents of the *Monthly Weather Review* for October, 1914 (published in February, 1915, by the Weather Bureau at Washington). This symposium begins with a summary review of the subject, from a physical point of view, by Dr. W. J. Humphreys, which is followed by contributions from Weather Bureau officials and others, dealing with the question practically, historically, and controversially.

Getting the Range

Instruments Which Make Gun Fire Effective at Distances Up to Ten Miles

CLOSE one eye, and then bring the tip of the index finger down upon any small object within reach and at about the level of the open eye. A man who has never tried this experiment will be astonished to find that his finger may overreach or fall short of the object by as much as an inch or more, and yet using both eyes, he could not with such accuracy as to bring two pin-heads together at the very first attempt. This shows how much we depend upon triangulation for the judging of relative distances. With a camera one may gauge distances up to one hundred feet or so by carefully noting the length of focus necessary to produce a sharp image on the ground glass. Similarly with the naked eye, we may estimate short distances by the change of focus in the eye itself, but for greater distances we have to utilize the principles of triangulation employed in range-finding.

In a loose sense of the term we are all "cross-eyed" most of the time. In order to see an object, the eyes must converge or turn in so that the optical axes will cross upon it. The nearer the object the more they turn in. It is only when day-dreaming, or looking at an object at infinite distance away, that the optical axes are strictly parallel.

Turning back to our school days, we recall that the triangle is a figure with which much mathematical juggling may be done. It possesses three sides and three angles, and if any one side and any two of the other five elements be known, the whole triangle, no matter what its shape, can be reconstructed, and the size of every angle and side be determined. Whenever we look at an object we solve unconsciously a problem in trigonometry. A triangle is formed with the eyes at two corners and the object at the third. The base of the triangle is the distance between the eyes, and the convergence of the eyes gives us two angles at each end of the base. No one bothers to find out the length of this base line or the value in degrees of the two angles, but by long practice everyone has acquired an ability to gauge the triangle by unconsciously testing the muscular strength required to turn the eyes upon the object. While few of us have learned how to gauge actual distances, we can all sense the relative size of triangles with such precision that, for objects within a short range, we can tell to a sixth fourth of an inch whether one object is nearer to us than another, because in looking from one object

to the other there is an infinitesimal contraction of the angle of convergence. The actual change in this angle is measurable in seconds of arc, and yet we can feel and gauge the slight tug of the muscles necessary to swing the eyes through this minute angle.

The reason the change of angle is so small is because the distance between the eyes is but one-fifth of a foot. But what if we had a broader eye-base? If our eyes were set apart as far as an elephant's, how much more distinctly would distant objects stand out in relief? What if we used some artificial means of virtually spreading them apart a dozen feet or more? That is what the modern range-finder does, and it is also equipped with means for measuring the convergence necessary to train the gaze upon a distant target. With a line of fixed length and the measures of the two angles at the ends of the base known, it is then a simple matter to reconstruct the triangle formed between the range-finder and the object and to determine the distance of the object from the range-finder.

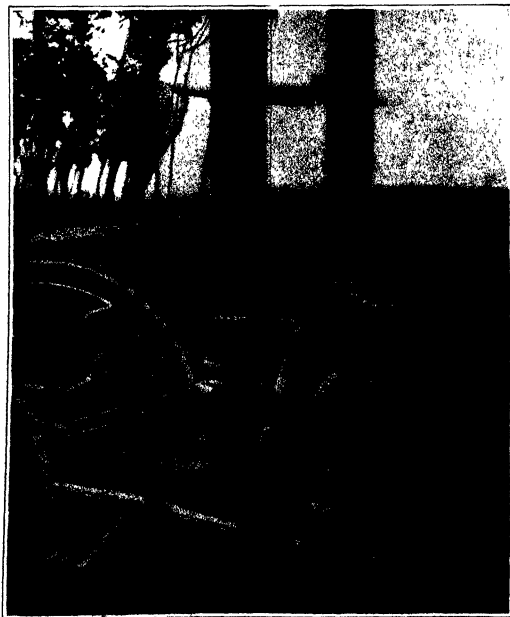
Fig. 1 shows a typical range-finder which will be seen to consist of two telescopes with a single eye-piece. In the illustration the eye-piece is shown at *A*, and it will be seen that the telescopes run at right angles to the eye-piece in opposite directions, one of the objectives being indicated at *B* and the other at *B'*, while the two crossed prisms *C* and *C'* turn the rays that enter the objective into the ocular *A*. At the ends of the range-finder tube are two pentagonal prisms, *D* and *D'*, which divert the rays entering the apertures of the range-finder, and send them at right angles into the objective. Thus, an observer at *A* will see two images, one above the other, the upper image being that which he sees through the right-hand end of the range-finder, and the lower image that which comes in at the left-hand end. The view will be something like that shown in Fig. 2. In which the upper half of the field of vision is out of register with the lower half. In order to bring the two images into coincidence, circular glass wedges *E* and *E'* are placed before the prisms *D* and *D'*. By operating a thumb screw which is not shown in Fig. 1, because it lies above the plane of the section, the two circular wedges are simultaneously rotated, bending the rays that enter the range-finder until the two images seen in the ocular are brought into coincidence. A micrometer device measures the amount of rotation necessary to

produce this result. But, instead of giving the measurement in degrees, it is calibrated to give the linear distance of the target from the range-finder. The calibration may be seen through the second eye-piece *F*, which, by means of a pair of prisms, is brought to bear upon the micrometer scale.

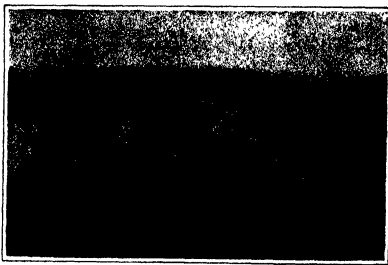
Of course, the longer the base line of the instrument the more efficient it is. Range-finders used on ships may use a base line a dozen or more feet in length, but for field service this would be entirely too bulky. The ordinary portable range-finder has a base between three and four feet long. In the case of fixed artillery in forts, ranges are found by placing observers a mile or more apart and connecting them by telephone or telegraph in such a way that they may make simultaneous observations from each end of this long base line and report to a common chart room where angles are worked out and the position of the target determined with a wonderful degree of accuracy.

Range-finding has been reduced to such a science that it is necessary to conceal batteries or guns. The battery must be kept out of sight, and it must fire at an enemy which also remains out of sight. The man who directs the firing may be at a great distance from his battery, located at some point of vantage, where he may obtain the range and signal it to his gunner. Knowing that at any moment he may become the target of the enemy's fire, and realizing the accuracy of modern artillery, it is very necessary for him also to remain concealed. Some of the methods of concealment are shown in the accompanying photographs. A system similar to that of the submarine periscope is employed in the German army, so that a man hidden behind a natural breastwork may raise his artificial eyes far above him. Even the top of the periscope is frequently disguised by wisps of straw, so that it is next to impossible for the enemy, at the enormous range of modern fighting, to discover his whereabouts.

Not only is it necessary to foretell the range, but the observer must confirm his estimate by watching the actual effect of the fire of his guns. He may find that he has underestimated the distance of the target and must signal to have the guns elevated accordingly. For such purposes a range-finder is not required, but field glasses may be used, these, also, are arranged like the periscope of a submarine to protect the observer.

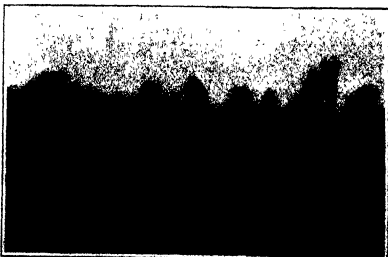


The periscope raised the eyes far above the surrounding country.



A field telescope or range-finder as used by officers of the Austrian army to study the positions of the Russian forces.

The observers, concealed behind breastworks are endeavoring to locate and determine the range of the hidden batteries of the enemy in order to direct the fire of their own guns.



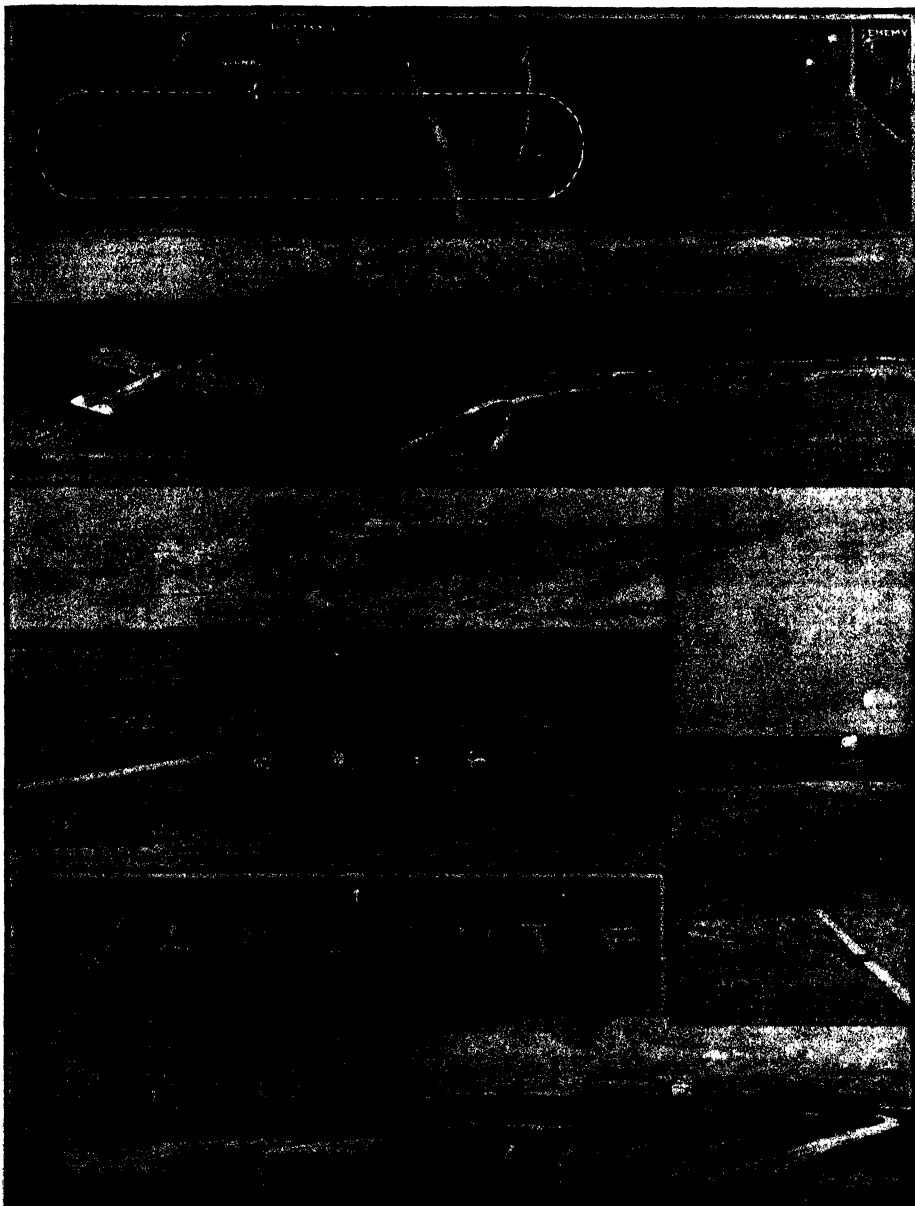
German officers watching the effect of their gun fire.

In the present war the aeroplane has proved invaluable for locating the enemy and directing the fire of artillery. Herewith is a series of pictures illustrating how the man in the sky locates and signals the range to the man behind the gun. The aviator rises to a prearranged height and, maintaining that altitude, flies in the supposed direction of the enemy. As a guide, strips of white cloth are laid on the ground. Such a guide is shown in one of the illustrations, but it will be understood that this, as well as the code letters, are

merely typical signals, and do not represent any actually in use. After the airman has located the target, he sails right over it and signals by dropping a Very's light, using one or a number grouped in some prearranged combination. Two observers near the guns with instruments between them check the distances automatically, which they can do with considerable accuracy since the aeroplane's height above the ground is known. The firing can then begin. The direction or line of firing is checked by the airman, who steers in

an elongated oval between the batteries and the enemy, signaling with Very's lights. Similarly he reports how the shells are bursting—whether short or beyond the target, or whether they are landing true.

The range-finder we have shown in Fig. 1 is merely typical of the kind usually employed. There are a great many modifications of it, too many to describe here. In some the upper half of image field is inverted, as shown in Fig. 3. This is claimed to give a better guide to perfect alignment of the two images. In other range-

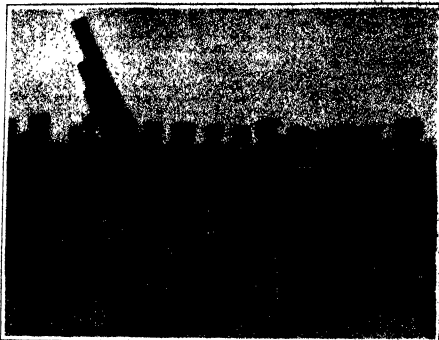


By courtesy of the Illustrated London News.

Why the flying man is indispensable to the man behind the gun: how the target is found and the range is checked.



Periscope field glasses concealed by a wisp of straw.



Japanese using a range-finder at Tsingtau.

fluids; prisms are avoided and mirrors are used instead, so as to overcome distortions due to variations of color. Yellow rays predominate if the air is saturated with moisture, red if the air is dry, and blue or blue-green on a dull, cloudy day, and so the range-finder will be found to err in overestimating or underestimating the distances, according to the state of the weather. These, however, are refinements which only concern the man who has actually to use these instruments.

There are some range-finders based on entirely different principles. From the older ones have illustrated in Fig. 1, Figs. 4 and 5 for instance show a range-finder which depends upon a knowledge of dimensions of the target. If for instance we know the height of the stack of a battleship above water, we may readily determine the distance of this target from us by measuring the height of the image produced in our field glass. Fig. 2 illustrates the principle of the device. Here we have two triangles meeting at the object glass G of the telescope, the line BC being the known height of the target and $B'C'$ the height of its image in the telescope. The two triangles are similar; hence one is as much larger than the other as $B'C'$ is larger than $B'C$. The method of measuring $B'C'$ is shown in Fig. 4.

Attached to the eyepiece of the telescope is a device containing a pair of disk, prism or wedge-shaped plates of glass, which may be adjusted by means of a micrometer screw to elevate a part of the image. When, as in Fig. 1, the elevation is sufficient to bring the water-line of the part seen through the prism to a level with the smokestack shown in the rest of the image field, the height of the image of the smokestack above the water is measured on the micrometer scale. Instead of giving this height in fractions of an inch, the device may be set for a unit height when the scale will give the actual distance of the object. In this case, for instance, the height of the smokestack may be 25 yards above the water and the observer may know that for such a height each mark represents a hundred yards. As the observer found it necessary to turn the scale until 25 came opposite the marker, he knows at once that the battleship is 2,500 yards away.

It is seldom that one can depend upon an instrument of this sort because the enemy may so readily change the dimensions of his ship and thus deceive the observer. However, this device may be used in conjunction with an ordinary range-finder, so that once the distance of the ship has been discovered, this simple instrument will show whether it is moving farther away or toward the observer and at what rate. For this reason it has been termed a "range keeper."

Another range-finding device depends upon the known height of the observer above water level. This instrument, of course, can be used only on the sea or in taking observations from the land on objects at sea. As is commonly known, the horizon lies always practically at the level of the eye, so that a line running from the eye to the horizon is practically a horizontal line. A truly horizontal line may be obtained by taking observations on the horizon fore and aft, at the same time, with a double telescope. As is shown in the insert in Fig. 6, the apparent horizon or truly horizontal line is indicated by the line KL , and I is the angle it makes with the object located at M . The observer knows his height above water level, which is LN , and drawing a

line from M to N , we have a right-angled triangle LMN , in which the line LN , being also horizontal, is parallel to the line KL . Now, the angle I must equal the angle m , as our geometries taught us long ago, and we have thus a triangle in which one side LM and two angles m and n are known. With this knowledge we can easily estimate the length of the side LM or MN and

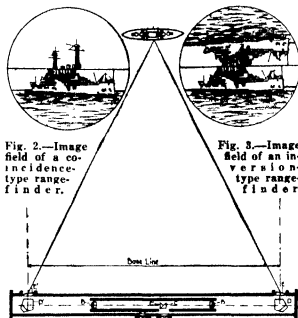


Fig. 2.—Image field of a coincidence-type range-finder.

Fig. 3.—Image field of an inversion-type range-finder.

Fig. 1.—Diagrammatic view of a typical range-finder.

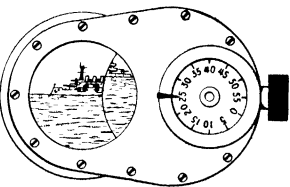


Fig. 4.—Instrument for measuring the image of an object of known height.

Fig. 5.—Range finding based on similar triangles.

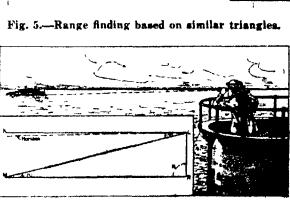


Fig. 6.—Range finding in which the observer's height above the sea serves as a base line.

determine the distance of the target M from the top or the bottom of the tower. The advantage of this system, of course, lies in the fact that it gives the observer a broad base line to work with, and thus enables him to determine the position of the target with greater accuracy.

The Death of H. Ward Leonard

H. WARD LEONARD, electric engineer and inventor, once associated with Thomas A. Edison, died suddenly of apoplexy recently at the Hotel Astor.

Mr. Leonard was born in Cincinnati in 1861, and graduated from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The following year, at the age of 23, he became associated with Thomas A. Edison as a member of his staff of engineers to introduce his central station system. A few years later he was made superintendent of the Western Electric Light Company of Chicago, and a year later formed the firm of Leonard & Iard, which made many important installations of central stations and electric railways. In 1880 the firm was bought out by the Edison interests and Mr. Leonard became general manager of the combined Edison interests for the United States and Canada, with headquarters in this city.

In 1891 he completed his inventions of the Ward Leonard system of motor control, and in 1892 he gave the world his multiple voltage system, designed for operating motors and electric lights in factories. The value of the Ward Leonard system of control was demonstrated in battle during the Spanish-American war, when it was used on one turret of the "Brooklyn." After the war it was generally adopted by the United States Navy, and all of the ships were equipped with it with a few unimportant exceptions.

Another of Mr. Leonard's important inventions was the double-arm circuit breaker, which has come into almost universal use. Other important inventions are his lighting system for trains and automobiles and his form of change gear, which is now used in most high-grade motorcars. His system of motor control was applied to the moving sidewalk at the Paris Exposition of 1904 after many ineffectual attempts to operate it by other systems, and was a feature of the exposition.

Mr. Leonard was a prolific inventor, having taken out over a hundred patents, including many connected with electric power, light and transportation systems. He was the founder of the H. Ward Leonard Manufacturing Company of Bronxville, N. Y.

Farming in Siberia

WE have inherited from the traditions of the past the idea that Siberia is a country with a not very fruitful soil. Yet in the last few years very decided advances in farming have been made there, as a result of the efforts of the Russian government to arouse the native peasants and settlers to a more intensive cultivation of the ground. In the western section of the country, so the German Journal *Prometheus* tells us, large associations of farmers have been organized for the export of their products. In 1912 butter to the value of 7,000,000 rubles (a ruble is about 71 cents) was exported. In 1913 this amount had doubled, for in this year butter to the value of 14,500,000 rubles was sold to Germany, Austria-Hungary, and England. In 1912 experiments were made in the manufacture of the English Cheddar cheese. After several failures the cheese, which is very popular in Great Britain, was so successfully imitated that in 1913 England imported 49 tons of Siberian Cheddar. The trade is carried on by ships directly from the interior of Siberia to London.

Doing Without Europe—VI

How Research Developed the Paint Industry: the Attitude of Our Bankers Toward Research

PERHAPS no better example of the part that organized research can play in our industries could be cited than the truly marvelous development of the American paint industry. The whole mixed paint industry of our day is to a large extent dependent on exact chemical and physical knowledge of the composition and effect of pigments. The making of paint and varnish products in a haphazard manner by untrained men, through closely guarded secret processes, has been stripped of its secrecy and its false importance. The new materials entering into paints immediately became the subject of exhaustive study. Their chemical composition, physical properties, and actual value were determined with accuracy and kept subject to careful chemical control. Traditional beliefs were shown to be based upon ignorance. Newer commodities were gradually developed and their value proved. The principles of science were applied to the various processes of manufacture. Newer and better designed machinery and equipment were provided. Savings were effected at various places and wastes were largely eliminated. As a result of these changes the industry forced rapidly ahead.

In discussing the development of the paint industry along scientific lines Mr. Maximilian Toch has pointed out that ten years ago the interior walls of buildings were generally left bare and in an unattractive condition. The production by the manufacturer, through the use of new pigments and oils, of a wall paint which would dry to a soft, velvety flat finish, and which could be easily and economically applied, created a wider desire for wall decoration. People started to look for the walls of their homes, offices, and their factories. With this newly-created demand for the newer paints came a proportionate demand for the services of the painter to apply them. In creating a market for their paints, the grinders also created a market for the services of the painter. For every million dollars' worth of paint sold, there came requirements for at least two million dollars' worth of painting labor. The cost of applying paint is always at least twice the cost of the paint applied.

There are now many paint and varnish specialties. The special white enamels which were recently introduced were looked upon a few years ago as of questionable necessity. Nevertheless it would be hard to estimate the enormous amount of painting business which has resulted primarily from the efforts of the grinder in introducing and popularizing such enamels. The nation-wide advertising of such products by the producers created a desire among home owners to have the interior trim of their dwellings done in white glossy enamel. The beautiful appearance of such work attracted others to call upon the painter for similar work. Today the amount of such products which are sold and used will probably run up into the millions. If the grinder had not produced and created a demand for such enamels, the thought of enamels or enamelling would probably never have occurred to the property owner and the painter would have had much less work to do.

What Research Has Done for the Paint Industry.

As soon as the chemist entered the paint industry, such vehicles as soya bean and China wood oils received marked attention. China wood oil is today such a necessity that the revolution in China brought the price of the oil up to \$1.10 and proved thereby that the oil was indispensable to the paint and varnish maker at any price. When the price of turpentine reached \$1.13 a gallon in March, 1911, the United States Navy decided that industrial research would enable it to obtain a good turpentine substitute from petroleum. The Government is now buying thousands of millions of turpentine substitute for which it pays from 12 to 15 cents per gallon. As the navy purchased in 1910 about \$70,000 worth of turpentine, this innovation has had a tremendous effect on the turpentine market, and the chances are that it will never see such an abnormally high price again.

The beautifully gray which the Government has partially adopted for the navy in made of 45 per cent zinc oxide and 45 per cent barium sulphate, with the necessary tinting material to produce the shade. A paint made of such materials costs about 25 per cent less than the lead and zinc paints which were formerly used. The results showed that the zinc oxide and barium sulphate paint dried with a harder film and was not affected by salt water as much as the lead paint formerly used.

A similar condition of affairs has developed in the miscellaneous departments of the large railroads of the United States, and they have come to realize that no single pigment is as good as a mixture of pigments, and no single pigment is as good as a pigment which con-

This is the concluding installment of a series of articles on the possibilities of industrial research, not only by relieving the strain under which some manufacturers find themselves because they have been cut off from their European base of supplies, but also in building up new manufacturing enterprises. The Editor will be glad to answer any questions that may suggest themselves to our readers and to assist them in securing the right kind of expert advice in bettering their manufacturing processes.—EDITOR.

tains a reinforcing material in limited amounts.

There could well be a further great enlargement of the field of industrial research in special industries through the initiative and support of national trade associations, to the great benefit of their membership, as Mr. Arthur D. Little pointed out. The American Paper and Pulp Association, he maintains justly, should subsidize studies in the utilization of waste sulphite liquors, the paper-making qualities of unusual woods and fibers, the hydration of cellulose, the proper use of slum, and so on. The American Institute of Metals could not do better than initiate investigations into zinc losses, the physical properties of alloys, and the production of alloys to specifications defining the properties desired, the application of the electric furnace to the industry, and the preparation of new alloys by electric and other methods. A similar opportunity knocks at the door of the American Foundrymen's Association. Some few associations, like those of the Bakers and the Laundrymen, are already active to good purpose; others, like the Yellow Pine Lumber Manufacturers' Association, are aroused, but, to the great majority of those powerful organizations, research is still an academic question to be considered by their members individually if they so choose. Every industry has, however, its broad research problem, and its points especially vulnerable to research attack, among which it should be easy to select those of general interest to the industry as a whole.

The National Camera's Association, a large and representative organization of food packers, came to the conclusion that for the good of their own industry it was necessary for individual subscribers to provide a fund of money for investment in research work. In order to study the possibilities of this field, this association began its work in a conservative way with the help of the Institute of Industrial Research of Washington. After several years' experience had been gained with respect to the value of such systematic research work, the National Camera's Association decided to organize and build for themselves in the city of Washington a national research laboratory to study the problems of their industry and to enable their members to increase and develop the quality of their products, and thus enable them to conform with the law, rules, and regulations issued under the Food and Drugs Act of 1906. It is almost needless to state here that the example set by the National Camera's Association might well be followed by many other trade organizations in this country, none of which probably need to benefit by this example more than the National Association of Retail Druggists and the American Pharmaceutical Association.

Other special industries have evinced the greatest possible interest in the value of industrial research. Thus, in 1900 the American Railway Engineering Association took the matter in hand and studied the influence and extent of segregation of specific impurities in iron and steel. The great railway systems have been quick to co-operate in those researches, which, with others of fundamental importance, have been extended by the American Society for Testing Materials, the Master Car Builders' Association, and other organizations. Materials of construction have constituted a fertile subject of inquiry in the structural materials testing laboratory of the United States Geological Survey as well as in the Bureau of Standards.

The Attitude of the Banker Toward Industrial Research.

But there is another side to this question of industrial research. Our bankers have been rather apathetic to the commercial possibilities of scientific investigation. They must see things more concretely before they take an interest in their exploitation financially. A machine, however crude and imperfect, has a tangible existence; a scheme for extracting theobromine from coconut shells resembles a lunatic's dream. That is why we have developed machinery rather than processes.

In 1894 Acheson, the discoverer of carborundum and artificial graphite, laid before his directors a scheme

for moving to Niagara Falls. To quote his own words: "To build a plant for two or three millions is due to the fact that we were selling only one half of the output, of a 154-horse-power plant was a trifle too much for my conservative directors, and they one and all resigned. Fortunately, I was in control of the destiny of the Carborundum Company. I organized a new board proceeded with my plans, and in the year 1904 the thirty-fourth from the date of the discovery, had a plant equipped with 5,000 electrical horsepower and produced over seven million pounds of those specks I had picked off the end of the electric light carbon in the spring of 1891."

Contrast this experiment of Acheson's with financial men with Charbonnet's relations to his backers. "On doing made a dead failure of his starting silk process when he tried it out commercially, not once but four times, but financial assistance was given him, instead of condemning him as a fraud or fakel and the process as a schand. German chemical firms spent millions before a dollar's worth of goods was marketed. The chances are that an industrial chemist in this country who could not revolutionize our conditions or produce ideal results in a few months time, would be fired for not knowing his business." In the words of Prof. Robert Kennedy Duncan:

A prominent industrial chemist put the matter to the writer of these articles in the following terms:

"We have no medicinal paint industry in this country, although the risk involved in starting an industry is small and the profits to be made enormous. Take menthol, as an example. It is one of the most widely used of plant derivatives. The source is a Japanese mint, so carefully guarded by the Japanese government that seeds can be obtained only with the greatest difficulty. I have succeeded in securing some of this seed and Japanese mint for new foundations of my experimental farm. Highbills, boldness, and similar drugs plants are also growing. I sink in this experiment many thousand dollars, confident that the investment will pay rich dividends. I need about \$45,000 to establish a profitable medicinal plant industry in America surely no extravagant sum. (Can I interest a banker in an asset? No. Why? Because he cannot grasp the possibilities of chemistry. If I wanted to establish a poultry farm I would have no difficulty whatever in raising \$45,000. That is because bankers know something about hens and eggs."

Why the War Cannot be Preserved in Motion

Pictures

By Ernest A. Dench

BRITAIN has been adversely criticized even by its own countrymen, for not availing itself of motion picture photography to bring the great war before future generations. But despite all these well-meant appeals, the British authorities have been obstinate in taking action in the matter. Their attitude, in less informed quarters, has been attributed to their characteristic conservatism, but such is not the case this time.

For many years British scientists have been studying the problem of whether the film will retain its good properties after years of age. They have made the discovery that after an unused film has been placed in an airtight vault for five years, fungal growths cover the celluloid, thus proving that, when put to the actual test, the proposition of preserving motion pictures a hundred years or more can be dismissed right away. As yet the chemicals used to develop and print the film, and the celluloid on which it is made cannot stand the test of time. It will only be when a more permanent substance is discovered by scientists that this will become a feasibility.

The authorities of the British Museum, which is the official repository for historical records, also have a reason for their reticence. They decline to store film because of its highly inflammable nature. The only way to get over this would be to erect a special vault, which the authorities decline to do. You can, therefore, realize that, for once in a while, the versatility of the motion picture has been over-estimated.

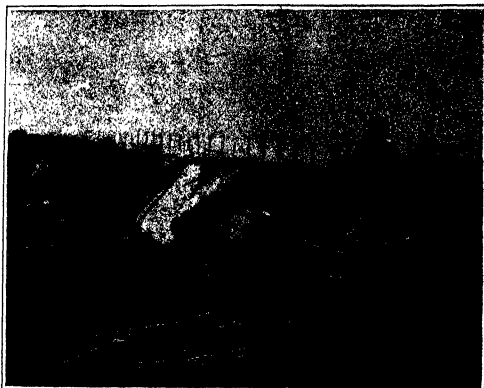
On the other hand the German government is said to be taking motion pictures of the war, despite fungal growths and the danger from fire.

Winds Favorable to Forest Fires.—The Weather Bureau has recently made some study of the meteorological conditions favoring the occurrence of forest fires, and has tentatively established a special service for issuing warnings of the hot, dry winds which seem to be a frequent antecedent and accompaniment of such fires in the valuable timbered regions of the West.



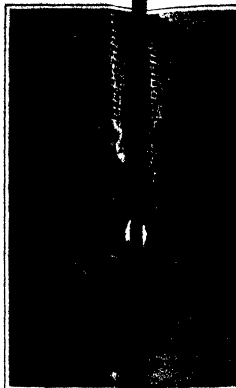
Photograph from Underwood & Underwood

The armored car of a French military dirigible of the Astra-Torres type



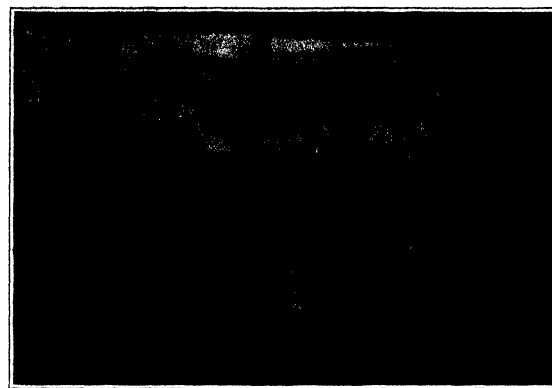
Copyright by Underwood & Underwood

Belgian dams hold back the floods from Nieuport to Barrescapes and prevent the water from encroaching on the Allier.



Photograph from Underwood & Underwood

A mortar captured by the Germans near Nieuport



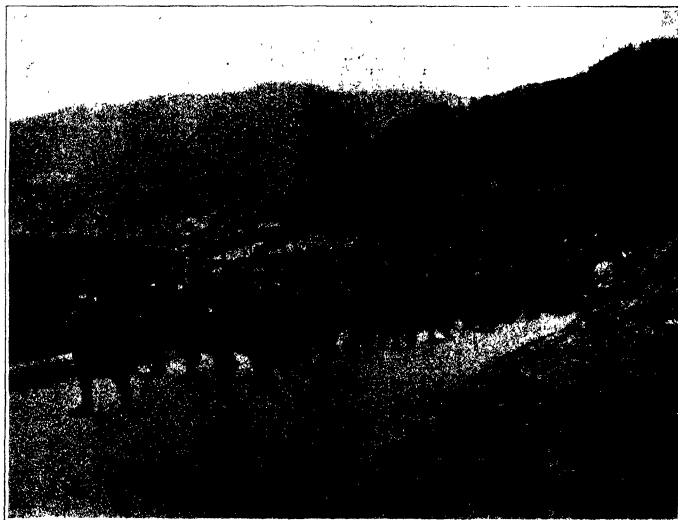
Photograph from Underwood & Underwood

Training English recruits to carry pontons. These men will soon be erecting bridges across streams under fire.



Photograph by Paul Thompson

A German machine gun company on the eastern battleground.



Photograph by Underwood

A company of French Alpine chasseurs on the march in the Vosges Mountains. Alpine stocks are part of their military equipment.



Copyright by Underwood & Underwood

One of the French guns in the act of firing. A special track must be laid for the transportation of the gun.



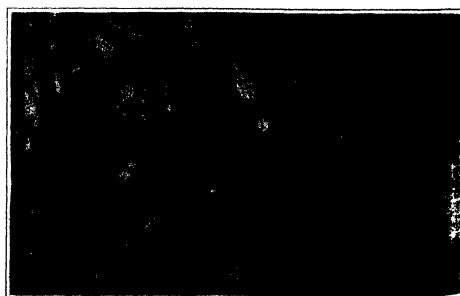
Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

The German trenches at Solissons are surrounded with palisades. The German soldiers are seen resting during an interval in the fighting.



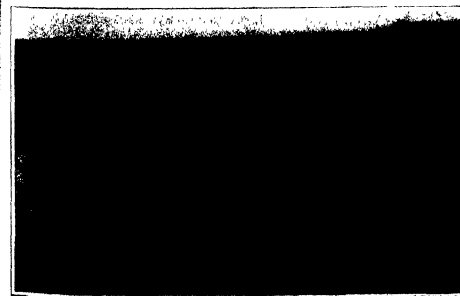
Photograph by Underwood

A French cavalry regiment and its supply wagons encamped in a public square.



Photograph by Underwood

French soldiers encamped in a public park waiting the order to march.



Photograph from Paul Thompson

The brickworks at Dürkheim destroyed by a Russian 15-centimeter shell.



Photo. by Sport & General War Service

French soldiers guarding the road examine all vehicles to inspect passes.

	ARROW TYPE BIPLANE AGO has seats far apart. Passenger immediately behind engine. Pilot placed half way along fuselage. ALBATROSS has rectangular section fuselage with no internal cross bracing. Rigidity given by three-ply wood covering screwed on fuselage longways. Aluminium engine casing with large inspection doors. Radiator placed above engine. AVIATIK (1913-14) Turret back extends to rear of pilot's cockpit, which is placed farther forward than usual owing to slight back-sweep of planes.
	TRACTOR BIPLANE AVIATIK (1913-15) Contrary to usual custom employs rotary engine—114 horse-power Oberkassel. Steel tube struts of stream line section connect main planes, which have very slight rearward slope. Monoplane type cabane serves as anchorage for center portion of top plane. Lighter construction throughout than usual on German machines.
	ARROW TYPE BIPLANE ROLAND (L. F. G.) Vertical dihedral angle of lower plane very pronounced. Rudder, hinged to rear edge of tail fin, is mounted wholly above elevator. Fuel tank is placed between passenger and pilot. D. F. W. (1913-14) Fuselage, tapering to horizontal knife-edge at rear, is built entirely of steel. Struts and cross members, made of steel tubes, are secured to longways by steel clips and acetylene welding. Cross bracing wires are attached to these clips.
	ARROW TYPE BIPLANE D. F. W. (1914-15) Upper plane as considerably in advance of lower. Both have wing tips of distinctive form. Steel construction is used throughout. Chassis copied from Morane. Empennage resembles that of new Rampler Toule. With 120 horse-power Austro-Daimler engine it develops speed of 85 miles per hour.
	TRACTOR BIPLANE ETRICH These machines differ in only minor points (See general description). ALBATROSS Chassis interchangeable with that of biplane. D. F. W. Has cable as well as girder bracing. Chassis consists of two wheels and central axle bent upward in front to meet fuselage. Used mainly for school work. KUNOW Fuselage of circular section. JEANNEE Latest model has cable instead of girder bracing. Radiator carried above engine. Chassis similar to D. F. W. GOTHA High turtle back along top of fuselage. A plowshare-like brake operated from pilot's seat is attached to chassis. RUMPLER (1913-14) Very deep and narrow fuselage. Rectangles are cut out of inner front portion of wings for observation.
	TRACTOR BIPLANE A. E. G. Back sweep wing tips to overhanging upper plane. Fuselage rectangular in front, triangular at rear. Flying elevator employed. Balanced rudder is placed above tail plane. Chassis consists of two wheels to take weight and small third wheel in front to protect tractor in bad landing.
	TRACTOR BIPLANE RUMPLER (1914-15) Wing bracing is by stranded cables instead of girder. Astrons are used in place of flexing wing tips. Flexing elevator and double rudders are replaced by hinged elevating flaps and single rudder attached to stern post. RUMPLER (1914-15) Chassis is of Arrow type. JATHO Steel used throughout even to wing ribs. Standard tanks carry sufficient fuel for 7 hours. As speed is 78 miles per hour radius of action is about 275 miles.
	TRACTOR BIPLANE L. V. G. Although leading edge of planes slope back in plan trailing edge is straight. Both planes are set at dihedral angle. Chassis is composed of two main wheels and central axle having small auxiliary wheel at its front end. Skid may be removed to reduce head resistance.
	ARROW TYPE BIPLANE HARLAN Zenobia type wings are swept back in arrow form and set at a pronounced dihedral angle. Fuselage very deep and narrow. Planes uncovered for a distance of one foot on each side of fuselage to provide downward turn. Chassis has two wheels and central axle.
	TRACTOR BIPLANE BUREAU Little changed in last five years. Rectangular fuselage, partially covered in, tapers to vertical knife edge at rear. Elevator mounted below fuselage. Semi-balanced rudder hinged to stern post. Passenger in two-seater placed well behind trailing edge of wings. "Total Vision" model has plane mounted on level with occupant's eyes, reducing dead angle of vision to almost zero. Chassis of "deformable triangle" type having high head resistance.
	TRACTOR BIPLANE BUREAU Fuselage is composed of four steel tubes connected with struts, cross-members and diagonal bracing. On this structure are mounted wooden distance pieces joined by longitudinal stringers which give fuselage its stream-line form, the whole being covered with fabric. Only one row of interplane struts is employed. Tail is cruciform in shape, and is attached to fuselage by struts and post. An ingenious three-wheeled chassis is used.
	TRACTOR BIPLANE Caudron Main spars of planes are close together and the trailing edge is flexible making for stability in gusts. Upper plane has considerably greater span than lower. Short nacelle contains seats for passenger and pilot arranged in tandem. Chassis consists of two pairs of wheels and two axles extending backward to form lower tail booms toward which upper booms converge. Twin rudders are mounted on top of stabilizing plane with which flexing elevator is incorporated. A single seated biplane with fuselage and hinged divided elevator is also made; two planes are of equal span.

The Flying Machines of the Warring Powers A Comparison of the Military Aeroplanes of France, England and Germany

By John Jay Ide

THE various types of aeroplanes used in warfare may be classified as follows:

1. The single seated scout of exceptional climbing powers for long range reconnaissance in any wind and of such speed as to be able to escape from any type of fighting machine produced up to the present. In this class France has the Daperdussin, Ponnier, Morane, Clement-Bayard and Nieuport. The Bleriot and R.E.F. although distinctly inferior in speed also come under this head. England possesses the Avro, Sopwith and Bristol Scout or "Tabloid" biplanes. Single seaters are almost unknown in Germany and probably none are used in the army. In this connection, however, it should be noted that many two seaters are used as single seaters, the excess lifting power being utilized in carrying a larger quantity of bombs and fuel.

2. The fast two seated reconnaissance machine capable of carrying in addition to the observer a moderate number of bombs. In France all the makers of one seated monoplanes produce this type, and, in addition, there are two small biplanes: Caudron and Goupy. England has, besides those mentioned above, Blackburn and Martinsyde (monoplanes, not much used), and R.A.F. Vickers and Grahame-White. In Germany a few Tauben and the latest Aviatik and D.F.W. Arrow biplanes come under this head.

3. A machine having only moderate speed but a great radius of action. The large supporting struts renders it capable of carrying a large load of bombs and darts. In France the Henry and Maurice Farman, Breguet, Vossin and the Paul Schmitt represent this class. In England Grahame-White and Short build great weight carriers. The bulk of German machines are included in this division.

A few machines of types 2 and 3 carry machine guns. Where a tractor screw is employed, however, the firing arc is very limited except when the gun fires over the tractor as described in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for April 11th, 1914.

England's Aeroplane Policy.

The early English biplanes were simply copies of the H. Farman of the period. In 1911 Mr. A. V. Roe brought out a fuselage tractor biplane which was widely imitated. The powers that be have always discouraged monoplanes and, for some time, prohibited their use in the army. The British government in the past did little to encourage the home industry, buying many H. Farman and establishing a factory of its own where the Royal Aircraft Factory biplanes are made. One R.A.F. model known as "Mark B E" was very deficient in spiral stability, having no fin area to neutralize the fuselage walls forward. The latest type, "Mark E," is well designed and inherently stable to some extent.

The typical British biplane has a rectangular section fuselage stream lined on top and imitating a Gnome motor at the bow. The pilot and passengers are seated in tandem, the former in the rear.

Staggered planes have become quite popular especially on single seaters. With this construction the gap can be made smaller without loss in efficiency and better observation is obtained. The new Scouts have only one pair of interplane struts on each side of the fuselage.

Twin elevating flaps are hinged to the rear of the flat stabilizing plane. The balanced rudder is attached to the stern post of the fuselage.

Where France Stands.

Until 1913 French government orders were distributed freely among all the better firms, but in that year this system was changed and orders were confined to a few favored factories. This had the effect of driving a number of firms out of business, a state of affairs no doubt bitterly regretted at present when the government cannot get machines quickly enough to make good the great wastage. During 1913 there was also very little encouragement given to French pilots, the only two competitions of importance being the Monte Carlo Hydro-aeroplane meet and the Gordon Bennett Cup, neither incidentally being of much value in developing the army machines. In consequence many pilots were forced to give up aviation as a profession. For some months before the war strong rumors were afloat to the effect that the government intended to start an aeroplane plant of its own as had been done in England to the detriment of the private manufacturer.

French machine makers had their features described so often in the columns of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN that it is unnecessary to repeat them here. Some of the outstanding features of the two most successful war machines France possesses—the Morane and Caudron—are mentioned alongside their silhouettes. It has been found that these machines excel in climbing ability which is far more important than mere horizontal speed. By it one is enabled to escape or attack the enemy as will, if the latter alternative is chosen the most advantageous position can be secured.

Rotary motors are used almost exclusively. They require so much care that they have not given satisfaction in the war. The principal advantage of the rotary motor—lightness—is largely neutralized on long journeys by the greater weight of fuel necessary as compared with the stationary type.

New Germany Has Developed.

German aircraft firms and pilots have received strong financial support since the inception of the industry. In the last two years a number of competitions have been held with very large prizes distributed in certain proportions to the winning pilots and makers of the successful aeroplanes and engines. Liberal prizes were also given for important isolated performances. Owing to this encouragement Germany possessed at the beginning of the war a very large and well trained aviation corps and a score of flourishing manufacturers producing machines to government approved specifications. The aeroplane fleet is remarkably homogeneous, many different marques having almost the same carrying capacity, speed and radius of action.

Most of the early German machines were absolute copies—sometimes authorized, more often not—of existing French types. In 1910 the Etrich Taube (dove) came into prominence, being manufactured by Rumpler to the designs of Igo Etrich, an Austrian engineer. The wing shape was derived from the Zanolini leaf, and Herr Etrich had been building monoplanes on this principle since 1907. As this machine is typical of a large class of monoplanes a short description may be given.

The wings have the least swept upturned tips floored up and down for the maintenance of lateral stability. Instead of the usual system of lower bracing cables, a biplane type of bracing is secured by means of a boom running some distance out from the fuselage below and parallel with the plane to which it is connected by short struts diagonally cross-wired. The outermost strut is continued upward above the plane, forming a king post to which the cables keeping the wing tips in their upturned positions are attached.

The fuselage of regular trapezoidal section with the wider base above is provided with a turtle back along its entire length. The flexing elevator forming a continuation of the tail plane divides the rudder into two sections, each preceded by a small fin. Pilot and passenger sit in tandem, the latter being placed forward for observation purposes. The landing chassis of the Bf.100 type increases the great head resistance caused by the complicated bracing system. The Tauben, however, have a high degree of inherent stability.

The great majority of German biplanes belong to the Arros type, so-called from the backward sweep of the planes. The lower plane is also given a slight dihedral angle as viewed from the front. Lateral stability is maintained by ailerons fitted to the upper plane only. Pilot and passenger are placed in separate cockpits as in the Taube. The top of the fuselage, which tapers to a vertical knife-edge at the stern, is covered with a turtle-back. Twin elevators are hinged to the stabilizing plane and the unbalanced rudder is preceded by a small fin. The tail planes are protected against contact with the ground by a short swivelling skid. The chassis is generally of the simplest type consisting of two pairs of streamline steel tube struts, each pair of which forms a V as seen from the side. A tubular axle sprung by rubber shock absorbers and carrying two disk wheels rests in the angle formed by the converging struts.

The rotary engine is almost unknown in Germany. The favorite motor is the 100 horse-power 6 cylinder vertical Mercedes, although 4 cylinder Anzani motors of 100 and 150 horse-power are also much used. The motor is mounted on the bow of the fuselage driving a tractor screw. On the latest Rumpler Taube the Mercedes motor is inverted thus slightly lowering the center of gravity and improving the vision. The greatest difficulty, that of lubrication, has been surmounted. Twin radiators are generally employed, one being mounted on each side of the fuselage.

The Germans are certainly wise in employing the stationary motor, if only on account of its ability to withstand neglect. It is doubtful, however, if the vertical type will survive when higher powers are desired. The V type offers much greater freedom from vibration.

One of the greatest difficulties to be faced by the armistice is the locating of aeroplanes in the field. In this respect France has the easiest task as St. Cyr and other permanent bases are comparatively near the central portion of the battle line. Incidentally these bases are also within range of German machines.

For weeks at a time machines have to be kept in hastily established aviation parks some distance behind the trenches. Of course all the nations have demountable hangars in use but it is equally certain that they are not in sufficient numbers to house a large proportion of the machines. It is not to be expected, therefore, that, between the enemy and the elements, aeroplanes last any great length of time. The wastage in fact is simply enormous and the factories of the countries at

(Continued on page 224.)

DEPERDURIN. Monocone fuselage of circular section cutting down head resistance to a minimum. Gond curve is secured by very large stream lined strut box. Chassis consists of U-shaped steel lined struts from which is slung, by rubber shock absorbers, a tubular axle carrying a pair of disk wheels. Stabilizing plane is slightly cambered. Rudder is attached to small wing lar fin.



NIEUPOORT. Wings are of so-called Phillips' sections having reverse curve at rear. Rectangular fuselage is very deep in region of seats. These features are also employed in Ponnier monoplane, flutted machine in construction. Wing wrapping of Nieuport was accomplished by hand labor instead of fast bus. This model is armored and carries a mitrailleuse. Usual chassis consists of central skid and two wheels connected by steel leaf spring axle, but most chassis resembles Morane.



MORANE. One of the most popular machines in army. Fuselage tapers to horizontal knife edge at stern. There is no fixed stabilizing plane, but small tail fins are fitted on latest models. The two wheels of landing chassis are connected by an axle resting in angle formed by two pairs of converging struts. "Parasol" type monoplane also manufactured. In this model plane is over occupants' heads improving downward vision. Chassis can also set upward as rear of plane is cut out.



HENRI FARMAN. Pilot sits in bow, passenger behind him, both well ahead of leading edge of planes. Larger models have nacelle mounted on lower plane, but new scouting model has nacelle flush with upper plane. Center of gravity is thus very high, although lower plane has only 15 foot spread. Chassis is elementary, consisting merely of a wheel mounted at each end of lower plane. On larger models two sets of coupled wheels and short skids are used. Tail booms form a V as seen in plan.



MATRIE FARMAN. Contrary to usual practice Renault V-type motor drives geared-down propeller. Nacelle mounted between planes so that line of thrust passes through center of gap. Upper plane has considerable overhang. Tail booms on each side meet at empennage. Twin radiators mount monoplane tail, angle of incidence of which can be adjusted.



R. F. P. Heavy, strong, and rather stout. Fuselage, of pentagonal section for wind and triangular section in rear, is constructed entirely of steel tubes riveted together. Tail plane to which elevator flaps are hinged is mounted flush with top of fuselage. Large tail fin carries machine. Very stable, spacially. Steel chassis consists of two independent wheels and central skid.



AVRO. Original fuselage tractor biplane. Several models have staggered planes set at slight dihedral angle. Top of fuselage is fitted with turtle back. Chassis is composed of two wheels and central skid modeled after Nieuport. Balanced rudder is mounted between elevator flaps. A single scissor with back except planes and a "pusher" type biplane similar to Grahame-White are also made.



BRISTOL. Rectangular fuselage is stream lined above and below. Planes are of psittac section, being flat on upper surface between main spars. Tail plane on two-spars is set at negative angle, on single-spacer it is parallel with line of flight. Rudder of large model is placed above undivided elevator. Chassis consists of four struts carrying two skids from which an sprung four wheels. Single-scissor has two-sheeled chassis, staggered planes and divided elevator.



GRAHAME-WHITE. Resembles H. Farman practice except that four-bladed geared-down propeller is used instead of direct drive type. Simple two-sheeled chassis is used. On top of stabilizing plane is small fin supported by counter air side area of nacelle, but it is too near main planes to have much effect.



VICKERS. Passenger occupies front seat instead of being seated behind pilot as in Grahame-White. Tail booms are longer. Chassis consists of a couple of skids and wheels attached to a tubular axle. Ailerons are fitted to upper plane only, which has considerable overhang.



R. A. F. Lower plane is set at a dihedral angle which, with good weight disposition, gives a certain amount of inherent stability. Chassis consists of two long skids attached to fuselage by four struts. Axle carrying two wheels is slung from skids by rubber shock absorbers. Observation is not very good as passenger sits behind engine hood between planes. A 120 horse-power Austro-Daimler engine drives a four-bladed tractor through gearing.



NORTH. Speed range from 55 to 92 miles per hour with pilot, passenger, and fuel for three hours. This with an 80 horse-power engine. Chassis is similar to R. A. F. on smaller scale. Rectangular fuselage with turtle-back tapers to vertical knife edge at stern post to which is hinged balanced rudder. Pilot and passenger sit side by side, former being on left. Top plane is staggered forward 1 foot and has slightly greater angle of incidence than lower.



SHORT. Follows orthodox lines, but is larger than most British machines. Ailerons are attached only to upper plane, which has considerable overhang. Lower plane has bifurcated shaped tips. Passenger and pilot sit in tandem, pilot to rear. There is no vertical tail fin, but empennage is placed well to rear. Chassis is composed of wheels and skids. Short Brothers with Sopwith are also noted as most successful manufacturers of aeroplanes.



Improvised Means of Crossing Rivers

Some Examples of Military Resourcefulness in Emergencies

THE crossing of streams during military operations is commonly effected by the use of trestle or ponton bridges built by the engineer corps. But in time of war it often happens that the services of the engineers are not to be had, and a detachment of cavalry, infantry, or artillery is obliged to cross a stream by any means that it can find. In France the infantry is skilled in constructing light bridges of footways upon barrels, or upon trestles consisting of light poles driven into the river bed. Again the men often have to cross streams upon improvised floats of various kinds.

Barrels can be very well used as a base for the bridge platform by lashing a number together in the shape of a raft. The best way is to use two ranges of barrels, placed end to end, the raft thus being two barrels wide and half a dozen or more in length. Such a raft is held together by a timber framing 6 feet wide and 25 feet long. Then the rest of the bridge is laid in the main net of the usual raft bridge.

Trestle bridges can be constructed in a variety of ways, using either small live trunks or other light timber poles and the like, and each trestle has from 2 to 4 feet of uprights planted in the stream. When the stream is a shallow one a practical and rapid method is to place wagons or carts in the stream for the supports, anchoring them in place with large rocks, and then running the bridge platform across them.

A good method of building a light foot bridge for infantry is to use standard army sacks filled with straw so that the sacks act as floats, and when laid close together they will support the planking for the footway. It is difficult to estimate the time required to build these different bridges, but for the footway run upon trestles three quarters of an hour is usually allowed for putting on a section 12 feet long upon four pole trestles. Crossing of streams by cavalry is often done by even more primitive methods and the troops are frequently put through exercises of this kind in order to have them well trained when it comes to emergencies. Should the horse be a good swimmer he can carry the rider both across, but it is considered more prudent to lead the horse swim alone, while the man also swims across. Non-swimmers go across upon rafts made up of tree trunks or army sacks stuffed with straw or hay, these being lashed across the stream by ropes. On the raft is also placed the harness of the horses as well as the men's clothes, assembled in packets. Untrained horses can be guided in tow by the men seated on the improvised raft, while the trained horses easily swim across without any attention. I usually the horses met with intelligence under such circumstances and the whole troop keeps together in good order.

Fording of streams is one of the most usual means employed for crossing but of course this is limited to the smaller or shallow streams, and boats are very frequent here. For infantry crossing a ford is practicable when the water is not over 3 feet deep, or 2 feet 6 inches, should there be a rapid current. Cavalry can cross at depths of 3 feet 8 inches, and vehicles at 3 feet to 2 feet 6 inches should the river bed be solid and not muddy. In all cases it is the practice to run a hand rope across the ford upon poles. French troops have become quite accustomed to these maneuvers, and during the regulation army drills the chief has out plans so that the men must cross the stream by swimming or otherwise, and once the habit is acquired, the troops have not the slightest hesitation in taking the water.

In the Austrian army special socks of waterproof

tablets are provided which can be blown up with air by simply using the mouth. These serve as pontoons for light foot bridges. The sacks are said to answer all that is required of them in the way of floats, and do not suffer damage through use. An advantage in the use of this material is that the socks are very light and can be carried on any kind of conveyance. On this plan each regiment of infantry may be accompanied by enough material for laying out a 100-foot bridge, and this by using only one wagon, so that in actual war operations the army train would hardly be increased and the regulation engineer train would not be needed every time a small stream had to be crossed.

In the German army folding boats are made of canvas with improvised means for keeping them distended

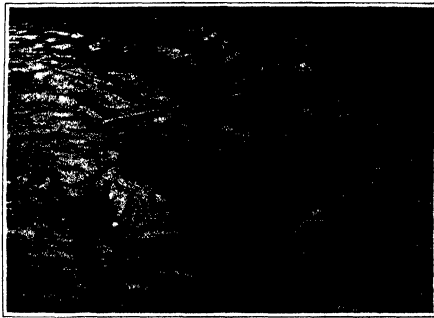
the other states, given an estimated total number of employees for the year as 742,868, as compared with 747,644 in 1913. The fatality rate, therefore, becomes 3.30 per 1,000 men employed in 1914, as compared with 3.78 in 1913.

Excluding 1912, when the rate was 3.27 per 1,000 men employed, the 1914 rate of 3.30 per 1,000 is lower than any year since 1901.

While there was a reduction of 12 per cent in the number of fatalities, there was also a reduction of 10.5 per cent in the production of coal. The United States Geological Survey estimates the production for 1914 as \$10,000,000 short tons, as compared with \$70,048,125 tons for 1913. The fatality rate per 1,000,000 tons of coal produced in 1913 was 4.80, and in 1914, 4.81. With the exception of 1912, when this rate was 4.41, the 1914 rate is the lowest yet recorded for the United States. The amount of coal produced per fatality in 1914 was 208,075 short tons, which, with the exception of 1912, is the largest on record. The production per fatality in 1913 was 204,685 tons; 1912, 226,490; and in 1907, 144,325 tons.

There were 316 lives lost in disasters in which more than five men were killed at one time, as compared with 464 in 1913, a net reduction of 14%, or 32 per cent, in this class of accidents.

It is not possible to attribute these lower rates to any one particular influence. They may, however, be assigned in part to any one of the following agencies or to a combination of all of them: better and more careful inspection by the State Inspectors; better enforcement of laws and regulations by the operators; realization of the dangers attendant upon the miner in his daily work and his efforts to reduce accidents due to the educational campaign conducted in his behalf, the extended use of safety lamps in doubtful mines, the use of permissible explosives, bundling dusty mines first-aid and rescue training, which saves lives that might otherwise be lost by reason of injuries received, the enactment of industrial accident compensation laws, and, last but not least, the spirit of co-operation on the part of all concerned.



Bags of straw used as a raft by the French cavalry.

The accompanying photograph shows how cavalry horses are used for the gunwales and also as paddles to propel the craft. Three of these boats lashed together will carry an army wagon. The canvas boats may be folded up and packed on a horse.

Fatalities at Coal Mines During 1914 Compared With Previous Years

IT is gratifying to note that the fatalities in coal mines in the United States in 1914 were 334 less than during the preceding year, the total number being 2,451, as compared with 2,785 for 1913.

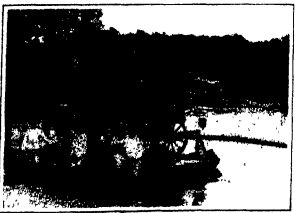
The principal causes of accidents that show a material decrease were coal-dust explosions, 36 per cent; haulage 11 per cent; and falls of roof and pillar coal, 10.6 per cent. The net decrease in underground fatalities was 395, or 14 per cent. This is equivalent to saving one life every day during the year.

There were 231 fatalities due to gas explosions as compared with 91 in 1913, making a net increase of 240. Of the total gas-explosion fatalities, 291 were due to four serious explosions. There were slight increases in accidents due to explosions and electricity. There was also a net increase of 26 fatalities in shaft accidents, or 42 per cent, while on the surface the net increase was five, or about 3 per cent. The net decrease for the year for both underground and surface accidents at coal mines as compared with 1913 was 12 per cent.

The exact figures for the number of men employed are not yet available, but taking the estimates as furnished by the inspectors for part of the States and using the same number of men as employed in 1913 for

Improving the Race by Early Marriages

IN the various discussions of means for improving the human race one of the ideas propounded is that our "superior" man, that is superior mentally, should marry at an earlier age so that four generations might be produced in a century, even at the expense of delayed efficiency. The result of such system, it is pointed out, would be that at the end of the century two thirds of our population would be of the twenty-five year stock, and all presumably in comparison with previous generations produced at the rate of three generations or less to the century. To such theories exceptions have been taken by many, and in order to develop definite facts, Casper L. Redfield of Chicago, who maintains that early marriages that result in rapid generations lead to conditions that produce mental and moral defects, offered last April to donate \$100 to the American Genetic Association if it could be shown that any superior individual was ever produced by breeding human beings as rapidly as four generations per century, and considering the exceptionally great man of history he offered a second hundred dollars if a single one of them could be shown to come in the three generation class. Recently the association returned to Mr. Redfield the money he had deposited, no one having met the conditions announced.



Ferrying a wagon on folding canvas boats.



Folding boats packed on a horse.



Crossing a river on an improvised casamaras.

Random Reflections

By "Irresponsible"

I MET a man a little while ago, an artist, writer, and gas-tine engineer, who informed me that there were no first-class minds in any of the arts today; they had all been absorbed by the sciences. This is one of those statements whose implications are more interesting than its assertions. Of course, on the face of it, it is open to several objections. We may deny that there are no first-class minds in art; or, admitting their absence, we may deny the existence of any first-class minds in science. Understanding by first-class, men of the Faraday, Darwin, Maxwell, Kelvin level, without ascending to world-shaking prodigies like Isaac Newton, we may very well ask what first-class minds exist in science at the present day. The late French mathematician, Henri Poincaré, was undoubtedly first-class—still, he is the late Henri Poincaré. Who else is there?

The average level of intelligence among scientific men at the present day is distinctly high, rather higher, perhaps, than the level among artists. And, to go off on a side issue for a moment, I had received the personal impression from my acquaintance with both artists and men of science, that on the whole the scientific man had a stronger character, together with the more and better balance. But since this was started (I know the war would crop up somehow) I've become doubtful. Some of those frantic German professors! For instance, a celebrated professor at Heidelberg, a man whose work I have long admired, and who has trained English students by the score, advocates the destruction of Westminster Abbey, together with the tombs of the great dead of England. It reads like hysteria, where is the calm well-balanced character, elevated and fortified by a life-long devotion to science? And his voice is not the only one. There are enough of them to form a chorus.

I am afraid that scientific men have degenerated. About one hundred years ago another big war was raging, but it was between France and England. While it was going on the French Academy of Sciences bestowed a medal upon an English scientific man for his distinguished services to science. One cannot help admiring that. That is exactly the attitude which becomes a scientific man, and which dignifies science. We must preserve that spirit. We must have a few men who remember first that they are members of a collection of curious little two-legged animals without feathers, called the human race, and only secondarily that they happen to exist on some particular corner of the planet earth, that common dwelling place of all their kind. An excessively patriotic man, like an excessively anything else, is merely a man with a defective sense of proportion. And a defective sense of proportion is—well, it's a pretty generally accepted definition of inferiority. But that is a side issue. I was talking about the arts and sciences. I don't think it can be shown that first-class minds at the present day take up science rather than art. As I have said, I am, to start with, a little doubtful about the existence of the first-class minds. But letting that pass, and supposing that by analyzing the psychology of a scientific man's work one can show that he is really, in temperament and built mental, an artist. Suppose he is invariably interested, not in the results he obtains, but in the beauty of the methods by which he obtains these results. Roughly speaking, that would be different from the scientific mind as it is generally understood. Well, I think there are some scientific men. But I think there are quite as many artists who are more interested in results than in beauty. Take a writer like H. G. Wells. He is particularly interested in writing novels which illustrate the influence of social surroundings upon various characters, including in social surroundings other human beings. In any particular case such an investigation is scientific in character, and in resulting. Wells one certainly gets the impression that he is much more interested in conducting that investigation fully and vividly than he is in producing a finished and beautiful piece of literature. He is distinctly more interested in what he is saying than in the manner in which he says it. He is a scientific man using as his medium the novel rather than the psychological or sociological treatise.

Mr. Wells does not stand alone. Various other names could be mentioned. Personally I think this extension of the scope of the novel a highly important and desirable phenomenon. Scientific investigations can be presented in the form of a novel which could not be effectively presented in any other way. Before a sound scheme of society can be built up we must know an immense amount about personal and social psychology. Besides the professor, we require for the proper investi-

gation of these two subjects the man of insight and imagination. We require the novelist. Because his methods are, in a way, lower and more general, they will probably prove more valuable. And, a little fact not without its importance, he can influence an incomparably greater public. So that, in view of the existence of this kind of novel, and of one or two other indications of a similar kind, I should feel disposed to say that artists and men of science share the arts and the sciences pretty equally. To some extent the two things merge into each other. There are stylisms in science. To me, for instance, there is some resemblance in style between the work of Abel, the Norwegian mathematician, and that of Chopin, the Polish musician. But I admit that I experience difficulty in making the resemblance clear to other people.

Dark Days and Forest Fires

By C. F. Talman

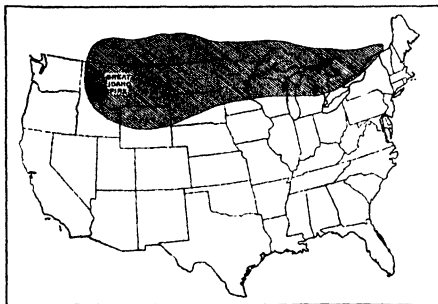
INSTANCES of daytime darkness are recorded in the old chronicles along with such other "prodigies" as multiple suns, showers of blood, and warring armies in the sky—all of which can easily be identified today with well-known meteorological phenomena (partially, rain redoubled with desert dust, and the rarer). The two famous cases mentioned in the Bible—the plague of darkness in Egypt and the darkness attending the crucifixion—illustrate the fact that such occurrences were once universally assumed to be miraculous.

Some of the early cases of daytime darkness mentioned in history are doubtless attributable to solar eclipses, and most, accordingly, have been restricted to a small part of the earth's surface, and have been of but a few minutes' duration. The majority of the famous "dark days" were, however, the result of an

Canada is evidently related to the fact that practically all barometric depressions ("lowes"), with their attendant whirl and indraft of the surface air, pass down the St. Lawrence Valley, and thence occupy the central and usually become intensified and sharply defined in this region. The smoke from a conflagration anywhere on the periphery of a "low" is drawn into the vortex along more or less converging lines, and at the same time rises to a considerable altitude. Eddies in the circulation of the "low" will result in a dense accumulation of the smoke in particular places, and thus to the level of the lower clouds, which thus mask the cause of the phenomenon. Hence the startling effect of darkness in the daytime, often with little or no turbidity of the air near the earth's surface. Mere smokiness of the air near the ground or a fog heavily charged with smoke (as in the case of the London fog), however great the obscurity produced, would hardly be placed in the same class with the awe-inspiring dark days of the chronicles. If, however, showers occur during one of these occurrences, a large amount of seed is likely to be brought down, and thus we have another "prodigy", viz., "black rain." A very recent case of this sort is reported in the *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society* for October, 1910, during a thunderstorm in Eastern Hampshire darkness almost like that of night occurred in the early afternoon, and lark rain fell. The phenomenon was due to seed carried from London fifty miles away.

When the pall of smoke is rather thin a certain amount of sunlight struggles through, and owing to the same process that gives us the golden glow of sunset a yellow or coppery haze is cast over the landscape. This effect has been noted in connection with several dark days, including the most famous of all, that of May 19th, 1780. It was the principal feature of the dark day of September 9th, 1881, in New England which is accordingly known as the "yellow day."

The great Idaho fire of August, 1910, was responsible for dark days over an area larger than in any other case on record in this country. The accompanying chart, from the *Forest Service Bulletin* above mentioned, shows the area in which artificial light was used in the daytime, but smoke was observed far beyond these limits. The British ship "Hunfame" reported that on the Pacific Ocean, 500 miles west of San Francisco, the smell of smoke was noticed, and haze prevented observations for about ten days.



Area in which dark days occurred, caused by smoke from the great Idaho fire, August 20th to 25th, 1910.

abnormal accumulation of smoke or dust in the air sometimes arising from burning forests, moors or prairies, sometimes from volcanic eruptions, and in many instances covering vast areas of the globe.

In a recent publication on "Forest Fires" (*Forest Service Bulletin 117*), Mr. F. F. Plummer gives the following list of dark days in the United States and Canada:

- 1769—May 12th, 10 A. M., New England
- 1716—October 21st, 11 A. M. to 11 30 A. M., New England.
- 1722—August 9th, New England.
- 1702—October 10th, Detroit.
- 1780—May 19th, New England (Black Friday The Dark Day.)
- 1785—October 10th, Canada
- 1814—July 3rd, New England to Newfoundland
- 1819—November 6th to 10th, New England and Canada
- 1836—July 9th, New England
- 1905—October 10th, Canada ("Brief duration")
- 1898—September 15th to October 20th, Western Oregon and Washington
- 1881—September 9th, New England. (The Yellow Day.)
- 1887—November 19th, Ohio River Valley. ("Smoke Day.")
- 1894—September 2nd, New England.
- 1902—September 12th, Western Washington.
- 1903—June 6th, Saratoga, N. Y.
- 1904—December 2nd, 10 A. M., for 15 minutes, Memphis, Tenn.
- 1910—August 20th to 25th, Northern United States, from Idaho and Northern Utah eastward to St. Lawrence River.

Forest fires are the common cause of dark days in this country. The fact that such days are most frequent in the Northeastern United States and Eastern

Restoring Fatigued Muscles

A VERY ingenious physiological method of increasing the yield of labor from any given group of muscles is described in the *Deutsche Revue*. According to an abstract in *The Engineer*, the author, Th. Weber, claims that in practice a gain of from 22 to 40 per cent is obtainable in the amount of work done. The device is extremely simple. When the given group of muscles has reached the point of exhaustion, due to the accumulation of the products of fatigue, they are allowed to rest, while an entirely different muscle group is set to work vigorously. The energetic contraction of these muscles causes an increase in heart action and circulation, and the strengthened current of blood sent to all parts of the body partially restores the working power of the first group of muscles by carrying away fatigue toxins and supplying oxygen.

Automobile Fire Department Outfits

AN automobile fire engine of improved type was lately delivered in an English market to Athens on the order of the Greek government. The present outfit although very effective, is equipped with a 90 horse power engine and turbine pump, but it is light enough to run on rubber tired wheels. Another outfit produced by the same concern consists of an automobile hook-and-ladder supply car, seven of which are now in use by the London fire brigade. They are fitted with 30 gallon chemical tanks, hose reel and telescoping ladder, and are especially good for first aid work. It will be observed from the last-mentioned outfit that the rotary pump is coming into favor for fire engines. Such pumps are also in use on the Paris fire engines.

Darwin Relics.—The late William Erasmus Darwin, who was a son of Charles Darwin, recently left a number of relics of his famous father to his nephew, with the request that they be kept permanently in the possession of the Darwin family. These relics include the family portraits, many medals that had been presented to his father, the letters written home by him while on the "Beagle" expedition and two early sketches of "The Origin of Species."

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

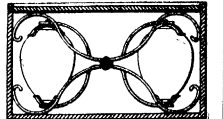
These columns are open to all patentees. The notices are inserted in special arrangement with the inventor's name in application to the Advertising Department of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

Pertaining to Apparel.

CAP PROTECTOR—Y. M. MARKS, U. S. Army, General Hospital, Providence, R. I. This invention has reference more particularly to the type of cap used in the U. S. Army, the crown of which, when the cap is worn, touches the head of the wearer, resulting in a solid spot on the cap. The invention provides a pro-

tection structure which is adapted to maintain a bottle closed except during the time that fluid is being discharged therefrom.

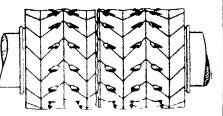
SMOKE DISPENSER—M. Mossa, care of General Delivery, Seattle, Wash. This invention relates to smoke dispensers of the type in which the smoke, formed in a furnace or analogous structure, is brought into contact with a liquid and thus prevented from being set free in the atmosphere. The inventor also



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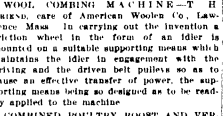
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EGG CARRIER—R. D. Dwyer, 554 West 9th, N. Y. This invention relates to implements in egg carriers and has for an object to provide a structure which will readily support eggs in a container. It provides a resilient support for eggs which will hold the eggs apart and will prevent the eggs from being crushed or strained on the eggs as brought at their strongest point.



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ROLLER—J. G. O. Dwyer, The Hague, Netherlands. The invention relates to improvements on the rollers used in the Kratzev rubber, which is utilized for crushing and cutting materials before the same enter the ordinary three-roll mill. The Kratzev crusher is at the present time the most important and



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successful accessory designed to increase the efficiency and output of any form of manufacturing plant to which it may be applied. This machine acts both as a crusher and as a preparer and equalizer of the feed of the cane as it enters the mill, it is generally used in connection with the train of multiple mills.

WOOL COMBING MACHINE—T. H. Fokens, care of American Woolen Co., Lawrence, Mass. In carrying out the invention a friction wheel in the form of an idler is mounted on a suitable supporting means which supports the idler in engagement with the driven belt pulley so as to cause an effective transfer of power, the supporting means being so designed as to be readily applied to the machine.

COMBINED POULTRY ROOST AND VERMIN TRAP—J. WOODALL, 130 South Ave., Hartford, Conn. This invention relates particularly to that type in which the bare throat embold traps for entrapping vermin, the roost is in engagement with the trap, and the driven belt pulley so as to cause an effective transfer of power, the supporting means being so designed as to be readily applied to the machine.

VENTILATED CAN CLOSURES—J. P. T. OLSEN, Box 274, Eugene, Ore. This invention relates to means for providing a means for closure of the can may be ventilated without the danger of the admission of mice or other animals or insects into the can.

IN PROTECT AND PROTECTOR FOR FRUIT BEARING TREES—W. H. WILSON, Wisconsin City via Hood River, Ore. The netting consists of the shape of the tree. The strands of netting are held in contact with the trunk and effectively support the extremities of the limbs and thus indirectly support the fruit attached to and pendant from such limbs, yet the netting does not interfere with the passage of light air or moisture so that the ripening of the fruit proceeds the same as if the netting were not applied.

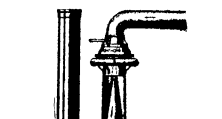
NURSING BOTTLE—H. H. HENRY, 23 South Main St., Port Chester, N. Y. The invention relates to brackets for special purposes and means for holding nursing bottles in connection with bottles, cradles, cradles, or the like. The device may be readily changed securely in any ordinary position in which it may be desired to be used.

COMBINED PORT AND TENSION DEVICE—J. H. WILSON, 101 West 1st St., New York, N. Y. This invention relates to a combined corner post and tension device adapted for either portable or stationary frames. By this device the wires of a fence can be quickly secured in position and any desired tension given to them.

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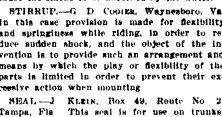
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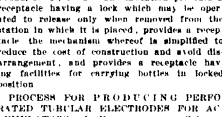
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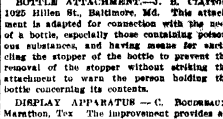
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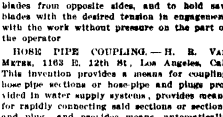
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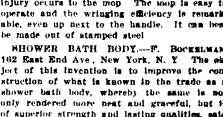
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tor having an effective attaching means for the convenient and secure application of the protector to the top of the cap of the bottle. The protector provides for holding a removable card or identification tag between the protector and the crown of the cap.

COMBINATION SHIRT AND VEST—M. MARKS, 540 Broadway, New York, N. Y. The invention provides a shirt with vest front or sections in such manner as to eliminate the necessity of wearing a vest separate and apart from the shirt and with an independent back, the invention more particularly residing in the construction of the vest fronts and ways and means for attaching the same to the vest.

GARTER—E. B. WILSON, 815 Union St., Coffeyville, Kansas. This invention provides a very comfortable garter, as the pressure due to the pad is well distributed, and the pad as a whole has an amount of resilience and fluid ability conferred upon it by the spring, and adapted to equalize the pressure exerted by the pad upon the wearer's leg. Mr. Wilson has invented another garter, having an inelastic band in which he locates the coil springs in line with the tension brought to bear thereon through the leg band, and said springs are also located at the point of greatest possible expansion of the elastic band, whereby great latitude of action expansion results, this being advantageous when a water band is lay at the knee. This invention has also been invented another garter in which, while still employing the inelastic bands bifurcated and yoke spring, the spring arms are drawn around to the elastic one end of the band is permanently secured to the elastic and the other end of the band is in detachable connection with the elastic.

CONVERTIBLE GARMENT—A. B. WILSON, 121 W. 88th St., New York, N. Y. The object of this invention is to provide a convertible garment, more especially designed for women's wear which can be readily changed by the owner into a house dress, cap, gown, street dress, ball dress, hat, coat dress, and house dress.

MATERNITY SKIRT OR DRESS—B. WILSON, 119 W. 24th St., New York, N. Y. The garment is open at the front and is provided with a waistband having no elastic front portion and is fastened from the back and draw strings in the said band and secured at the middle of the back and extending out of the band at the forward end thereof, and a retaining means on the said front portion of the waistband and to which the outer ends of the draw strings can be tied.

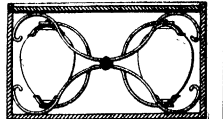
LIFT FOR NURSING—W. W. K. KARR, R. F. D. No. 1, Brant, Wis. The features of novelty are the construction of the mouth piece and its side attachments, controlling the admission of air to support respiration, and of means for clamping and tightly closing the openings in the face and throat of the suit which opening is required to permit application of the suit to a person.

SHIRT, SHIRING MACHINE—F. M. MURPHY, 512 Franklin St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a coin-controlled machine for polishing shoes either black or tan and wherein mechanism is provided for polishing the shoes adapted to properly polish shoes of varying size, wherein the mechanism is so arranged, that by inserting a coin of the proper denomination the polishing machine will be set in operation.

Electrical Devices

ELECTRIC FIRE ALARM—W. H. HOWE, 1413 Pleasant Ave., Peckville, Pa. This invention relates to an electric fire alarm of that type, including a heat responsive device which at a predetermined rise in temperature of the atmosphere will close an electric circuit including one or more alarms or other warning devices.

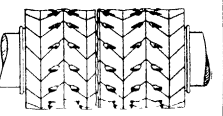
METALLIC ELECTRIC WELDER—W. H. HOWE, 1413 Pleasant Ave., Peckville, Pa. This invention relates to the art of electric welding wherein the active electrode is a metal rod or wire which is so thin that it is extremely pliable, the one element of the welding arc, while the other element is the work to be welded.



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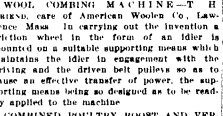
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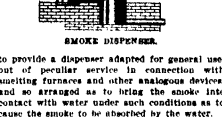
VENTILATED CAN CLOSURES—J. P. T. OLSEN, Box 274, Eugene, Ore. This invention relates to means for providing a means for closure of the can may be ventilated without the danger of the admission of mice or other animals or insects into the can.

IN PROTECT AND PROTECTOR FOR FRUIT BEARING TREES—W. H. WILSON, Wisconsin City via Hood River, Ore. The netting consists of the shape of the tree. The strands of netting are held in contact with the trunk and effectively support the extremities of the limbs and thus indirectly support the fruit attached to and pendant from such limbs, yet the netting does not interfere with the passage of light air or moisture so that the ripening of the fruit proceeds the same as if the netting were not applied.

NURSING BOTTLE—H. H. HENRY, 23 South Main St., Port Chester, N. Y. The invention relates to brackets for special purposes and means for holding nursing bottles in connection with bottles, cradles, cradles, or the like. The device may be readily changed securely in any ordinary position in which it may be desired to be used.

COMBINED PORT AND TENSION DEVICE—J. H. WILSON, 101 West 1st St., New York, N. Y. This invention relates to a combined corner post and tension device adapted for either portable or stationary frames. By this device the wires of a fence can be quickly secured in position and any desired tension given to them.

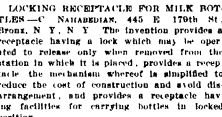
BOTTLE STOPPER—J. H. WILSON, 101 West 1st St., New York, N. Y. This invention has reference to improvements in bottle stoppers and has for an object to provide an im-



BOTTLE

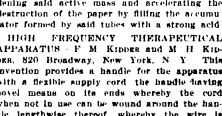
proposed structure which is adapted to maintain a bottle closed except during the time that fluid is being discharged therefrom.

EGG CARRIER—R. D. Dwyer, 554 West 9th, N. Y. This invention relates to implements in egg carriers and has for an object to provide a structure which will readily support eggs in a container. It provides a resilient support for eggs which will hold the eggs apart and will prevent the eggs from being crushed or strained on the eggs as brought at their strongest point.



EGG CARRIER

ROLLER—J. G. O. Dwyer, The Hague, Netherlands. The invention relates to improvements on the rollers used in the Kratzev rubber, which is utilized for crushing and cutting materials before the same enter the ordinary three-roll mill. The Kratzev crusher is at the present time the most important and



ROLLER

successful accessory designed to increase the efficiency and output of any form of manufacturing plant to which it may be applied. This machine acts both as a crusher and as a preparer and equalizer of the feed of the cane as it enters the mill, it is generally used in connection with the train of multiple mills.

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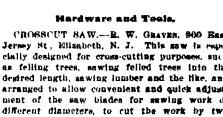
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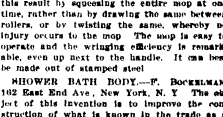
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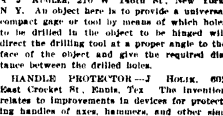
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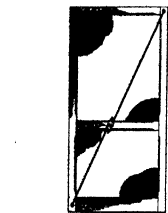
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Household Utilities.
BRACING DEVICE FOR SCREEN DOORS.—**F. CHRISTENSEN, 501 N. Washington Ave., Argente, Ark.** The invention provides a device which can be made at small cost and which will effectively brace the door without adding materially to the weight thereof. It provides a device which may be adjusted to doors of different sizes, since it is provided with means whereby the bracing device may be

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BRACING DEVICE FOR SCREEN DOORS.

lengthened or shortened within limits. In this device the bracing of the upper and lower portions of the door may be independently effected. **OVERLAP KNUFVER RING.**—**W. C. VIGOR, 418 W. 118th St., New York, N. Y.** This ring is provided with an overlapped portion. This may be connected or separated as desired, but must overlap to such an extent as to allow a curtain to prevent a substantial overlap for entirely closing the opening. The ring may be supported by any suitable standard, and may have a spraying device associated therewith of any desired form. The entire outfit may be arranged above a bath tub or other suitable place.

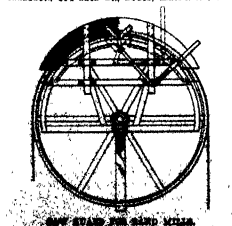
Machines and Mechanical Devices.
DRUM HAMMER.—**R. GRONQUIER, Societe Anonyme des Forges et Acieries du Comtois, Comtois, Arcue, France.** The purpose of the invention consists in providing a disconnection, no longer by the direct action of the mass on the clutching device on the arrival of such mass at the top of its throw but by the action of an auxiliary clutching device which acts in antagonism to the usual clutching device, and which is more powerful than the latter, such auxiliary device being braced and locked in position during descent of the mass and then released by the latter on its return to the top of its throw.

ROAD BUILDING MACHINE.—**J. H. MOORE, Jr., 140 Pioneer St., Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y.** This invention provides a machine arranged to continuously mix and deliver road building material; provides a machine for manually controlling the distribution, provides such a machine with self-contained traction mechanism, provides means for supplying the machine with raw materials, and provides means for measuring the raw materials for mixing.

DEVICE FOR DELIVERING TOBACCO TO CIGAR AND OTHER SMOKER MACHINES.—**E. BAZOT, 318 Rue de Charonne, Paris, France.** In the present patent the invention has reference to device for delivering tobacco cut up into short and dry lengths to form the interior of machine made cigars, or for supply ing material to any other similar machine.

CAN TOP DROPPER.—**C. E. FORD, care of H. L. Gresham, 310 North Ave., Los Angeles, Cal.** In the present patent the object of the inventor is the provision of a simple, economical, and efficient device for dropping can tops one at a time and delivering them to any suitable feeder for feeding them mechanically to a can-topping machine or the like.

MAW GUARD FOR BAND MILL.—**A. IMACORRO, 894 19th St., South, Marshfield, Ore.**



MAW GUARD FOR BAND MILL.

This invention is an improvement in saw guards and catchers for band mills, and has for its object to provide a device capable of adjustment for various conditions, and wherein mechanism is provided for catching the saw should it run off the band wheel, and for preventing the running of the saw into the sap pit, to prevent damage to the saw, and to safeguard the Sawyer.

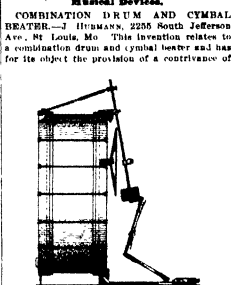
CONVEYER.—**J. J. PHILLIPS, Brookhaven, Miss.** The invention provides a conveyer especially designed for carrying clay or similar materials from a receiving hopper to a dry pan and arranged to permit convenient arrangement of the amount of the material to be delivered to the dry pan according to the condition of the material at the time.

MAIL BOX.—**E. E. URBESCHKE, Lock Box 201, Mooreville, Ind.** The more particular purpose in this case is to provide a device having improved means for safeguarding mail placed in the box. The box constitutes a safe repository and one which may be easily and quickly opened and closed. Mail placed therein will be cared for and held so that when the main door is lowered and supported, the mail may be readily withdrawn.

COAL LOADING DEVICE.—**W. W. JAMES, Greenburg, Pa.** An object here is to provide a device having a movable chute which may be thrust forward into the lower coal, and means for elevating the latter into the car.

A further object is to provide means for permitting the swinging of the chute to one side of the other without interfering with its forward and backward movement, thereby increasing the range of operation of the chute.

Metal Devices.
COMBINATION DRUM AND CYMBAL BEATER.—**J. HUGGINS, 100 South Jefferson Ave., St. Louis, Mo.** This invention relates to a combination drum and cymbal beater and has for its object the provision of a contrivance of



COMBINATION DRUM AND CYMBAL BEATER.

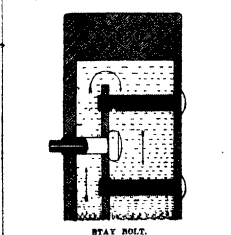
this character by which a drummer seated can play a bass drum and cymbal with one foot, leaving his hands free to play a snare drum or other effects or instruments necessary for an up-to-date trap drumming.

PEDAL ACTION FOR PLYATE DIAPHON.—**C. H. LAUREN, RA 1879 Clinton Ave., Bronx, N. Y., N. Y.** This improvement provides a pedal action for plate diapasons, arranged to control the hammer fall of the piano action in the usual manner when playing the piano by hand, and also with effect of articulation the bellows from the same pedal when using the instrument as a player piano.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.
INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.—**C. W. BARTON, 227 8th Ave., New York, N. Y.** The invention relates to internal combustion engine, the more particular purpose being to provide such devices with an improved water jacket in which the water is caused to circulate by the conjoint action of centrifugal force and difference in density between hot and cold water.

STAY BOLT.—**D. J. O'BRIEN, Box 1002, Jerome Park, N. Y.** The invention refers more particularly to the design type of stay bolt, adapted with effect of articulation the bellows from the same pedal when using the instrument as a player piano.

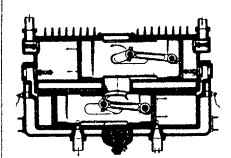
It provides a stay bolt and portion of simple, strong, and durable construction, which holds in place for ready installation, and which is thermally and will insure at all times a universal tensile strength.



STAY BOLT.

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A. TOMARINI, Cayce, Cal. This inventor provides a device which has a plurality of cylinders, and in which the explosion takes place in regular succession. It also provides a novel form of device in which there is an auxiliary cylinder.



INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.

compression cylinder for each explosion cylinder, the compression cylinder not only acting to compress the charge preparatory to firing the same, but also acting as a compression means for the efficient scavenging of the cylinder after the explosion has taken place.

Railways and Their Accessories.
KILN CAR.—**E. BRASS, West, Cal.** The car has a movable stake connected by links with a stake secured to the body of the car, one of the car wheels being journaled to a lever journaled to the car body, and this lever engaging a member at the bottom of the movable stake, so that the weight of the material on the body will serve to move the body down relatively to the lever, thereby moving the movable stake relatively to the stake secured to the body for pressing the lumber against an other stake.

GRAIN CAR DOOR.—**W. B. NIXON, care of W. L. Morton, Fort William, Ontario, Canada.** The invention relates to grain cars used for transporting grains of varying kinds. Among the advantages of this invention are: 1. To simplify the use of the door or trap door (which is on every car) as a source of efficient grain release. 2. It does not matter in which way the door above the plate is adjusted, as it

is bound to come out intact when the pressure of the grain is taken from it on letting the plate down. There is no chance whatever to destroy the door. 3. It places in the hands of the railway companies a means of release in emergency circumstances of the cars which puts them in a position to demand damages for any injury to their doors in the process of unloading grain. 4. It is a saving grace to let down the plate than to break through the door.

RAILWAY TIE.—**T. M. DANIEL, 327 South La Salle St., Chicago, Ill.** This invention relates to railways, and the object thereof is to provide a tie for the tracks which not only positively maintains the tracks in relationship with each other, but which also support the tracks in a yielding or resilient manner.

AUTOMATIC TRAIN STOP.—**F. G. BARTON, 62 Bloomfield Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.** The invention provides means for releasing the air in the train line of the brake system, to reduce the pressure in the train pipe for applying the brakes, by partially exhausting the air into an exhaust reservoir instead of directly into the atmosphere, whereby the pressure in the said reservoir and train pipe will be equalized after the brakes have been applied and the train stopped.

RAIL JOINT.—**T. B. BROTHMAN, Catherine, Ala.** This improvement provides means for connecting abutting rail ends, wherein the connection is so arranged that it will readily support the rail ends in alignment and in register, and wherein the connection will also prevent creeping of the rails with respect to the ties.

SCREEN FOR MOVING PICTURES.—**J. H. GIBSON, Newburgh, N. Y.** The invention relates to screens for receiving and projecting images, such as those of stereoscopic or moving picture machines. An object is to provide a screen which is actually made up of a series of strips, but which appears to be a unitary structure without any screen. The screen will not subject the eye to strain, glare, or haze.

AMUSEMENT APPARATUS.—**W. F. MAX GREG, Gonzales, N. Y.** The invention relates to an amusement device adapted for popular resorts and is of that type in which passengers ride in a car which has a predetermined motion tending to produce amusement and merriment for the occupants and spectators.

Attaching for Spinning Wheels.
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—V. A. ASHCROFT, Glenburn, N. D. The invention relates to a hand rest or gripping attachment applicable to the periphery of a steering wheel, and which is constructed of a resilient material members to prevent the operator's hand from slipping on the wheel, and to enable him to obtain a firm grip.

AUTOMATIC ENGINE SPEED GOVERNOR FOR VEHICLES.—**T. DUGAN, 80 Maiden Lane, New York, N. Y.** This invention relates to engine governor of the automatic type and adapted to be used between the throttle and inlet or intake of an engine, and operatively connected with the speed shaft of the engine, or some moving part of the machine driven thereby or with both wheels the speed will be regulated according to the power required for the supply of elastic or explosive fluid to the engine for controlling the speed thereof.

POWER TRANSMISSION.—**M. HANCOCK, 133 Fairmount Ave., Jersey City, N. J.** This invention provides means manually operable for positively and operatively connecting the two sections of a driving shaft which is normally operatively connected through a differential gearing, and a further object is to simplify the construction of the auxiliary connecting mechanism.

BRACKET.
BRACKET FOR VEHICLE LAMPS.—**E. J. GRANGER, P. O. Box 14, East Lebanon, Maine.** This invention prevents accidents by throwing the light rays right or left as the car is turned more quickly than rays of light can get around. The lamps are clamped to the arm in front or back of the knuckle in an improved vehicle, and the rays will fall on the road.

PRIVACY DRIVE.—**R. D. ARTHUR, W. Va.** This invention provides a drive mechanism for use with automobiles and like vehicles wherein auxiliary mechanism is provided in connection with the drive shaft of the engine between the driving shaft and the driven shaft for permitting the driver at will to connect the driving shaft and an auxiliary shaft, and thus to have relative speed between the shafts is being varied.

AUTOMOBILE STARTER.—**C. A. SMITH, 55 Canal St., Hightstown, N. J.** The starter is especially for use in automobiles and wherein mechanism is connected with the engine shaft for rotating the same in a forward direction, capable of being operated by the driver from his seat without dismounting, in a movement of the foot and an arm, and in which there is no interference with the engine after it has started.

RND GATE FASTENER.—**F. D. HUNTER, Newark, Tex.** This invention provides a fastener for wagons and like vehicles, and permitting a firm lock when locked, which may be readily and quickly disengaged when desired, and wherein the fastener consists of two sections, mounted for sliding movement along sufficient to enable the sections to be disengaged to hold them in latched position.

THILL COVERING.—**M. GIBSON, 8th 60th, Iron River, Mich.** This invention relates to thill covering, and the object thereof is to provide an improved positive acting thill coupling which when locked is not likely to become accidentally disengaged, and which may be readily secured to a thill or shaft.

Designs.
DESIGN FOR A GAME BOARD.—**F. J. CLAYTON, 1405 F St., N. W. Washington.** In this ornamental design plan view shows a square-shaped game board within which is an outer circle touching the edges of the square, the surface of the board being intersected with very small squares and blank spaces.

DESIGN FOR A CHILD'S RATTLE.—**L. S. BAKER, and R. BAKER, 430 Kent Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y., N. Y.** In this ornamental design for a child's rattle, the frame of the article comprises a circular frame, and the main part of the rattle being a large ring holding five bells strung close together.

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The Chemistry of Shaving

*How to cut the time of
shaving in half and get
an easier, pleasanter shave*



THE composition of Mennen's Cream is such that it eliminates the unpleasantness of shaving peculiar to the use of "hard" soaps—sticks, powders, etc.

Mennen's makes re-lathering unnecessary, as the lather absorbs so much more water than that of "hard" soaps; it does not dry quickly,

but remains moist to permit a leisurely shave.

Due to its peculiar beard-softening properties, it requires no "rubbing-in." Many men find this hard to believe, but one shave with Mennen's Cream will be absolutely convincing—no matter how tough the beard.

Finally, glycerin (usually extracted from soap to be sold as a profitable by-product) is present in extra quantity in Mennen's. Its soothing qualities, in addition to the absence of "free" caustic, account for the fact that this cream does not bite or sting.

Mennen's was offered to the public only after three years of experiments. Tens of thousands of men will now testify that it makes shaving unbelievably quick, easy and pleasant.

**Cut out and mail the coupon now,
for a trial tube**

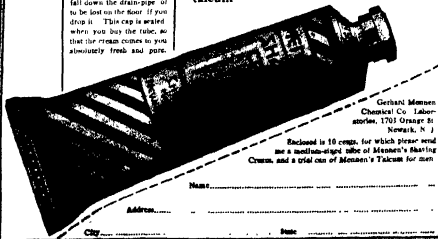
Prove for yourself how much easier and more pleasant Mennen's Shaving Cream makes a shaving. Wrap a dime in a piece of paper, and mail it with the coupon. We will send a medium-sized tube and at the same time, free, a trial can of Mennen's Talcum for men. This talcum is a neutral tint and will not show on the face. Weak only one thing, when you use Mennen's, follow the directions contained in every tube, for best results. GERHARD MENNEN CHEMICAL CO., Laboratories, 1705 Orange St., Newark, N. J.

MENNEN'S SHAVING CREAM

Cap can't be lost

Notice how big the cap of this tube is. It is too big to fall down the drain pipe or to be lost on the floor. If you drop it, this cap is useful when you buy the tube, so that the cream comes to you already fresh and pure.

Mail the coupon with 10c for a trial tube of Mennen's cream, and a trial can of talcum



Gerhard Mennen
Chemical Co., Labora-
tories, 1705 Orange St.,
Newark, N. J.

Enclosed is 10 cents, for which please send me a medium-sized tube of Mennen's Shaving Cream, and a trial can of Mennen's Talcum for men.

Name _____

City _____

State _____

Notes for Inventors

New Measurement Gages.—European gages of a new type consist of a tube containing a set of steel balls such as are commonly used for ball-bearings. At the outer end of the tube is a handle, so as to form the end of the gage. Such gages are claimed to be exact to 1/200 of a millimeter, owing to good workmanship. The advantages are a small end surface and hence better manipulation, perfect polish of the ends, no danger of subsequent shrinkage after tempering, greater hardness and hence longer life, also increased solidity against rough handling. Owing to the cheap, though exact production of steel balls as against accurate gages, the new method is 60 per cent cheaper than rod gages.

Producer-Gas Locomobile.—A French inventor, J. R. Cateau, brings out a novel locomobile which contains a veritable producer gas plant with gas engine and radiator. On the front of the chassis is a suction gas-producer fed by anthracite or various coals, being provided with a scrubber. This latter is fed from a 100-gallon tank in the rear. At the rear of the chassis is the gas engine, with a large fly-wheel pulley for belt drive to any needed device. Between engine and producer is a vertical wing-tube radiator of automobile type, provided with an air fan and water pump. Economy and easy handling make such locomobiles superior to the usual steam engine types, it is claimed.

Metallic Pump for Atomizers.—Toilet atomizers are likely to become useless because the rubber bulb cracks. This is now remedied by a new French device in the shape of an all-metal pump exactly on the idea of a bicycle pump, but of diminutive size. What is valuable is that it fits on to any atomizer after the old bulb is removed, and the atomizer when thus fitted is quite durable. The pump is constructed to be operated by one hand while the atomizer is held in the other.

Folding Watch Holder.—It is well known that watches are injured by laying them flat upon a cold metal or stone table or the like, as this causes sudden changes of temperature of the mechanism which may not to break the spring, or at least hinder the good running of the watch. Hence a suitable watchcase is recommended in which the watch is protected from such contact. We noticed a very convenient little watch support that is especially practical for travelers' use, which folds up hinge-wise and can be carried in the pocket. One part of the hinged piece lies flat on the table and the other is raised up to an angle, the watch being held in the inclined position by hooks in top and bottom piece. The time can thus be read from a good distance, and the body of the watch is free from all contact.

New Egg-cup Device.—This neat little Parian device, made of aluminum or silver metal, consists of an upturned bowl-shaped egg holder mounted on an inverted hemispherical base about as in the familiar types. In the top bowl is fitted a stopper or plug which is itself hollow and carries a perforated head so that the stopper piece serves as a salt box. Within the bowl is a detachable ring-shaped egg-cutter with inwardly projecting teeth by which the end of the egg is neatly clipped off by a partial rotation of the cutter. When not in use the whole is packed up and thus forms a neat device.

Flameless Powder.—Airships equipped with machine guns run a certain degree of risk from an explosion caused by the flame at the muzzle of the gun. Hence considerable study has been devoted to obviating this danger. This has now been accomplished by a young Florentine chemist named Guido Fie, according to the *Deutsche Wochenschrift*. He is said to have recently given a demonstration before an Italian military commission of a new powder invented by him which burns without either flame or smoke and does not flare up on detonation. Its ballistic properties are said to be excellent. While specially useful for the guns of aircraft, it will be of value in artillery and infantry engagements from the fact that it will not betray the firing line to the enemy.

Clothing a Winter Army

(Continued from page 234.)

are notified where to send it; the mills are assigned to weave the cloth; in turn, the mills send their bolts to wide-meshed clothing shops where the staff has already sent patterns and specifications, and with the perfection of organization, the mill begins to grind, while the railways find means to match the finished product away to the depots for distribution.

Uniforms must be made, to the same number. The same principle applies, from the gathering of the raw material to the delivery of the finished article. Then, there are shoes.

Probably more attention has been given to shoeing an army than to any other detail of clothing. It is so important that the feet of the men be safeguarded in every way, for they have to march upon them, and upon marching depends the winning of battles, that countless experiments have been made to secure the most perfect fitting shoes, and from the result of these experiments the safe delivery of them, in addition to being of the greatest comfort, they must be sturdy, able to withstand to the last moment the ravages of a campaign.

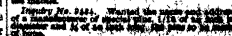
As a result of modernism, invention and organization, the American machine-made shoe has become the best of its kind in the best on earth. Hundreds of thousands of American shoes were secured before the war, or American machines, upon which they could be made in the land, when the beginning of the war, millions of American shoes have been contracted for, the purchasers assuring the safe delivery of them, due to an enemy's vigilance and contraband declaration.

It is very nice for army regulations to specify the grade, quantity, and kind of underclothing. War, again, is not a nice thing, anyway it may be looked at, and very frequently one suit of underwear has had to serve, regardless of what should be. In winter time, the keeping out of cold supercedes the observation of nicety.

The Russians, for instance, rely upon sheepskin overcoats to keep out the cold. This has no bearing upon what they wear underneath, though winter-wind clothing is part and parcel of the issue, and when a war is to be of a duration which will embrace climatic changes, the outfit is for the coldest weather. Russia is a great sheep country and mutton a staple article of diet. Millions of sheep are killed there annually, and not only the army, but the peasant rely upon the skins for warmth in winter. The problem which confronts the staff is simple, for the staff of the War knows where to get those skins with little trouble, so the problem of warmth is here answered. The German soldier, too, has been supplied with sheepskin winter clothing. The soldiers of France carry their winter equipment with them in summer, always ready for the field. As long as it has to be carried, it is carried by the individual in the easiest way, for even during the heat of summer the French soldier wears his overcoat unbuttoned and rolled back at the skirts. There are hostile grades of uniform and underwear for the winter. In times of peace, but in wartime there is but one weight—winter weight.

Of all the countries now involved in war, England has had probably the severest problem to solve with regard to clothing her men. A small standing army of 250,000 has been expanded to the enormous horde of 2,500,000. Complete uniforms must be supplied in a hurry, and the English mills have been running day and night, their output supplemented by purchase in other lands, mainly America.

Great Britain's colonial troops have come mostly from the tropics. Any man whose life has been spent in the tropics has been safeguarded by nature, which has made his blood thicker than that of a resident of a temperate or cold zone. In consequence, the cold of another climate chills through the body, and special means are necessary to warmly clothe the tropical soldier. Heavy uniforms were prepared for the troops from India, including great coats and heavy



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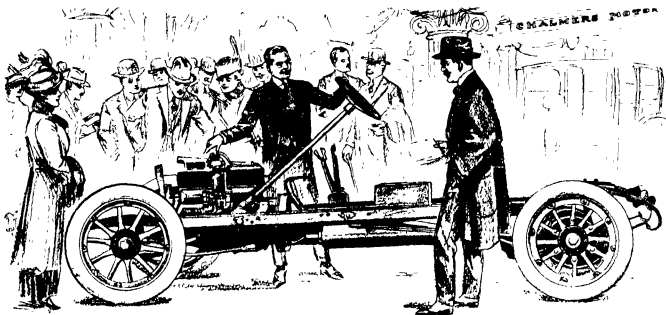
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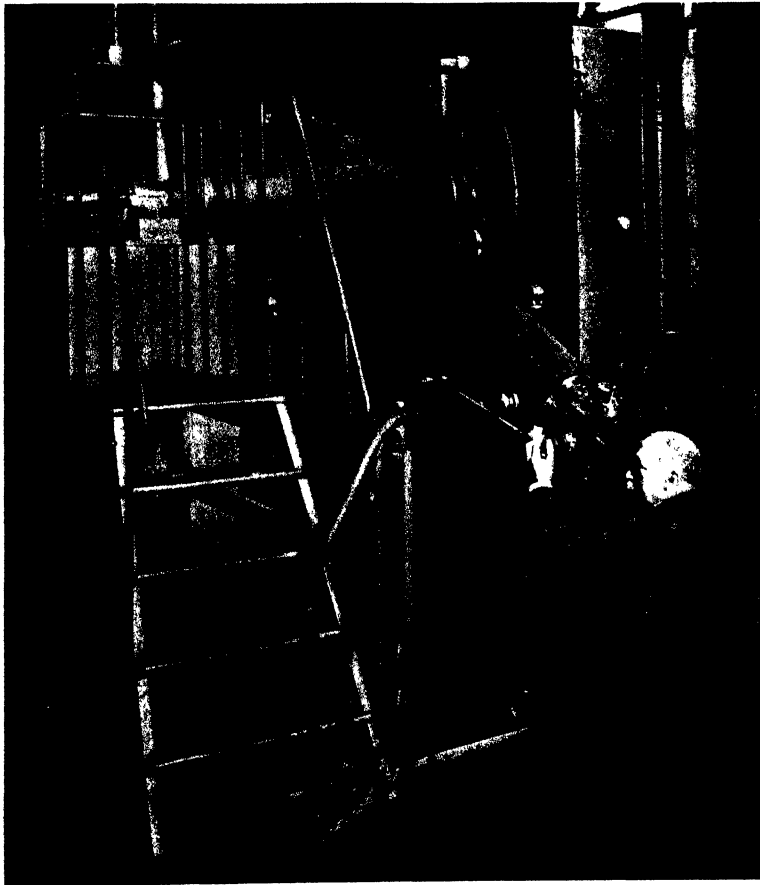


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Vol. CXII. No. 11
March 13, 1915

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New York, N. Y.

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"Barreled Sunlight" has been used by over 3000 firms, because it greatly increases daylight in the plant, and also improves sanitary conditions

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SEVENTY-FIRST YEAR

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

VOLUME CXLII
NUMBER 11

NEW YORK, MARCH 13, 1915

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Panama Canal Open to Large Ocean Liners

THAT the recent heavy slides in the Culebra cut have not by any means stopped the traffic of ocean-going ships is proved by the accompanying illustration, which shows the "Kronland," of 22,000 tons displacement, the largest ship which has navigated the canal, passing through Culebra cut at a point opposite the troublesome Cucaracha slide.

It will be remembered that the last movement of this slide was so serious that the material practically cut off all navigation. That the channel has been opened sufficiently for such a large ship as the "Kronland," which is nearly 600 feet in length, to pass through, is due to the very powerful dredging machinery which was ordered by Col. Goethals about two years ago for this very kind of work. The two huge dipper dredges of the chamber type, aided by ladder dredges and hydraulic dredges, have made such rapid inroads on the slide that when the "Kronland" passed through, the canal presented to the eye a normal condition. That there will be other slides is probable; but they will decrease in size and number as the days pass by, and the time is probably not far distant when the banks of the great Culebra cut, which is nine miles in length, will on both sides have found a slope of permanent repose.

According to the last statement from the Navy Department, the fleet will not be sent through the canal, but will probably content itself with entering Gatun Lake and taking part in a review in those waters. We think that this is a wise course, for if the ships did pass through to the Pacific side, and a slide of magnitude occurred, they might find themselves under the necessity of passing around Cape Horn in order to make sure passage back to Atlantic waters. In view of the present disturbed condition in Europe, and the many diplomatic questions of international scope which are arising day by day, this condition of affairs would certainly be deplorable.

The First National Bird Census

THE much-talked-of "census of the birds" taken last summer by the U. S. Biological Survey undoubtedly led to popular misconceptions as to the purpose and scope of this novel undertaking; hence, there was ample need for Bulletin 187 of the Department of Agriculture, just issued, entitled "Preliminary Census of Birds of the United States," in which the subject is put in its proper light.

The first extensive undertaking of similar character in this country, but on a local, not a national, scale, was the "sectional bird census" taken at Berwyn, Pa., during the seasons of 1890, 1900, and 1901, by F. L. Buras. In that case 568 pairs of native birds were found breeding on 640 acres. In the summer of 1907 the University of Illinois conducted a series of statistical bird studies in southern Illinois. A bird census of a tract of land near Washington, D. C., has been taken annually for some years by the Biological Survey.

As Congress has recently placed the Department of Agriculture in charge of migratory game and insectivorous birds, in connection with protective legislation, it has become necessary to ascertain the abundance and distribution of the various species throughout the country as far as possible from year to year, so that the effectiveness of protective measures can be tested. The census of 1914 was, therefore, but the first of a series. It was really of a very fragmentary character, embracing the reports of less than two hundred volunteer observers. Each of these selected a tract of farmland ranging from forty to eighty acres and conforming approximately to certain specifications, on this tract a daily early morning reconnaissance was made for several days at the height of the breeding season, and the number of male birds (at that season in full song) was counted, also the number of each species. Each male was assumed to represent a breeding pair.

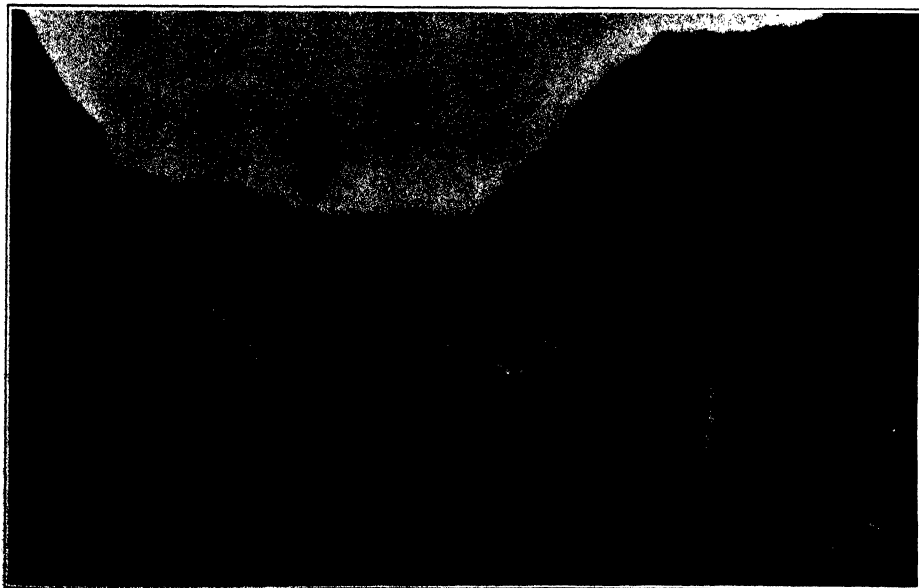
In this first census only the northeastern States were

covered with some degree of completeness, though there were a few scattered observers in the West and South-east. The results were, however, decidedly interesting and significant. The densest bird population was found at Chevy Chase, Md. (a suburb of Washington) where 161 pairs of thirty-four species were found nesting on twenty-three acres. Here it was noticeable that the blocks most thickly inhabited by people were also most fully occupied by breeding birds. The census showed that the commonest bird in the northeastern United States is the robin, with the English sparrow a close second, while the catbird, brown thrasher, house wren, kingbird, and bluebird follow in the order named. The English sparrow, ordinarily thought of as a city bird, is common on farms, averaging about five pairs to the farm in the northeastern States. A few years ago a severe winter destroyed nearly the whole bluebird population of the eastern States, but the census indicates that there are now several million of this popular species in the northeastern part of the country.

A much more thorough census will probably be taken this year.

Power Developed in Cannons

Monsieur LE COMMANDANT REGNAULT has calculated the actual horse-power developed during the firing of a projectile by some modern specimens of artillery. The results are truly astounding. In the case of a cannon of moderate size, projecting a projectile weighing 7 kilograms with an initial velocity of 500 meters, the deflagration of the explosive lasting about one hundredth of a second, we have, during that time, work done to the extent of 115,000 horse-power. For larger artillery, where the weight of the projectile reaches and surpasses 500 kilograms, the initial velocity being 300 meters, we have no less than 25 million horse-power developed during the explosion. These figures give an idea of the formidable efforts which the metal of modern pieces of artillery has to support.



The Panama-Pacific liner "Kronland" passing through the Culebra cut.

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Founded 1845

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*The purpose of this journal is to record accurately,
simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in sci-
entific knowledge and industrial achievement*

For the Defense of the Country

IF ever there was a case of a "timpest in a teapot" it is to be found in the excitement which has been stirred up in Washington over that patriotic movement which is known as the American Legion. The object of the Legion is merely to obtain the names and addresses of those citizens who, in the event of an attack on this country, would be prepared to volunteer for its defense—just that and nothing more.

Whenever war has come quickly upon the country, as in the case of the Spanish war, and the President has sent out a call for volunteers, there has been a great deal of confusion and delay in getting the volunteers together, wading out the list from the vault, and placing the men in their respective training camps. The object of the American Legion is merely to provide and file at certain headquarters lists of competent men, who in an emergency would instantly respond to a call to arms and volunteer for the service of their country.

Surely it is the right of an American citizen to inform the Government that if it should need his services he stands ready on the receipt of letter or telegram to present himself at the place for volunteer enrollment. Surely, the recognition of this right, and the endeavor to have an organized system of properly filed and docketed addresses of these citizens is neither an encroachment on the domain of the army, nor the usurpation of any Government function.

As a matter of fact, this movement is distinctly in line with the policy recently enunciated by our President, when he advocated the preparation of a trained force of citizen soldiery. And if the authors of this movement have asked and received the advice of officers of our Army, given in their capacity as private citizens, we fail to see that there has been the least impropriety of conduct, either on the part of the citizens themselves or of the officers who have been approached.

As a matter of fact, the whole fuss is foolish and perverse, and so far from the movement being discouraged by Government officials, whether of the executive, the legislature, or the army, it should receive from these gentlemen every possible official encouragement.

The fact is that in the matter of the pressing urgency of national defense, Congress and the whole present administration, with the notable exception of the Secretary of War, is woefully out of touch with the nation at large. We speak advisedly, for the series of articles which we have recently published under the caption "The United States—An Undeveloped Treasure Land" has brought to this office an unusually large number of letters, strongly commending the stand which we have taken; whereas we have not received a single letter in opposition to the plans for defense as outlined in those articles.

It is our belief, indeed, that the most important, by far, the most important matter which will come before Congress at its next session will be that of providing adequate naval and military defenses for the United States; and if our Congressmen will but take the trouble to get in close touch with their constituents and lay their hands upon the public pulse, they will find that the time is ripe for them to make good the declen-

cies of the past, deficiencies which are due more than anything else to the fact that Congress has been playing politics with this question, when it should have given the matter its earliest and most serious attention.

Two years ago in Berlin the writer had a lengthy conversation with a general who is now commanding one of the German armies in the western theater of the present war. Immediately upon introduction he said: "It is amazing to me that a country as large and wealthy as its own and proclaiming a line of policies of such importance as the Monroe Doctrine, the Open Door in China and the exclusion of the Asiatics, fails to see the necessity for providing adequate naval and military forces to take care of its interests. I well understand," he said, "that yours is not in any sense a militaristic nation; but it seems to me that if you fail to provide an army proportionate to your size and wealth and international policies, you are liable some day in the future to be subjected to a great national calamity."

The defenselessness of the United States is perfectly well understood by the foreign powers, and to every one of them the failure of Congress to provide a reasonable army of defense is looked upon as an invitation to a disaster of the first magnitude.

Forcing the Dardanelles

A GREAT many unexpected things have happened during the present war, and chief among them is the success which the allied fleets have achieved in forcing the passage of the Dardanelles. This strait, some forty miles in length, fairly bristles with powerful, long-range guns, and its waters are known to be extensively sown with mines. Theoretically it should mean destruction to any ship or fleet which attempts to enter these waters and by the removal of the mines, and the reduction of the forts, break its way through to Constantinople.

Before the opening of the war and, indeed, up to the time of this bold attempt on the part of the allied fleets, it was held that the accuracy of shooting possible by the guns of coast fortifications, and their extreme ranging power, was such as to render it impossible for any warship to come within range without imminent danger of being sent to the bottom. When it comes to a matter of fighting at distances of from ten to fifteen thousand yards, the effectiveness of gun-fire depends, primarily, upon the ability of the contestants to estimate the range of the ship or the fort as the case may be.

The distance is estimated by the well-known system of triangulation, in which the length of the base line is known and about the two base angles. The accuracy of the distance, as thus calculated, will naturally increase with the increase of the base line upon which the calculations are determined. On the ship, the triangulation is done automatically by a range-finder in which the base line is from, say, nine to twenty-one feet in length, and everyone will recognize that a calculation of a distance of twelve to fifteen thousand yards on a base line of seven yards requires great accuracy, both in the instrument and its adjustment by the observer. When the shots begin to land on the fort, observers on the ship attempt to "spot" the fall of the shot by the dust which is raised, or by the smoke of the explosion—a very difficult matter, particularly when the fortification is elevated above sea level.

Calculation of the distance of the ship by observers in the fort is more accurate because a base line of great length, even up to a mile, may be used, and the angles at the ends of this base line to the ship can be most accurately determined. Furthermore, it is possible to observe the splash of the shots, and determine how much they are over or short, the ship with great precision, particularly if the fortification is elevated considerably above sea level. Furthermore, the fortification guns are on a solid platform and the gun-sight may be held absolutely upon the mark. There is no such quick manipulation of the guns by the pointer as is necessary on a ship which is rolling several degrees. Consequently the rapid success which has attended the attacks of the allied fleets is causing great surprise. Indeed, it is difficult to account for it, except on the ground that the heavy guns of the Turkish forts are of old pattern and low velocity, and the work of the gunners is far below the standard which has been reached in naval gunnery.

There are two lines of progress—first the night operations of a fleet of destroyers and lighter cruisers in removing the mines in advance of the battleship fleet. When a stretch of the strait has been cleared, the fleet moves forward, and, at a predetermined distance, steams to and fro, raining shells from its ten and twelve-inch guns until the forts are breached and the guns dismantled. If the allied fleet succeeds in forcing its way through the strait and reaching Constantinople, the exploit will constitute the most brilliant feat of its kind in the history of naval warfare. With Constantinople under the guns of the fleet, its fall is certain. With its fall, the era of Turkish rule, or rather misrule, in Europe will have closed forever.

Overcrowding and Health

IN the controversy between the Health Commissioner of this city and the Chairman of the Public Service Commission, on the subject of overcrowded cars, the sympathies of the public will naturally be with the Health Commissioner. The Board of Health in the exercise of its undoubted right to forbid the conduct of any business in a manner which constitutes a nuisance prejudicial to health, has called upon the Public Service Commission to exercise its authority over the transportation companies and prevent overcrowding on two crowded surface lines in this city. The Commission has replied that the overcrowding can be prevented only by hanging out a sign indicating that the car is full, as soon as the occupants number 50 per cent in excess of its seating capacity. This would be to adopt, in principle, the continental system of displaying a sign as soon as every seat is occupied, thereby indicating that no more passengers can be taken. In view of the enormous number of passengers traveling day by day in this city, and the rush with which the city's daily life is carried on, we believe that there would be a public outcry against the adoption of any such system—and this for the reason that rather than wait for a seat, the average American traveler is willing to undergo the inconvenience of "straphanging."

But, as the Board of Health points out, there is another and better way in which overcrowding can be prevented, and that is by putting more cars into service during the hours in which the worst crowding occurs. It is the practice of the transportation companies, and especially of the subway operating company, to cut down the size and number of trains between the rush hours. If this were done judiciously, there could be no objection to the practice, but almost invariably the reduction in the number and frequency of trains is such as to cause overcrowding to continue throughout the whole day. The same conditions exist on many of the surface lines, both in Manhattan, the Bronx, and Brooklyn.

The Board of Health is certainly within its rights in drawing attention to this unnecessary crowding, and the irritation shown by the Public Service Commission in its reply to the order of the Board of Health seems to indicate that the former body has not gone very wide of the mark in calling the Public Service Commission to account. It is the duty of the Commission to keep in very close touch with transportation conditions, and particularly should it watch this matter of overcrowding. When the Board of Health considers that the overcrowding has reached the point at which the health of the traveling public is so greatly endangered as to call for a definite protest against the practice, the public may rest assured that the danger is a very real one and that the possibilities of infection and contagion due to the herding of people in confined spaces for a long period of time are a positive menace.

The present commissioner of the Board of Health is held in very high repute in his own department, which is thoroughly in accord with the action which he has made. The Public Service Commissioners are appointed to their very lucrative positions in order that the interests of the traveling public might be thoroughly safeguarded, and now that the menace to the public health due to overcrowding has been brought to their attention by so high a technical authority as the Health Commissioner, the public will hold them to account if they fail to do everything that is in their power to remedy the existing conditions.

Plant Autographs and What They Mean

THE dramatically interesting investigation outlined in the article on Plant Autographs appearing elsewhere in this issue is highly significant. It was conducted by Prof. Jagadis Chunder Bose as a continuation of a remarkable series of studies which culminated in positive proof that inorganic matter is as responsive to external electrical tests as organic matter. In other words, there is but one matter, whether it is living or non-living. The investigation described proves that there is no difference between plant and animal life in response to environment, and that the barrier long supposed to exist between the two is purely arbitrary. If all matter is alive, if it is wrong to set up barriers between the living and the non-living, surely we must speak not of "science," but "metaphysics." There is but one matter, one science, one truth, and all outwardly different matters, all sciences and all truths are part of a great unity. It is positively fitting that this should have been taught by a descendant of Hindu philosophers, who arrived by sheer speculation at conclusions which he has verified with the objective methods of modern science. In this remarkable investigation, therefore, the synthetic intuitionism of the East co-operates with the analytic methods of the West in a single mind. In science, at least, all nations meet on a common ground of understanding, although half the nations of the world are at war.

Panama-Pacific Exposition Notes

Many Associations to Meet at the Fair.—Nearly four hundred State, national and international associations have already signified their intention to hold conventions at San Francisco during the fair season, and for these ample accommodations have been made. Most of these will be held in the big Convention Hall on the grounds, but there will also be many important and interesting gatherings in the State buildings, a number of which have made provision for such meetings.

Statistics of Numbers and Weight.—The total weight in exhibits handled by the traffic department is 80,000 tons. This hardly conveys an adequate idea of the immensity of the exhibit space, although speaking roughly it would approximate a ton for each exhibitor. The gross of tonnage measurement is 500,000 tons. The number of individual packages, boxes, crates and boxes handled runs so far over a million that additional figures would lend little emphasis.

Guarding the Roses.—Exposition guards have already been established to keep careful watch over the growing rose bushes that have been entered by famous growers of the world in competition for the \$1,000 prize for the best rose, hitherto unnamed and never exhibited, which is to be produced. This rose, when the award is made, will be given a name that will pertain to the exposition, thus perpetuating the name and the glory of the exposition through the medium of a lovely bloom.

Arrangement and Appearance of the Fair.—The Panama-Pacific Exposition occupies a space of 21½ miles along the water front of the city, the buildings at the foot of a range of hills that forms a fitting background for the picturesque collection of buildings, which, with their domes, spires and minarets, is suggestive of some old time oriental city. By day the varied colors of the buildings against the verdure of their settings present a scene of harmony, while by night wonderful effects produced by the flood of electric light, luxuriously diffused throughout the grounds, are entrancing in the extreme. The exhibition buildings occupy the center of the scene, as viewed from the bay, to their right are located the buildings erected by the different States and foreign countries represented at the fair, together with race track and fields for aviation and out-door sports, and to the left hand portion of the grounds is given over to the amusement features, a region known as the "Zone."

Bewildering Array of Articles Sent.—From the safe custody and transferring of three grams of radium, swathed in protecting coverings and guarded jealously, to the handling of the 1,500-ton exhibit of the United States Steel Corporation the details of installation have run the scale of the multifarious articles of art, industry, commerce and general activity. Every square foot of a hundred feet in height and a foot thick at the base, palms from Cuba and South America with a 24-foot spread and a 4-foot base, orchids from the Philippines, from Australia and the Netherlands, works of fine art by world masters, ceramics from Italy and porcelain from Austria and satsuma and china from Japan, portable and imported, breakable and unbreakable, live beavers from Idaho and stuffed elk from Canada, big and little articles of dress and fashions beyond price, all have had their day with the elaborate organization in charge of traffic. They all came jumbling and tumbling through the great arteries of transportation that led to the exposition grounds, but they went by their separate ways through the finer capillaries until the minutest corpuscle was distributed to the smallest cell waiting for it.

Installing the Exhibits.—Four thousand workmen, working three shifts a day, a half dozen engines hauling box and flat cars of exhibits directly into the exhibit palaces, automobile trucks by the score and drays by the hundred, every conceivable scheme of moving, aided by the dozen combined during the few days before the opening of the Fair to present a scene of high pressure activity at the grounds of the Panama-Pacific International Exposition. The work of installing the myriads of exhibits was something that few people can imagine. Naturally the exhibitors delayed sending their consignments until the latest moment, so that when they did begin to arrive there was an avalanche from every quarter of the world. Countless crates, cases and boxes flowed in both by rail and by water, and except for an elaborate and efficient system of sorting and distribution, that had been carefully worked out by the management utter confusion would have arisen, for it must be remembered there are 80,000 tons represented on the grounds. A system of tracks led to and into every exhibition building, and by means of these the car loads of freight, which the railroad companies transferred on flats directly to the exposition docks, were quickly and without confusion run to the particular building to which the exhibits were assigned. Once there, powerful cranes were ready at hand to unload and place the heavy pieces directly in their place. Steamships from foreign lands docked at the same place, and their cargoes were similarly handled.

Science

To Remove Germs From Milk.—Recent investigations in the Dairy Division of the U. S. Bureau of Animal Industry have proved that the flavor of germs may be entirely removed from milk by blowing air through it while it is held at a temperature of at least 140 deg. Fahr. An exposure of 30 minutes at 145 deg. Fahr. is sufficient to free milk from the most objectionable flavor. A somewhat longer exposure is necessary for hardy germs.

Hardy Spineless Cacti.—The U. S. Bureau of Plant Industry reports that in the course of its explorations in the southwest in quest of new species and varieties of cacti, three species have been found which promise to be of much economic importance. They are remarkably smooth and remain so under cultivation, grow rapidly, and will be hardy in the San Antonio and Austin regions. With the aid of these new forms in breeding operations it is hoped to increase the cold-resistance of the ordinary spineless species from 10 to 15, or possibly 20 degrees.

The Gypsy and the Brown-tail Moths.—The U. S. Bureau of Entomology reports encouraging progress in the fight with those formidable pests. Both insects have been shown to develop resistance to the locust plague. The locust, which suffered severely from the weather of last winter and from the work of the brown-tail moth fungus disease and imported parasites. The Bureau prepared colored posters illustrating the gypsy moth and its natural enemies, and these were posted in all postoffices and town offices in infested districts. Post cards bearing similar illustrations were distributed by mail and by the Boy Scouts.

Relation of Malaria to Agriculture.—An intensive study of the decrease of productivity in an agricultural community due to malaria has been made by the Bureau of Entomology in Madison Parish, La. It was found that 12 families, cultivating 240 acres of land, lost an aggregate of 88 weeks during the crop-growing season from this cause, or more than 7 weeks per family. The financial loss in the case was estimated at \$24 per family. Where the holl-weevil prevails the losses would be much heavier, as failure to keep up the cultivation of the crop or to plant at the proper time gives the weevil a decided advantage. It is clear from those investigations that the present loss through malaria in the southern States amounts to many millions of dollars.

The Cotton-bell Weevil.—According to a report of the U. S. Bureau of Entomology, has changed somewhat in structure since entering the United States, and has also become adapted to greater severities of climate. Moreover, it is now able to obtain subsistence and possibly to develop on certain plants related to cotton, among them being *Abutilon* species and *Gossypium* species. In some of the mountain canyons of Arizona the weevil has been found on the so-called Arizona wild cotton, *Thurberia thurberiana*, and this western form of the weevil shows even greater adaptivity to climatic extremes than the eastern variety. Hence considerable fear is felt for the success of western cotton growing, and the Bureau of Entomology has been making a special study of the situation. During the year 1913 the weevil spread over 17,700 square miles of new territory in the United States, and caused a primary loss in production of the area planted in cotton in that year of about \$30,000,000.

A Humane Algicide Industry.—The latest "Webster" dictionary says of algicides that "they grow only during the breeding season, so that in obtaining them not only are the parent birds killed, but the young are left to starve. The eggs producing them are therefore fast becoming extinct." While this statement is true of the algicide industry as heretofore generally conducted and the cruelty of algicide hunting has led to widespread legislation intended to discourage traffic in these feathers, it appears that a perfectly humane industry is now being developed in India. In the *Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society*, Mr. George Birch, assistant commissioner of the province of Sind, reports that eggs have been very extensively domesticated in that province. The birds are bred in captivity, and are plucked of their "algae" or algicides without suffering any injury, just as in the case of ostriches. It is reported that the eggs are so tame that they allow themselves to be seized without showing any fear. The killing of eggs for their plumage was prohibited in the province about 30 years ago. The practice arose of snaring the birds and keeping them in captivity, but this led to the cruel custom of stitching up the birds' eyes in order to prevent their escape. After the authorities put a stop to the latter feature of the industry, egg-farming became so humane and legitimate a business as to render unnecessary and unreasonable the present law against shipping the feathers out of India. The industry has become extremely profitable.

Aeronautics

Explosive Darts Against Zeppelins.—R. F. Robertson, of Dublin, Ireland, has just patented an invention designed for the destruction of Zeppelin balloons by aeroplanes. He is said to have received a large order from the French and British army departments. The invention consists of a steel dart, fitted at its rear with fishhook-like projections. The dart is hollow and contains an explosive which burns with a fierce sharp flame. When such a dart strikes an aeroplanes or a Zeppelin or other gas balloon, the hooks catch in the fabric after the point of the dart has pierced it and the explosive charge is ignited by the pulling backward of a friction detonator. As the explosion takes place inside the gasing its effects are expected to be disastrous.

Sperry Experiments with His Stabilizer.—Lawrence Sperry has lately been experimenting with his automatic flying boat around New York, and among other things has tested the automatic volplane device in connection with the gyroscopic control. It is reported that this is a small instrument resembling a windmill, which acts upon an electric switch, putting into action the auxiliary motor that works the controls. The action obtains only when the windmill's speed is reduced through the slowing of the aeroplane by engine stoppage or other cause, when the elevator is operated to load the craft downward. A curious accident occurred during one flight, when a small sheet copper patch on the propeller loosened and was shot through the hull of the boat, causing a leak.

Eight-cylinder Motors Exported.—How quickly the American Maynard gasoline motor has forced its way to the front, is plainly shown by the fact that it is the latest type of this motor is used in certain hydro-aeroplanes, which have been ordered by the Allied governments. The motor in question is the Herschel-Spallman engine, which is being used in at least two of the 1915 models of motor cars. Its flexibility, power and lightness have served to draw attention to it as a probable motor for aeroplanes and hydro-aeroplanes. It is reported that the German government has lodged an official protest against the manufacture and export of these motors to the Allies. The protest was disallowed, and the motors are now being installed in hydro-aeroplanes at Hammondport, N. Y.

\$5,000 for Army and Navy Airmen.—When Glenn H. Curtiss took part in competitions he found that a trophy was great incentives to good work, and to promote healthy emulation and to aid in the development of aeronautics in the army and navy he has not only offered a trophy worth \$5,000, to be competed for annually, but will give five purses of \$1,000 each to those accomplishing the best results. These prizes are offered through the War Club of America, and the rules of the contest will be arranged by a committee composed of members of the club and of the army and navy. That some encouragement is due to the progressive men in the Government service will be appreciated when it is pointed out that the appropriations made for aeronautics for the coming year by the United States Government will not permit the maintenance of more aeroplanes than Montenegro or Turkey has.

Seaplanes for the Navy.—Bids on the first open competition for hydro-aeroplanes for the United States Navy were opened on February 27th, and the department was much gratified over the fact that fifteen concerns participated. Six machines are required, and the general specifications call for airplanes of a seagone type to carry two persons, guns, ammunition, wireless outfit, and a certain amount of armor. A speed of from 50 to 80 miles per hour is required, and they are to weigh between 2,500 and 3,000 pounds, with an average carrying capacity of 600 pounds. All information as to the plans and details of the proposed machines is refused, so that any comparison of the bids is submitted is impossible. The following is a list of the bidders and the price named by each for a single machine. It will be noted that the Galland Company bids for but a single machine, and the B. F. Sturtevant Company and the Tyagar Engine Company put in figures for the power plant alone.

Aircraft Company, Inc.	\$12,820
The Burgess Company	11,000
The Curtiss Aeroplane Company	17,925
Galland Company, Inc.	18,000
Grunell Aeroplane Company	15,000
William C. Hurst	11,000
Peopl Aeroplane Corporation	7,500
Shaw Aeroplane Company	8,500
The B. F. Sturtevant Company (motor only)	4,325
Thomas Brothers Aeroplane Company	8,800
E. Thomas Brothers Aeroplane Company	12,800
The Tyagar Engine Company (motor only)	14,000
The Wright Company	15,000
B. Stephens & Son	6,000
G. H. Armington	8,250
A. M. Herring	6,900

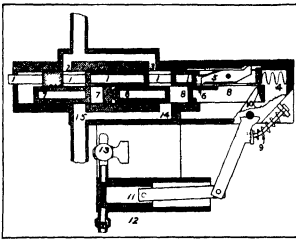
The specifications under which the bids were submitted included a number of heads, and it will require some time to classify and consider the figures contained in the bids.

A Machine That Remembers and Forgets

By W. H. Dearden

A MACHINE that can learn things and then will forget them if it is not kept in practice, that can form habits like a living being, and is, in fact, intended to imitate the memory processes of life itself, has actually been invented and built. It is now attracting the keen interest in the small circle of scientists who know of it. Because it has a memory like a brain, very limited, of course, but astonishing enough even at that, it might be called a "brain machine."

An example of what the brain-machine could readily be made to do will show its marvel. Any electrical student could construct a little apparatus which would



Mechanical brain of the remembering machine.

move toward the warmth of a fire and then would move back again when it came so close that the heat was excessive. Such an apparatus, not at all wonderful in itself, could be attached to this brain-machine and the wonders would begin. If a fire was placed near the machine it would move toward the heat, like a little child or an animal who felt cold. When the machine came so close that the heat was excessive, it would move back like a child or an animal who had come too close and suffered a burn.

After one or two such experiences, the brain-machine would have learned its lesson. If fire were then placed near it, it would not move up, in fact, it would probably back away as if it were afraid of being burned. Again and again the experiment might be tried, and the machine would keep away from the fire. However, let the machine rest for awhile, say over night, and it would forget. Then, if the fire were placed near it, the machine would move up and again be burned and jump back. This would teach the lesson again and the "habit" of not being burned would have again been acquired but only frequent experience would keep the machine from forgetting.

The invention of this curious apparatus is not a visionary dreamer, but a practical mechanical engineer, S. Bent Russell of St. Louis. He has become deeply interested in the whole science of nerve and brain study. The idea came to him that the engineering profession has so far contributed little or nothing to brain study, and yet probably has much valuable knowledge that could be used there, and so he determined to help the psychologist by constructing a mechanism which has associative memory, thus proving that associative memory, at least in some form, could be a matter of mechanism. It is a simple process of the nervous system which Mr. Russell sought to imitate. If an impulse proceeds along one nerve channel in an animal, and then, when it gets to the end invariably it is followed by a second impulse along a second channel, and this sequence is repeated often enough, there will soon be what might be called a short-cut channel from the beginning of the first impulse to the end of the second impulse, the starting of the first impulse will be enough to cause the second action. An essential part of the machine is a valve which will open wider the more often it is used and the more recently it has been used. This valve is the ordinarily dull nerve channel that develops into an active open channel with frequent use. Compressed air may be used for power, and thus with the use of this valve the amount of power applied at one place depends upon how often the power is applied to that one place, and how recently. If the power is applied often the valve opens wide and acts at that one place surely and

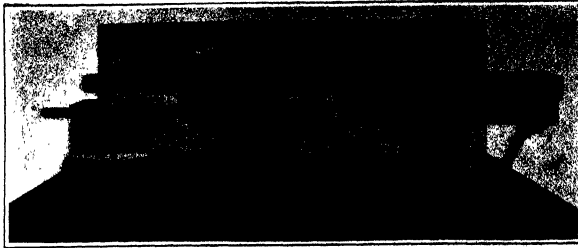
effectively, but if it is applied seldom, the valve only opens slightly, and most of the power will go to an entirely different spot and accomplish an entirely different result.

The diagram represents one of the transmitters of Mr. Russell's machine and shows its essential principle. The slide valve 1 is shown at the extreme end of its inward stroke, or stroke to the right, as in receiving a signal, and this is known as the spur valve. When it is in this position it opens ports 2 and 3 to admit pressure (in this case we shall assume that hydraulic pressure is used). It is the final destination of the water entering ports 2 and 3 that determines what action shall follow an impulse. The spur valve spring 4 is now compressed. The pawl 5 which is attached to the spur valve is pressed by a spring into engagement with the ratchet 6. Valve 1 slides over the lag valve 7 and the ratchet valve 8.

The ratchet valve 8 is shown in the figure in its original position or right-hand end of its stroke. When valve 1 is permitted to make its return or outward stroke the valve 8 moves also, pushed by pawl 5, but valve 8 cannot move far, as the pawl is soon tripped by the lag on its top striking the casing. When the ratchet valve 8 is thus released, it moves back to the right, driven by lever spring 9, acting through the rocking finger 10. As this action is taken, the dashpot plunger 11 is driven back by the force of this same spring 9, and conversely, when valve 8 slides to the left, it sucks air into dashpot 12 through a check valve, and this air can only issue out through adjusting cock 13. In this way the return stroke of the ratchet valve 8 is very slow, being controlled by the speed of the air passing out of 13. If the time interval before a second stroke of spur valve 1 is long enough, ratchet valve 8 will have reached its original position, and its second stroke will be the same as the first and lag valve 7 will not be moved. If on the other hand, the time interval is so short that the second stroke of the spur valve comes before the ratchet valve has arrived at its original position, the ratchet will cause the ratchet valve to advance farther to the left than before, and hence the lag valve will be advanced farther to the left. Now, the farther valve 8 moves to the left the greater will be the effective opening for water pressure from port 3



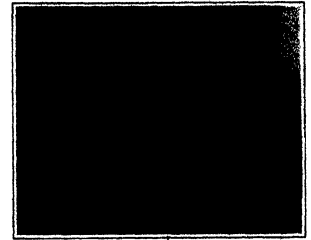
Sun-dial various adjustable for latitudes.



Transmitter (on the right) and receiver (on the left) of the remembering machine.

to leave port 15. Hence, the effective opening for any stroke will be in inverse proportion to the time interval since the last stroke. In other words, the passageway will gradually close between strokes. In the case of the lag valve 7, the farther it moves to the left the greater will be the effective opening for water pressure from port 3 to issue port 15.

In application to the idea is simple. The more often the spur valve 1 is operated back and forth the bigger will be the opening through 3 and 14, or the more active will be this nerve channel. The size of that opening is controlled by valve 8, and it will be seen that the forgetting part of the machine is the dashpot 12. When the plunger 11 is pushed all the way in, the machine has forgotten. When it is pulled out, the machine remembers, or keeps



A modified form of the "brain" machine.

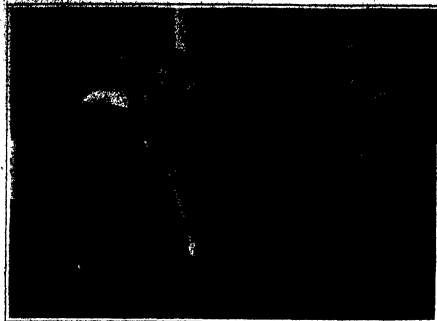
the 3-14 channel open. By allowing the air in the dashpot to escape slowly through 13, the time in which it takes the machine to forget can be controlled.

In combining a number of these units together some more ingenious mechanism has been made, but the unit is the essential principle.

Universal Sun-dial

IN THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of August 10th, 1912, we described a sun-dial similar to the one shown in the accompanying engraving, but which, unlike this one, was not adjustable for various latitudes. For the benefit of those who did not see the original article, we will explain that, in use, sun-dials of this type are swung in a vertical plane until the shadow cast by the gnomon falls on the "sun line." In the present case the gnomon shown in the upper right-hand corner, contains a key-hole slot, and the sun-dial is adjusted to center the light shining through this slot, upon the sun-line. Then the time may be determined by noting where the plummet line crosses the forenoon or the afternoon hour line, as the case may be. Of course the point of attachment of the plummet line must be adjusted for the day of the year, as a moment's consideration will prove. At sunrise and sunset the shadow of the gnomon is horizontal, and the plummet line must be parallel with the line connecting the forenoon and afternoon hour curves.

But in the latitude of New York, for instance, the sun sets at about 4:30 in December and 7:30 in June. Evidently then the plummet should be hung from different points at different times of the year. To provide for this adjustment, the sun-dial here shown has a sector graduated with a date scale, and a pointer carrying a button to which the plummet line is attached. As the pointer is moved to the date on which the observation is taken, the button which slides freely on the pointer and also in a slot cut in a celluloid plate, travels on a straight line instead of a curve. The arrangement is such that the plummet is adjusted for the variations of the sun's declination at different days of the year. The actual value of the declination may be read on a scale on the sector. If this sun dial is to be used in more than one latitude, a further adjustment is necessary. This is provided by making the sector movable with respect to a latitude scale. Our illustration shows the sector adjusted to latitude 40° degrees. The celluloid plate must be set with its slot centered over the point where a pointer line of the sector crosses a fixed vertical line. The position of the pointer may be set for the date and the sun dial may be used as described above. The brevity of this ingenious sun-dial is Mr. W. Lotzert of New York City.



"Sweeping"—Another blind alley occupation.



The regular grade school has been unable to develop these boys.

The Educational Scrap Heap and the Blind Alley Job

The Need of Opportunities for Working Youth

By L. W. Dooley

A MATTER that is of great economic and vast sociological importance is the rapidly growing army of the unemployed, the great majority of whom are not qualified to fill positions requiring skill or special training, and yet lack the education necessary to enable them to undertake anything but manual labor. That the source of these conditions lies in our educational system is explained in an article in the current issue of the *Scientific American Magazine* by L. W. Dooley, who discusses the subject at length and makes practical remedial suggestions. An outline of this article is given in the following paragraphs, and it is evident the article is well worth the attention of all interested in sociological conditions.

Waste is repugnant to us to-day. This same cry of greater efficiency of the modern time has entered our educational system. Citizens and public spirited men are criticizing our schools through the newspapers and magazines. They claim that there is great waste in our schools, the essential is neglected, and the boys and girls are not properly prepared for life. The practical abandonment of the apprenticeship in the country, except in a few isolated places like Brown & Sharpe Manufacturing Company, is bringing about a want of skilled workmen which the modern industrial system is failing to supply. On the other hand, the great number of unskilled workers have increased, and all of them have not been able to obtain employment. The great industrial demand of the present and of the recent past is making this want felt more and more sharply. The whole country is awakening to the necessities of the case and demanding a remedy. Organized educational forces are moving rapidly in the direction of making our school system more practical. There can be but little question that our school system has lagged behind the development of those forces of business organization with which they should be clearly articulated. Our school system is only just now entering upon the wraps of efficiency which industry has long since considered. Nowadays educational experts are beginning to see that the dull pupils can be rescued and that stupidity has various causes, a great many of which may be cured. In years gone by, if a girl or boy did not get on well in school, he or she was most likely noted as being just plain stupid, and called a dunce, and allowed to drag along until the day came when they would leave school. These children have been referred to as the scrap heap of the public school system. This educational scrap heap, designated, by our present school system, as workless, has great latitive power and capacity for useful work and expects no difficulty in obtaining work at a high initial wage in what are called by our cities "blind alleys" or "dead end" occupations, that is, occupations

such as messenger boys, attendants in bowling alleys, doffers in mills, attendants in glass factories, etc., in which the experiences gained under the present industrial and educational conditions is said to form no basis for advancement into more skilled and better paid

father and mother did in the rural communities a generation ago.

We must act on the principle admitted by over-seers, who know or care anything about education, that the way to secure a good training for the mind is not to end the school life at the most plastic period, fourteen years of age or in the case of foreigners, as soon as they can pass an examination, but to insist that every boy shall spend a certain number of hours a week under educational training and sound teaching till he reaches manhood.

In order to overcome the educational weakness of our present dead end or blind alley occupations, we must provide opportunities for working youths on a part time system, an education which will meet with their interests and tastes, assisting each to become proficient in some line of work that he may enter after passing his usefulness in the so-called blind alley position. Our public school system should build our social economy and publish the opportunities available to young people that they may choose their life work scientifically, and in this way reduce our scrap-heap of unskilled labor to a minimum. Blind alley jobs will then become ports of entry into more skilled and profitable positions.



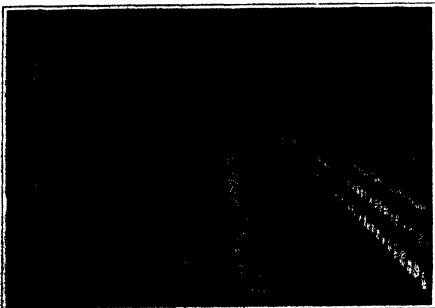
Training for a skilled trade.

work as the child grows older. When these young men reach the age of eighteen they have passed their usefulness in this type of juvenile work, and find there are not positions enough for them in other parts of the mill, and they leave and form our great unskilled army.

In order to reduce our so-called educational scrap-heap it is necessary to change our school system so that it will educate the whole boy and girl of this day. A manual training department should be attached to every school in this country. Children should be taught as soon as they go to school to use their hands, as the

Toothbrush Holder and Sterilizer

THE man who cares to subject his toothbrush to a microscopic examination will find that even though his teeth and gums are in sound condition, the bristles of his toothbrush will be swarming with millions of organisms. This filthy condition can be kept down to some extent by the use of antiseptic tooth-powders and pastes, but a still more effective method has recently been devised, which will render the brush absolutely sterile. The handle of the brush is made hollow and can be unscrewed from the brush proper, forming a receptacle into which the brush may be inserted. Inside the handle a disinfectant is kept which will sterilize the brush. The brush sealed in its hollow handle makes a very convenient package for travelers who now have difficulty in keeping their brushes out of contact with dirt.



"Doffing"—A blind alley occupation.

The Supreme Court and Unfair Competition.—The Supreme Court in the case involving L. E. Waterman Company and Modern Pen Company among other things said that when the use of his own name upon his goods by a later competitor will and does lead the public to understand that those goods are the product of a concern already established and well known under that name, and when the profit of the confusion is known to and, if that be material, is intended by the later man, the law will require him to take reasonable precautions to prevent the mistake.

The Commissioner of Patents on Compulsory Licenses*

THERE is agitation growing largely out of the conditions created by the war, in favor of the introduction of compulsory license and compulsory working of patents in this country.

The enforcement of the present situation as per laws most keenly felt in the dye and drug trades. I shall not undertake to minimize the difficulties, but they certainly do not all arise out of our patent system. The difficulties are economic. They are very acute in Great Britain in spite of provisions of her patent system which we are urged to adopt. If all of the patents now held by Germans and not worked in this country, relating to chemicals used in these two trades were thrown open to the public, it would involve a large investment of capital to prepare to manufacture these chemicals here. At a conference held in the office of the Secretary of the Interior shortly after the war began, the statement was made by an expert in the dye trade that it would require about \$100,000 of investment per dye to supply the market of the United States with dyes. The point was made then and has been frequently made since, notably in the *Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry* of November 1914, that protection against resumption of competition from Germany in excess of what is now provided by the Tariff Act, is essential. I shall not discuss the tariff, but limit an discussion to proposed changes of our patent laws.

The first thing to be considered is that compulsory working, revocation, and compulsory license must be made applicable to all patents granted in this country. We have been proposed to limit them to patents granted to foreigners. We had a somewhat similar provision in our law from 1836 to 1870. But the entire body of treaties known as the International Convention which have been negotiated since that time are based upon the fundamental provision of Article 4, that "The subjects of citizens of each of the contracting countries shall enjoy in all of the other countries of the union the advantages which the respective laws now grant, or may hereafter grant, to the citizens of that country." This article embraces not merely patents of utility and design, but also trade-marks. Any departure from this convention would render nugatory the work looking to enlargement of trade which has been done in connection with these treaties during more than thirty years. In addition to the International Convention, we have a special treaty with Germany proclaimed August 1st, 1890, which has been liberally construed by the German courts in favor of American citizens. We may I think therefore dismiss all suggestions that these new provisions be limited to foreign patents.

A recent report transmitted to our Consul General at London dated October 22nd 1914 states that at the end of 1912, after the Act of 1907 had been in operation in Great Britain for five years, about \$50,000 per week was being paid in Great Britain as wages in factories established because of the compulsory working features of that Act, and that by the end of 1913, \$10,000,000 had been spent for factories and equipment. This sum divided over five or six years is not very impressive, but leaves ample room for the argument that the disturbance of the patent system introduced by this compulsory feature outweighs the pecuniary advantages assuming the latter to be entirely genuine.

In Great Britain a curious result has been evolved by judicial construction. Among the cases reported in the *Illustrated Official Journal* is that in the matter of Hatesche's patent (1906 *Journal* page 228). Here Mr. Justice Parker held that the question is not whether the market of England is supplied wholly or satisfactorily by manufacture of the invention conducted in England, but whether England is one of the great commercial nations of the world, it is asking her fair share in the manufacturing and marketing of the invention. See what a vast field such a conclusion opens. The inventor to investigate the trade of the industrial world in any patented article, and the question what proportion Great Britain is entitled to in view of her standing as a manufacturing nation, would make, if adequately gone into a record of the world, the *Who's Who* of the world. It is a wonder the spelling book alongside of one of his unbridled dictionaries.

In an address before the Board of Trade last June, Mr. Levenstein, to whose efforts the passage of the requirement of the compulsory working was largely due, while claiming that the prospect of benefit from this section was bright at the start, frankly admits that it has been a failure. He attributes this not to the difficulty which I have pointed out above, but to an opinion expressed by Mr. Justice Parker, also in the Hatesche case, to the effect that the burden of proof that the manufacture is carried on mainly or exclusively outside

of the United Kingdom must be borne by the petitioner for revocation. Mr. Levenstein says, "The mischief, if I may call it so, became at once apparent. While we had about seventy-three applications up to the end of 1910, there was one patent revoked in 1910, and in this instance I suppose it was revoked because of no defense. In 1911 no proceedings were reported. In 1912 there was one application, and in 1913 there was one revocation."

Germany during earlier times they had a drastic compulsory working enactment, but since 1911 the working clause has been substantially identical with the clause in the British statute. I am not informed specifically as to how it has worked in Germany. But Imbols Hagmann, an eminent German authority, in his paper published in the *Report of the Investigation of the United States Patent Office* (1912, pages 434-435), says, "I do not know of a single instance in which a firm, to comply with the working clause of a foreign patent law, has started a bona fide work shop to supply the market of the country governed by such law, and it stands to reason that in the great majority of cases it would be commercially much more rational to abandon the patent and endeavor to make a market for the patent protection, whatever footing in the market had been gained."

As to the compulsory license provisions of Germany, Great Britain, and Canada, it is a well-known fact that up to the time of the outbreak of the European war, at any rate, they have not been applied. Dr. Osterleith in the *Report of the Investigation of the United States Patent Office* (1912, page 379), states that this clause in the German law proved most ineffective, "as no single case of revocation on this ground has been known." In Great Britain almost no applications have been made for compulsory licenses. There is no such case reported in the whole volume of the *Illustrated Official Journal* for the years 1909-1914. Later reports show that the same state of affairs existed down to the outbreak of the European war. In Canada also no compulsory license has ever been granted.

One reason unquestionably is that without the free co-operation of the inventor and patentee, it is impracticable to operate under a license because of the difficulty of manufacturing on a commercial scale anything with the development of which one is not familiar.

There is another objection which, I think, is more important. If a compulsory license provision is to be effective it means a new class of litigation respecting property which is almost fatally burdened with litigation under present conditions.

If it is not to be of any practicable effectiveness, it of course should be avoided. It will necessarily increase the value of patents. The mere prospect of increased litigation would insure this result.

Moreover, the policy of compulsory license raises a question of the theory of compensation of patentees which I think will almost certainly result in great hardship. Let me cite, by way of illustration of my point, the famous drug known as "406." This number means that there had been 400 experiments, 95% of which failed to produce the desired result satisfactorily. This is an exaggerated case, doubtless, but it is characteristic of invention development that the losses incident to failures which precede the final success are large.

Yet when the compensation of the patentee is to be determined, he must, in order to defend his property, present all of the failures and their bearing upon the development of the invention. The chances are far more, than even that in the end the rule will be merely to grant full compensation for the enjoyment of the final successful invention as if it had been struck off at a blow. It will certainly be very difficult to induce a court to grant return on what will be looked upon as junk.

Dr. Rittman's Gasoline Process

SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR LANE recently announced the discovery by the United States Bureau of Mines of two chemical processes, one of which, it is claimed, will be of tremendous importance to the oil industry, greatly increasing the supply of gasoline, while the other will give the United States the important materials necessary for the dye industry and the manufacture of high explosives used in warfare and in engineering operations.

The first of these processes promises to enable the independent refiners in this country to increase their output of gasoline from petroleum 200 per cent or more. With an estimated production on the part of the independent refiners of 12,000,000 barrels of gasoline a year, this will mean an output from the independents alone of 36,000,000 barrels, greater than the total production from all sources.

The second process includes the manufacture from crude petroleum of what is known chemically as toluol and benzol, both of which have heretofore been obtained from coal tar. As Germany has specialized far beyond other countries in by-products from coal, the

United States and the rest of the world have been dominated by that country as regards their products of toluol and benzol which are the important bases for the production of dye stuffs and high explosives, and especially smokeless powder.

The discoverer of these two valuable processes, after many years of research, is Dr. Walter P. Rittman, chemical engineer of the Bureau of Mines, the work having been done at Columbia University, New York, the facilities of the laboratory there having been turned over to the Federal Government by President Nicholas Murray Butler.

It is claimed by Dr. Rittman that his process is safer, simpler and is more economical in time than processes now in use, and there are economic factors of great importance. With a steadily increasing demand for gasoline for automobiles, motorboats, and engines, this fortunate discovery comes at the proper time. It is but two years ago that the automobile industry, fearful that the supply of gasoline might not be adequate for its rapidly expanding business, offered through the International Association of Reconstructed Automobile Clubs, a prize of \$100,000 for a substitute for gasoline that would cost less than gasoline. Happily the urgency of this situation has passed and at the present time there is a plentiful supply of motor fuel to meet immediate demand. This new process adds to the hope, that in spite of the wonderful growth in the use of gasoline, there may not be any shortage in the future. It indicates an increased production of gasoline from the crude production of petroleum—an output of 50,000,000 barrels instead of 25,000,000, as under the present methods. It will render free for use to all, the results of that efficient and intelligent research which has heretofore been only at the command of the wealthy. When it is realized that the gasoline industry alone, in this country yields products amounting to value for between \$100,000,000 and \$150,000,000, the importance of this discovery is seen.

Among necessary ingredients of high explosives used in modern warfare toluol and benzol are in the first rank. Heretofore these products have mainly been obtained in Germany and England from coal tar, and the explosive manufacturers have had to depend largely on the supply from these sources in the making of explosives. Some toluol and benzol have been obtained from American coal and water-gas tars, but this supply does not begin to satisfy the present demands. The Federal Government now proposes to obtain the toluol and benzol from crude petroleum also. These products can be produced from practically any American petroleum by the Rittman process, and the supply can be made sufficient not only for the entire American trade, but also for other purposes. This process has gone far enough to indicate that the two products can be produced at a reasonable cost.

Dr. Rittman concludes from his experiments that this process may become most economical than the German method of obtaining these products from coal tar, as this process not only makes toluol and benzol, but also gasoline in considerable quantities. He has intimated the possibility of the value of the gasoline being an important factor in paying the costs of the process.

The Current Supplement

THE important subject of establishing a definite universal standard for determining horsepower and the making of accurate measurements of power is fully covered in the article on The Relation of the Horsepower to the Kilowatt in the current issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2945, March 13th, 1915. The Rural School and the Hook Worm contains valuable information in relation to a subject of great importance. The Defense of Belgium by inundation gives an interesting description of that portion of Belgium where the German advance was checked by the opening of the dikes. The Educational Survey Hesper is a most valuable discussion of one of the most important educational problems now confronting us. Gyrostatic Action describes a number of gyrostatic devices available for controlling moving bodies, especially as applied to aeroplanes, submarines, and automobile torpedoes. The use of a powerful electromagnet for removing particles of metal from wounds and the new descriptive invention of great value both in peace and war. Deformation of the Earth by the Moon discusses a most interesting but difficult problem and some of the methods of solution. The consideration of police departments from an engineering standpoint is in the line of a more scientific and practical handling of criminal matters. The Strongest Vault in the World describes the remarkable structure that was installed in the new banking house of J. P. Morgan & Co. Theories about Thunder adds considerable information on a familiar subject. Some timely information in relation to trinitrotoluene, the explosive so largely used in military operations, and popularly known as TNT, is given in a short article, and there are notes on the comparison of the ether and iodine voltameters.

* Address by the Hon. Thomas Ewing, Commissioner of Patents, before the American Patent Bar Association, February 20th, 1915.

Correspondence

[The address is not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

Why the Mail Bag?

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:
The large amount of breakage and the needless crushing of many Christmas presents recently sent through the mail raises the question why the mail bag is retained by the Government. Express companies avoid much damage to packages by using common sense. Why should the Government retain this relic of the days of the pony-express, this modified form of saddle bags?
Ferdale, Cal. A. G. GRANT.

Watering City Trees

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:
In your issue of December 12th appeared a description of a novel contrivance which is being used in Strasbourg, Germany, for applying water to city trees in dry seasons. The method therein described of leading a perforated iron pipe around the tree to be watered and then attempting to saturate the hard ground sufficiently for the needs of a large tree, by means of pouring water into a funnel and thence into the bent and buried pipe, pleases me, as it appears to be a most impractical and expensive method. Your correspondent has often had occasion to apply water to planted trees in an arid climate and he has been uniformly successful with the simple expedient of boring one or more holes with a post auger (avoiding all large roots) at a suitable distance from the tree, say 18 inches more or less, according to its age, and to a depth of 2 to 3 feet. These holes, if more than one is deemed necessary, should encircle the tree equidistant and be tamped full of horse manure mixed with light stable litter, which will be found to take up water by the bucketful as fast as it can be poured thereon, fertilizing and softening the ground all around the roots and retaining the moisture for a long time. A dab of hay can easily be added on top of any hole where settling takes place. By this means the roots will also receive an increase of moisture during rainy seasons.
Lawrence, Kan. M. SHILLINGTON.

Resin and Babbitting

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:
Here is something that you probably know all about, but I know that a great many others do not, and to such it may be of great value, save time, and possibly prevent some serious accidents. As safety first is the great cry now, I give it to you either for publication or the waste basket, as you may deem fit.
While working on my first job as a millwright I had occasion to run some small boxes with Babbit metal in running one of them, when nearly full of hot metal exploded and I lost the last one of my eyes. Just then the boss millwright came around and said the cause was that there was water in the box. "And now remember as long as you work at this business that you can't run hot metal into a wet or damp box. It must always be absolutely dry or you run a great risk."
I remembered that advice and acted upon it for many years until I had all my knowledge knocked out of me by another who was not a boss.

On the last sawmill that I helped to build was running some boxes and one of them happened to be right under the eaves, and it was a rainy day; I put a cover over the box, but the water would splatter in, and I did not dare to try to run it. I told the Dutchman that was working with me that we were going to have to leave that one for some other time, for it could not be run. He said, "You run over to the store and get some resin and I will show you that we can finish the job now." I got the resin; he crushed some of it with his hammer and put it in the box that was now good and wet and said, "Now pour in your metal." This I refused to do. He took the ladle and turned in the metal, while I stood well out of the way. There was no sign of an explosion; not even steam. Since then I have run many, even if half full of water; put a little powdered resin on top and there is no danger of explosion. What is the reason?
J. F. MILLS.
Wisconsin Veterans Home, Wis.

Uncle Sam's Real Need

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:
Your discussion of our military needs is extremely timely. The trouble is our extremists. One side clamors for "universal" military training or "the biggest army in the world." The other side, with almost equal absurdity, depreciates any increase whatever. And the truth lies as so often the case, about half way between. Why emphasize a trained reserve of half a million? Simply because it goes straight to the point of vital need. But with such a force a serious naval deficit

would not spell terrible disaster. As it is now, we've got practically nothing to back our navy up.

What do your pages, and those of your contemporaries, indicate as the probable size of an invading host in case of naval defeat? From 100,000 to 150,000 men, or a possible 200,000. But what could they accomplish if we instantly mobilized 500,000 to confront them, thoroughly trained for a year, say 50,000 a year till the total was reached?

Thereafter we would only have to keep the quota full and allow a fortnight for annual maneuvers, so officers and men might march and deploy in masses of one or two hundred thousand, in which, with our present corporals' guard of an army, they can have no training whatever.

We don't want a standing army, for reasons too familiar to mention, and we don't need the proposed three years training. With volunteers of the light stamp and training, one year will suffice.

On the other hand, we do require a force of the size stated, for the reason stated. We don't like the spirit of militarism. But if those 500,000 developed too much of that spirit there are already about 50,000,000 more of it asleep there in check. And there'll soon be several more. Besides, that reserve would not be a standing army, but merely a national guard to serve in case of foreign war, and, primarily, to repel invasion.

The other needs of the service, perhaps important but minor needs, will tend to take care of themselves, if we only meet the paramount need above referred to.
San Francisco, Cal. A. S. ORS AND UNCLE SAM.

Why Ice, in Refrigerators, Prevents Freezing

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:
This problem was presented to my attention, the past winter, during a severe cold wave, which occasioned comment upon the matter of heat conservation.

At a recent convention held in Chicago the question arose as to why, when fruit is frozen in cars containing no ice, while in those containing ice, fruit was not frozen, even when the temperature was much below the freezing point.

That such results were literally correct was verified by many experiences, besides confirmed also, in a domestic way, as the freezing of contents in ice boxes when they held no ice, while when ice was stored in the box the contents remained unfrozen.

The industrial importance of such natural law will readily appear. I therefore advance an explanation which I feel satisfied will justify its acceptance.

The Chicago convention alone mentioned failed to elucidate the matter, hence, as it was still a mooted question, I essay an answer.

In the first place, we recognize the physical fact that ice registers 32 degrees of heat, while all degrees below 32 degrees must obviously be colder and thus liable to freeze any body containing water in its substance. Thus, we get frozen vegetables and fruit in cars lacking ice when the temperature drops any considerable degree below the freezing point, whereas if ice is stored in the car, the food and vegetables are not frozen.

This, then, being true, we are confronted with the explanation which I wish to advance, viz:

In the car containing ice the chill of the air is neutralized by the action of the ice when the temperature drops below that of the ice. This results from the release of latent heat as a result of condensation of vapor contained in the air, while the resultant ice, formed out of the vapor, will precipitate itself upon the ice just as rapidly as it reaches that body of frozen water, thus when the fresh ice is formed there is likewise a release of the latent heat of the vapor, amounting, at steam heat, to 966 degrees. Thus the air of the car is kept warm by the latent heat given up by the action of its condensation upon the ice, thus carrying such hidden heat. This latent heat, thus released, is the warming agent which preserves vegetables and fruits from freezing in cars or refrigerators containing ice. The fruit and vegetables, while largely water, yet being in the form of organic compounds, will resist a lower temperature than pure water.
JOHN D. BORNAS, M.D.
Buffalo, N. Y.

Integral Salts for Cold Weather Concrete

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:
In the issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for December 5th, 1914, there appears under the heading "Concrete Freezing" some statements covering the use of concrete in freezing weather, to which I should, in part, like to take friendly exception.

While it is true, as your writer says, that the use of chloride of calcium added to the mixing water will prevent the freezing of freshly deposited concrete, nevertheless the use of this substance, as well as the use of chloride of sodium, is not to be recommended for a number of reasons, and modern practice in cold weather concreting has so far recognized the validity of these reasons as to have practically ceased the use of integral substances for the purpose mentioned. Your writer says:

"It is a well-known fact that solutions of different salts are more difficult to freeze than pure water. For instance, a 20 per cent common salt solution only freezes at 14 deg. Cent below the freezing point of water and a chloride of calcium solution freezes at a still lower point, or 18 deg. Cent below. This phenomenon can be made use of in connection with concrete working, and such solutions are used when preparing the material so as to lower the freezing point. In this way it is possible to carry out work with concrete even during very great cold which would not be practicable by the ordinary process."

Experience seems to have proved that there is a practical limit to which chloride of sodium and chloride of calcium may be used, as an excess of either of these materials will affect the ultimate strength of the concrete. This limitation has made it impracticable to rely on chemical salts as a preventive of freezing for temperatures lower than 22 deg. Fahr. Hence, you can see the use of chemical salts does not, as your writer states, make "it possible to carry out work with concrete even during very great cold."

Your writer also says:

"It is better to use chloride of calcium instead of common salt for such work, as the former salt increases the waterproof quality of the concrete and is much preferable for this reason."

And further:

"Adding more than 2 per cent of salt (chloride of calcium) is found to increase the strength of concrete, but it is remarked that concretes are less resistant as the setting is quicker, so that it is not well to go higher than the foregoing figure."

This last supports what I have already cited by way of objection.

Concerning the subject of increasing the watertightness of concrete, an inferior more generally known fact of the subject of watertightness is one largely, if not entirely, dependent upon proper grading and proportioning of aggregates combined with the proper proportion of cement, materials being mixed with enough water so that the resultant mass is of a so-called "quicky" consistency, meaning that there is just enough water to permit placing the concrete with slight jiggling rather than tamping, yet not enough water to cause the sand-cement mortar to separate from the coarse aggregate.

By far the best precautions to use in cold weather concrete work consist of heating the materials used (excepting the cement) and protecting the concrete from freezing for a certain time after placing. Chloride of sodium and chloride of calcium used in safe quantities retard rather than hasten the hardening of concrete, while in winter work methods which will accelerate the hardening process are to be sought and practised.

As water is an element required to bring about the hardening of Portland cement, it is evident, first, that the water in concrete must be kept from freezing; second, heat also hastens the hardening. It is evident that warmth is desirable. This suggests heating the mixing water to a temperature of at least 150 degrees likewise heating the aggregates and mixing the heated materials so that the concrete when placed shall have a temperature not lower than 40 degrees, then at once providing suitable protection for the freshly deposited concrete, as to maintain as much of this added heat as possible for at least a 48-hour period. During this time under suitable protection, the concrete will have hardened sufficiently to be proof against injury from possible freezing thereafter.

There are other objections that condemn the use of chemical salts. First, we may consider the trouble of efflorescence, otherwise described as a whitish deposit appearing on the surface of concrete work and consisting of a substance principally free from lime carbonate. This results from the absorption of rain or moisture by porous concrete and the dissolving out of any solution salt present, which subsequently is deposited on the surface when evaporation takes place. Both sodium chloride and calcium chloride, being very deliquescent salts, will aggravate the trouble of efflorescence.

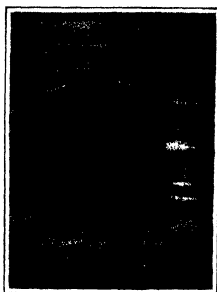
Second, recent investigations conducted by the Bureau of Standards, Washington, D. C., and contained in Technologic Papers No. 18 agree with general experience that salt and calcium chloride are especially objectionable in reinforced concrete work. Both act to corrode reinforcing metal and both increase the electrical conductivity, which is objectionable if the structure is likely to be subjected to the action of electric currents, in which case electrolysis might be set up, with eventually serious results.

We trust that the information we have volunteered will be of interest to you and possibly of interest to your readers. In either case you are at liberty to make such use of it as you see fit. We shall appreciate having you consider at any time that a part of our efforts can be drawn upon in the best interests of any use of cement or concrete, and we shall be glad at any time to have you make use of any such service we can offer.
Chicago. WILLIAM M. KIRBY.

In Quest of Sunken Treasure

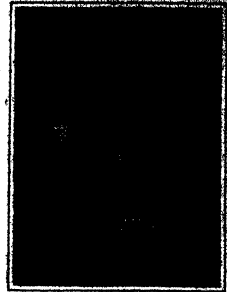
Spherical Car for Deep Sea Salvage Work

By C. L. Edholm



Lowering the spherical submarine.

[Interest in this deep-sea salvage device lies chiefly in the fact that it has actually been built. But what will it ever do? It is no small task to lower pontoons of size sufficient to raise even a small steamer. Then, assuming that the ship is not buried in mud, comes the difficulty of attaching them in such a way as not to tear the ship's plating off. Finally, even with pontoons on the surface, the greatest difficulty is experienced in raising a vessel with such even tension as to prevent the chains from snapping, one after another, and plunging the vessel to the bottom again. Only an experienced tenderer realizes the enormous weight and extreme frailty of an ocean steamer.—EDITOR.]



The four adjustable electro-magnets.

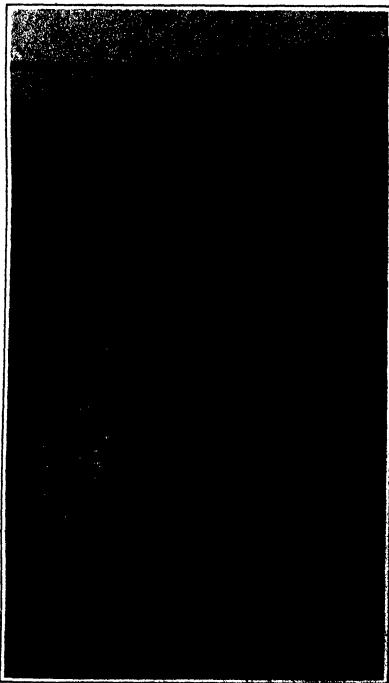
THE sea is full of gold, not only in chemical solution, but also in real coin, dollars, double eagles, pounds, Napoleons, doubloons, talents, shekels. It is all there with vast quantities of bullion and other treasures untold, the tribute that the old pirate Neptune has exacted from man through the long centuries since the first mariner ventured forth in his rough log boat. We could better endure the annual levy were it not hoarded like alder's gold, never to be put into circulation again, and so we find men ever scheming to penetrate the treasure vaults of the deep and recover some of the rich plunder. The latest scheme calls for the use of an armored car—armored against the enormous hydraulic pressure with which old Neptune tries to crush those who would venture deep into his domain. In order to make it a particularly hard nut to crack the car is made in the form of a sphere. This car has actually been built, as our photographs show. Needless to say, the picture of the car at work is drawn from pure imagination and represents the inventor's dream of what he expects to do at depths below the reach of the common diver.

The device, it will be seen, has some of the features of a diving bell and some of a submarine boat. Like the diving bell, it is connected by chains and cables to a tender ship, from which it receives electric current to operate a powerful motor. The sphere is a metal shell an inch and a quarter in thick, and is equipped with two propellers on universal joints, and these enable it to cover a wide radius at the end of its cable, so that when the device is lowered at the approximate location of a wreck, it can search for it if not immediately found. It carries a searchlight, which may be directed over the bottom from the submarine, and by a telephone system the tender is instructed to change the position of the sphere as required. Two men are carried in the sphere to operate its motors and to communicate with the vessel above.

Here is the plan of procedure as mapped out by the inventor, William D. Sisson, of Los Angeles.

When the wreck is located, the submarine car ascends to return with a pontoon of corrugated steel, which is equipped with an electrically operated pump. The pontoon is sent down filled with water, and when attached to the side of the wreck, the water is pumped out by current from the tender. The pontoon also carries a number of cables, and at the end of each is a float and a pontoon hook. If the wreck is of iron or steel construction the method of attaching the pontoon is as follows. The submarine is furnished with four electro-magnets which exert a pull of many tons when energized. The car approaches the hulk, an operator throws on the current, and the sphere is firmly clamped to the wreck. Then an electrically driven drill which is placed between the four magnets bores a hole in the side of the hull and the sphere is shifted a few inches without releasing the hold of the magnets. Meanwhile the pontoon has been put in position below the sphere, with its pontoon blocks supported by floats within a short distance. When the hole has been drilled to receive it, a hook is seized by a magnetized arm and inserted in the side of the vessel, a spring catch presents it

from slipping out, and the sphere is then shifted a short distance and another hole drilled in the wreck. This operation is repeated until a sufficient number of hooks are inserted, after which the submarine ascends once more to bring down another pontoon. The number and size of pontoons used varies according to the size of the wreck, of course. When the required number have been attached to the wreck, the electric pump in the pontoons are set in operation from the power plant in the tender ship and the water is gradually forced out, until as they become buoyant, they exert a pull on the cables attached to the sunken vessel. The men



Attaching air cylinders to a wreck.

in the submarine are able to observe this operation and control it by ordering pumps on one side or another to be operated, so that the hulk can be brought up on an even keel. By continued pumping, the pontoons finally succeed in floating the wreck to the surface, after which the tender can tow it to the most convenient port or drydock for salvage.

A Children's Museum

TO the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, Brooklyn, N. Y., is due the credit for the establishment of what is said to be the pioneer "Children's Museum" in the United States. Boston has been quick to recognize the moral and educational value of the newest juvenile institution, and has just founded its own museum for little folk.

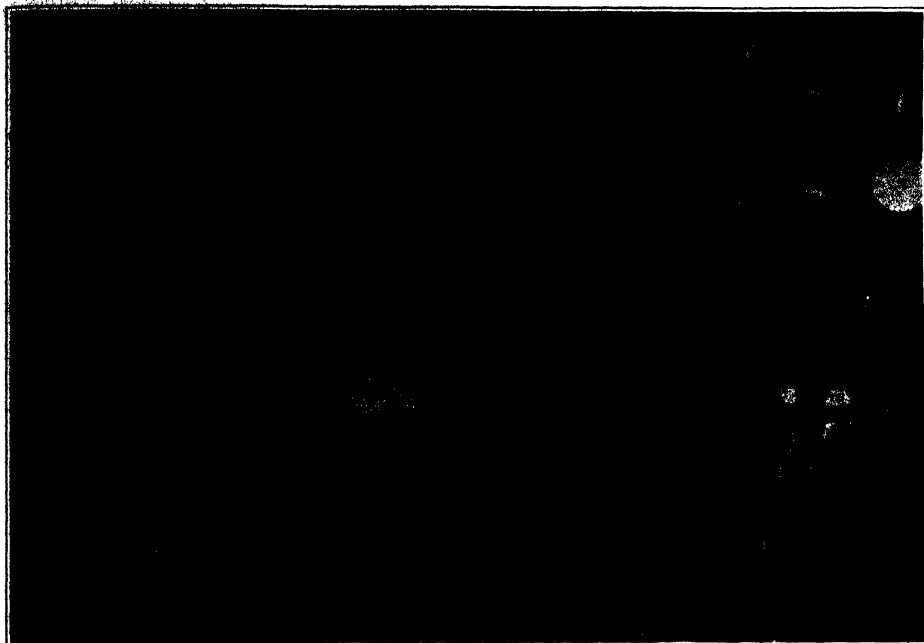
In the Brooklyn Children's Museum, in Bedford Park, that city, it is the constant aim of the members of the staff to see that its little visitors find what they need and want. A doorman has been appointed, in addition to the regular assistants, so no child need wander aimlessly about the rooms. At all times the permanent collections of specimens, charts, and models may be viewed, and schools are invited to use the museum as an afternoon ja may be desired, either by the visit to the building of classes or by having small collections sent to the schoolroom or assembly hall.

At certain times there are special items of interest. Just now Miss Gallup, the curator, is planning a bird calendar which will be, as its name suggests, a memorandum for the year of the birds of the region about Brooklyn and Long Island. Under each month there will be listed the birds seen in Prospect Park, the popular playground of the "City of Churches," during that period. In this way the "feathered folk" that abide permanently in the neighborhood, as well as those migrating in the spring and fall, can be studied. Models for this collection are now in preparation.

An interesting addition to the museum's department of geography is also under consideration. It will comprise five groups showing primitive people in the same belts. It is doubtful if a better way than this could be devised to illustrate in a pictorial manner the life of man in relation to his environment.

The models will be accurate to the last detail, and will be rendered especially suggestive by the impressionable child-mind. The first grouping already is completed and has been passed upon by Mr. Miller, who was with Col. Roosevelt on his last exploring expedition in South America, and also by Mr. Hornaday, director of the New York Zoological Society. This represents life in the neighborhood of the Amazon River, centering about a Carib Indian. The models, together with the history models prepared by Miss Agnes K. Bowen, will, when completed, form a valuable and attractive educational exhibit that should be utilized freely by teachers.

Typhoid in the British Army.—The latest illustration of the benighted effects of anti-typhoid inoculation is the statement made in the House of Commons on February 8th by the British Under-Secretary of State for War that only 421 cases of typhoid had occurred in the British forces during the present campaign, and of these 805 cases were in men who had not been inoculated within two years. Among the men who had been inoculated there was only one death, and this was of a man who had received only one inoculation instead of the regular two. Wallace compares this record with that of the Boer War, when the British had 68,000 cases of typhoid, of whom 10,000 terminated fatally.



The eye end of the equatorial circle at the Paris Observatory, arranged for making a photograph.

The Paris Observatory and Its Work

The History of a Famous Institution

By Prof. George A. Hill, U. S. Naval Observatory

IN the southern portion of the city of Paris is the National Astronomical Observatory of France. The extensive grounds in which the buildings used in astronomical research are located is bounded on the south by the Boulevard Arago, named after one of the brilliant directors of the Observatory who filled that office from 1811 to 1863.

The Observatory faces toward the north, and entrance is by way of the handsome Avenue de l'Observatoire, that leads directly to the garden and palace of the Luxembourg. At the approach from that side is a high iron fence, with a watchman's lodge on the left. The gate is always closed, and admission can be obtained only if the visitor is known to the watchman.

Passing the gate, the first object to catch the eye is a life-size monument to the memory of Urbain Jean Joseph Le Verrier, one of the illustrious directors of the institution, who filled that office from 1854 to 1870 and from 1878 to 1877.

Many are familiar with the mathematical knowledge possessed by Le Verrier, for it was his profound study, carried on at the same time by Adams of England, that designated the place in the heavens toward which the astronomer should point his telescope to discover Neptune, the outermost planet of the solar system.

The main building, which was built 1667-1672, is in the side of a hill, and antedates the Greenwich Observatory by a few years, the first stone for which was laid in the late summer of 1675. It also antedates the Royal Observatory at Berlin.

Entering the building, the visitor passes through a long hallway and then ascends a stairway to the floor above, where are the offices of the director, astronomers, assistants, computers, and the museum. This floor is at the height of the terrace of the grounds, and on the south are the beautiful gardens of the Observatory and a number of isolated buildings containing various astronomical instruments.

Attached to the institution now over two hundred and thirty years old, is a treasure of great astronomical and physical interest. In its walls are found a sextant made by Lalande in 1760, an astronomical instrument

the mural circle made by Bird in 1774 would immediately attract attention. It was used at the observatory of the military school at Paris from 1778 to 1785. The early history of the instrument dates back to our first knowledge of the positions of the stars in the heavens. With this mural circle, Lalande, from 1780 to 1786, made 50,000 star observations. It was used by Burckhardt from 1803 to 1825, and by Damoiseau from 1825 to 1834. It has been truly said this mural circle was the astronomical instrument that first gave a detailed representation of the stellar heavens.

It would consume too much space to describe all the instruments and articles of historical interest to be seen in the museum, but mention may be made of the first Fresnel Lighthouse lens, made by Soleil. On the walls are paintings of the portraits of famous astronomers of all ages, photographs of interesting stellar and planetary objects, and large celestial globes of the sixteenth century stand on the floor.

At the extreme western end of the building are the dwelling rooms of the director of the Observatory, Dr. Haléard. At the eastern end are the meridian observing rooms. The upper stories are used for computing and storerooms, while above these are a number of domes which contain equatorial telescopes.

Previous to 1863 observations of the meridian transit of the sun, moon, planets, and stars had been made with two instruments, namely, a transit and a mural circle, one for observing the right ascension of the object, and the other its declination. In that year, from specifications prepared by Le Verrier, M. Etchens constructed the large transit circle that is shown in the photograph, which is mounted in an east wing of the Observatory.

The building stone that was used in the past in the construction of the many handsome edifices in Paris was taken from practically beneath the city or its immediate vicinity. Those excavations produced the huge subterranean chambers that have been called the catacombs.

Under the Paris Observatory is a pronounced staircase, and the standard astronomical clock of that

institution is located in a cellar, eighty-four feet beneath the surface of the ground. The temperature of the air at that depth is practically constant for the whole year and advantage was taken of that condition to install the standard clock here. The location is nearly ideal, for the writer from personal use of the clock, in a series of astronomical observations, has found its daily rate to be as small as from two to three hundredths of a second of time.

The pier upon which the large transit circle is placed is of very solid construction. The foundation is a monolith, over six feet thick and sixteen feet high, extends the entire length of the observing room north and south, and terminates in the upper terrace of the grounds. This foundation was constructed two centuries ago, of an excellent material, and the whole mass forms a solid wall upon which are placed two upright piers to support the transit circle. These piers are also huge masses of stone.

The body of the telescope is of cast iron. Four of the sides of a cube form the points of attachment for the tube and axis. The length of the two truncated cones are unequal, that carrying the object glass being the longer.

As is shown in the illustration, the piers which support the instrument are unequal in height. The east pier, the one on the right, is nearly a meter higher than the other. The object glass, made by M. Secot, is 93 inches in aperture, and the focal length of the instrument is 12 feet 8 inches.

There are two divided circles on the instrument, one for measuring the angular distance of a celestial body from the zenith, and the other for approximate setting purposes. Both of the circles are fastened to the eastern side of the cube of the transit circle. The outer one, which is hidden by the high pier, is made of bronze one meter in diameter, and the silver band on its circumference is divided into five-minute spaces.

The inner circle, which shows in the illustration, is made of cast iron, and is 120 meters in diameter. On it the divisions are not as fine as those on the other.

(Continued on page 255)

The Heavens in March

Measuring the Distances of the Nearer Stars

By Henry Norris Russell, Ph.D.

THE enormous distances of the stars have long been a theme of general interest. Even the nearest of them are so far off that it is hard to get a real conception of the relation of their distances to those with which we ordinarily have to deal than it is nowadays to measure the stellar distances themselves.

It is easy enough to say glibly that the very nearest star is 25 millions of millions of miles away, but we usually understand better what our words mean when we realize that, could some one be set to count these miles, one by one, at the rate of 200 per minute, it would take him 240,000 years, working night and day without a moment's rest, before the tremendous task was completed.

The distance from Earth to Sun—the "astronomer's yard-stick" as some one has called it—is relatively insignificant, our imaginary teller could count the miles composing it in a little less than eleven months, if he never stopped to rest.

Let us start now with this distance, and make a map on which it corresponds to one inch, or, rather, a model, since if we are to put the stars on it in their correct positions it must extend in all directions in space from its center, and not in a single plane. The Sun, on this model, will be represented by a ball 1/110 of an inch in diameter—a small grain of sand. The Earth, which is a hundred times smaller, would be hardly larger than a molecule. The stars, like the Sun, would be represented by grains of sand of various sizes, and the speck which represented the nearest one would be more than four miles from the particle which stood for the Sun.

Somewhere between fifty and a hundred stars would be found on our model within twenty miles of the Sun, all the rest of the millions which are known would be farther away. How much farther? This is one of the great questions whose answer is just beginning to come into sight. In describing these great distances it is convenient to use as our unit the distance which light travels in a year, called for brevity a "light year," which corresponds almost exactly to one mile upon the scale of our imaginary model of the universe.

The nearest star is then between four and five light-years from the Sun. By direct methods we can measure distances up to about 100 light-years, and from a study of the motions of the stars we can estimate the average distances of groups which in some cases are 500 and even 1,000 light-years away. Some of the stars visible to the naked eye and very many of the telescopic stars must be beyond even that limit. We know, however, that space is not thus filled with stars forever, for, if it were, the number of faint stars visible in great telescopes would much exceed that which is observed. Ultimately, the stars must "thin out," that is, at sufficiently great and increasing distances. They must be more and more sparsely scattered in space. How far would we have to travel before we found this to be the case?

A partial answer has been given by certain work of Hertzsprung and also by Shapley and the writer upon variable stars. In certain cases it is possible to estimate from the details of the variation of a star's light, how big and how bright the star actually is. These estimates cannot as yet be made very precise, but are probably fairly trustworthy. By comparing the brightness with which the star appears to us to shine with the calculated brightness which it would exhibit if at some standard distance, the actual distance of each of the variable stars under consideration can be estimated. Hertzsprung's results deal with the "short-period" variables (of which the well-known star Delta Cephei is the type) and the writer's with the eclipsing variables, such as Algol. In both cases the calculated distances of most of the stars are enormous. Not a single one of the 157 variable stars is within 100 light-years of the Sun, and only five, including Algol, Beta Aurigae, and Polaris—are within 200 light-years.

Almost half of the eclipsing variables and three quarters of those of the short period, or "Cepheid" type, are more than 2,000 light-years distant and a considerable number are more than twice as remote.

In this way, which enables us to study stars which though they appear very faint to us, are really of great

luminosity, we can sound the depths of space farther than by any other method yet known. Examination of the results reveals the striking fact that all the remoter stars in the list are situated in the heavens close to the Milky Way. There are some stars among those studied which (as we see them) lie in parts of the sky remote from the galaxy, but these are all relatively near us; that is, they all belong to the nearer half of the whole group.

This is one more confirmation of the old belief that the region of space within which the stars are scattered extends much farther in the direction of the Milky Way than at right angles to it; but the present method of attack has the advantage that it makes possible a rough estimate of the actual size, or, at least, of the actual thickness of this vast cluster of stars.

If we draw a plane through the Sun extending in all directions toward the central line of the Milky Way and calculate the distances of our variable stars above or below it, we will find that the average for the whole 157 is but 300 light-years—a small fraction of their

diameter. The extension of similar studies to smaller stars may make it possible before long to get some indication to the extent of this vast swarm of stars in the direction of the Milky Way. In any case, we know that there are other star-clouds outside it, for in the southern heavens are two patches of light far from the Milky Way, but looking like portions of it, which are known as the Magellanic clouds, since they were first noticed by the great navigator. These are full of variable stars, and Hertzsprung, applying his method to the smaller of the two clouds, computes for it the enormous distance of 30,000 light-years. At such a distance the Sun would be invisible in the greatest telescopes ever constructed, though it might perhaps be photographed with a very long exposure.

The Heavens.

The most region of the evening sky is the southwest, where we find Orion flanked by Taurus on the right and Canis Major on the left, with Gemini and Canis Minor above him. The southern sky is relatively dull, the most conspicuous constellation being Leo, high toward the zenith. The huge length of Hydra is now fully displayed. The monster's head, marked by a rather conspicuous group of stars of the third and fourth magnitudes, is about half-way between Regulus and Procyon. The isolated bright star Alpiard marks its heart, and the sweeping curve of its tail extends far eastward and southward to the horizon under Virgo. In the southeast we find the small but prominent quadrilateral of Corvus, whose two uppermost stars point straight toward the brighter Spica in Virgo. Arcturus is resplendent in the east, with Corona and Hercules below and farther north. Draco and Ursa Minor are on the right of the pole, Cepheus below it, Cassiopeia below on the left, and the Great Bear high above it, extending to the north. Perseus and Auriga in the northwest bring us back to our point of departure.

The Planets.

Mercury, Venus, Mars and Jupiter are all morning stars throughout March. Mercury is best visible in the latter half of the month, during which interval he rises between 5 and 5 15 A. M. He is in Aquarius, not very far from Jupiter, but rises the first of the two. On the 20th the two planets are in conjunction and little more than a degree apart, while Mars is but 3 degrees above them. Jupiter is the brightest of the three, appearing about equal to Sirius. Mercury resembles Arcturus in brightness, while Mars is hardly superior to the brightest stars of the Dipper.

Venus, too, is a morning star, rising between 4 and 4 30 A. M., and far exceeding the other three in brilliancy. Mars can only be well seen during the latter part of the month, and this is even more true of Jupiter, who is barely past conjunction. On the 23rd these two planets are only one 12th of a degree apart, but, unfortunately, both are too low in the sky to be easily seen before the day breaks.

Saturn is in quite a different part of the sky, being in quadrature west of the Sun on the 17th, and best observable in the evening.

Uranus is a morning star, and may be easily picked up on the 19th, when he is 1 degree 10 minutes south of Venus.

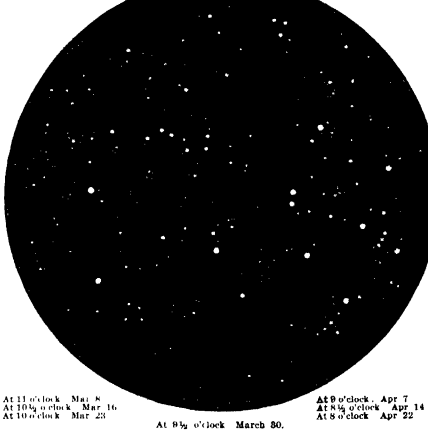
Neptune is in the borders of Gemini and Cancer, visible until about 3 A. M.

The Moon is full at 2 P. M. on the 1st, in her first quarter at 7 A. M. on the 8th, new at 3 P. M. on the 15th, in her last quarter at 6 P. M. on the 22nd, and full again at 1 A. M. on the 21st. There are thus two full moons again this month, though there was none in February. The moon is nearest us on the 8th, and remotest on the 21st. She is in conjunction with Venus on the 11th, Uranus on the 12th, Mercury on the 13th, Mars and Jupiter on the 14th, Saturn on the 23rd, and Neptune on the 26th.

At 11:43 A. M. on the 21st the Sun crosses the celestial equator, returning to the northern hemisphere and "spring begins."

Mallick's Comet.

A small bright comet was discovered by Mr. John E. Mallick of Cottage Grove, Wisconsin, on the morning (Continued on page 253.)



NIGHT SKY. MARCH AND APRIL.

average distance measured parallel to the plane, which is 3,100 light-years.

Seventy-eight per cent of these stars lie within 500 light-years from this plane, and only 8 per cent of them are more than 1,000 light-years away from it on either side, the greatest distances being about 1,900 light-years.

There is no known reason why stars at a greater distance in this direction should not be as easy to see as those equally remote in the direction of the Milky Way, and the fact that we do not see them indicates that they are not there, at least in any considerable numbers. We may, therefore, say "The large majority of the stars accessible to this powerful method of investigation lie in a layer about 1,000 light-years thick, which extends in all directions toward the Milky Way for several thousand light-years."

Outside this layer the stars thin out very rapidly on each side, while along the layer toward the Milky Way there is as yet no evidence that our soundings have struck bottom. The Sun is, nevertheless, not quite, in the middle of the layer, the evidence showing that it is about 100 light-years to the northward of the central plane.

All this is based on the assumption that the starlight traverses even these enormous distances without perceptible loss. If we assume, as some astronomers have done, with considerable reason, that there is some loss of light by absorption in space, we will get smaller dimensions for the vast star-cloud of which our Sun is a member; but no reasonable assumptions will make it less than 600 light-years in thickness (not counting the outliers on each side) and 6,000 light-years in

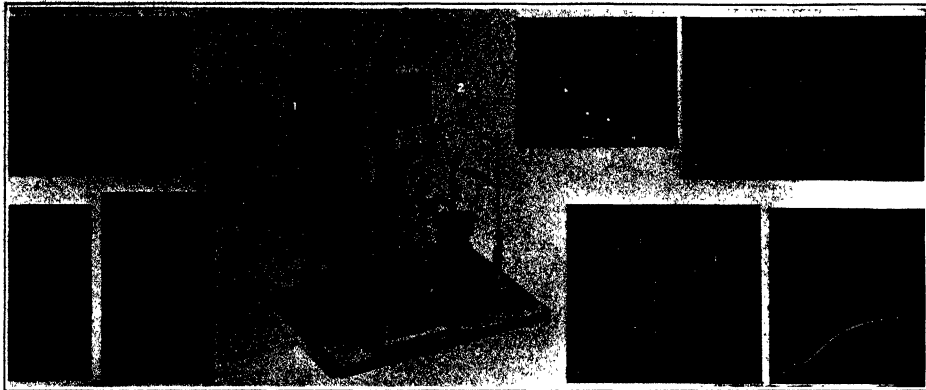


Fig. 1.—The essentials of a response recorder. Fig. 2.—General view of the resonant recorder. The thread from the clock passes over the pulley *P*, so as to lower the smoked recording plate *G*. The writing point is adjusted for distance by the screw *S'*, vertical adjustment is effected by the screw *S*. In order to adjust the plane of the recorder's movement parallel to the writing surface, a tangent screw *T* is provided. The picture shows also the electrical connections by means of which an excitatory shock of definite duration may be given to the plant by metronome which completes electrical circuit. Fig. 3.—The dotted line is correct, the continuous line incorrect, thus showing the advantage of intermittent over continuous contact in obtaining records. Fig. 4.—The effect of alcohol vapor, note the alternating character of the response after application. Fig. 5. Effect of cold in inducing retardation and arrest of transmission: (1) normal record, (2) retardation due to slight cooling, (3) arrest of conduction brought about by intense cold, (4) record of direct stimulation. Fig. 6.—Effect of excessive absorption of water, note the prolongation of the period of recovery and the ineffectiveness of stimuli applied at moments marked with thick dots and subsequent restoration of excitability by application of glycerol. Fig. 7 and 8.—Preliminary staircase followed by fatigue in the response of frog's muscle (Brooks) and staircase response followed by fatigue in *Mimosa* (Rose). Fig. 8.—Effect of sudden darkness on the excitability of *Mimosa*, first three responses normal, four succeeding responses due to the effect of darkness, the line below indicates the period of darkness.

Plant Autographs and What They Mean

An Investigation Which Proved That Plants Have the Same Sensations as Animals

WHAT is it that distinguishes a plant from an animal? It is response to excitation, pleasant or unpleasant, to all intents. Strike a dog and he will whine with pain. Strike a tree or a bush, and it remains unperturbed. To be sure there are "sensitive" plants, like *Mimosa*, which close their leaves when touched, but no biologist would dream of pain in that connection. In other words, a plant seems to differ from an animal in a total lack of psychological response to the outer world. Even the automatic action of *Mimosa* has been attributed to hydromechanical and not to excitatory causes.

These well-established conceptions of plant life have been completely upset by the remarkable experiments conducted for many years by Dr. Jagadis Chander Bose, a professor of Presidency College, Calcutta. After lecturing in England before the Royal Institution and other scientific bodies, Prof. Bose was sent to the

United States by the British government in order to acquaint American scientists with his work. He has lectured before our leading universities and scientific societies, with a success that is rare.

Prof. Bose has succeeded in demonstrating by actual experiment that there is no essential difference between an animal or plant in responding to external stimulus; that the mechanism of response is similar in both, and that there is no barrier whatever between the animal and the plant, such as we have imagined. Like an animal, a plant can be drugged, poisoned, excited, depressed, and fatigued, and like an animal it proves to have nerves which transmit excitation with a measurable velocity.

The Ingenious Instruments With Which Plants Write

This astonishing discovery was made with instruments of unprecedented delicacy, instruments which Dr. Bose invented for the very purpose of analyzing

plant sensations. In Fig. 1 the principle of the instrument is set forth in a broad way. A graphic record of plant movements, however minute, must be made. Hence some form of writing lever must be used, which, as shown, is connected by means of a very delicate thread with a leaflet. The writer is a thin vertical wire attached to a counterpoised horizontal lever, supported in frictionless jeweled bearings. As the leaf falls under excitation a glass plate is lowered at a uniform rate by clockwork, and upon the smoked surface of this plate the writer will trace a curve, which will be not only a record of the responsive movement, but a record of the time relations involved.

Such an apparatus might have been employed long ago had it not been for its obvious limitations. It must be clear to every one that the friction of the writer upon the smoked glass completely vitiates the accuracy of the record. To make the system trustworthy

(Continued on page 256.)

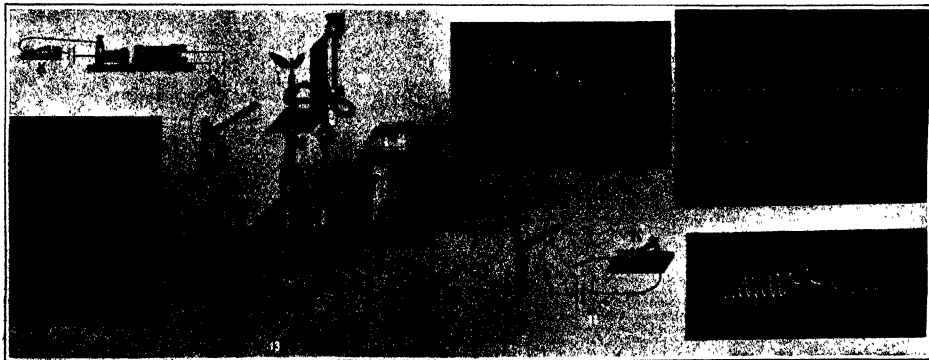


Fig. 9.—Strong carbonic acid gas, inducing arrest. The line below indicates the duration of the application. Show revival of pulsation on substitution of fresh air. Fig. 10.—Continuous record of pulsation of *Desmodium* leaflet for four hours; the series to be read from below to above. Fig. 11.—Electrothermic stimulator for uniform stimulation, metronome is employed in place of key *k*, for closing circuit for a definite length of time. Fig. 12.—Record showing growing fatigue of *Mimosa*. Fig. 13.—Direct stimulation by condenser discharge; *c*, condenser; *k*, key; *s*, intra-electrode, and *h*, indirect extra-electrode mode of stimulation. Fig. 14.—How detached leaflet of telegraph plant is mounted to study pulsations. The pulchre is mounted in the shorter open end of a narrow U-tube filled with water. The longer end of the U-tube consists of India rubber tubing. By raising or lowering this longer limb the hydrostatic pressure can be varied. The stopcock allows the water to run out when chemical solutions are to take the place of water. A light cover with mica windows can be made to facilitate the specimen. By means of an electric current sent through a spiral of thermopile silver the inside of the chamber can be heated to any desired degree. Fig. 15.—The death-curve of *Mimosa*. Successive dots in the down or expansive part of curve represent rise of temperature of one deg. Cent. Spasmodic contraction causing inversion of curve takes place at 60 deg. Cent. with all plants. Fig. 16.—Arrangement for applying single make or break; *k*, key to the primary circuit. The secondary circuit may be short circuited by the second key.

Hearing Liberty Bell Across the Continent

HISTORIC old Liberty Bell, which tried so valiantly to proclaim, far and wide, the joyful news of our declaration of independence recently tried its voice again, and this time succeeded in making itself heard a thousand times farther. Piped under the bell was a telephone transmitter connected with the transcontinental telephone line, and when it was tapped with the mallet the ring of the cracked old bell was heard in San Francisco. A record of this historic event was made by a phonograph, so that the tones of the strains of Revolutionary times might ring down through the ages.

Iron Sides for Roads

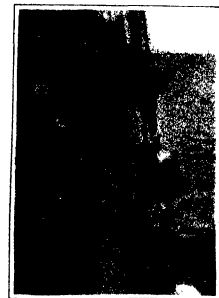
EVER since the Williamsburg bridge was constructed a great deal of trouble has periodically arisen over the shortness of the life of the pavements used in the road bed. No matter what sort of paving blocks were put down, the heavy nature of the traffic and the inclemency with which it flows soon resulted in deep troublesome ruts along either side of the road. Lately this depreciation has gone forward at a considerably faster rate owing to the increased weight of trucks which pass over it.

After experimenting with every known type of pavement, the bridge engineers, as a last resort, hit upon the idea of lining the edges of the road, where the ruts occurred, with iron blocks. The blocks are cast hollow with open ends and sides, perforated tops and closed bottoms. They are afterward filled with concrete.

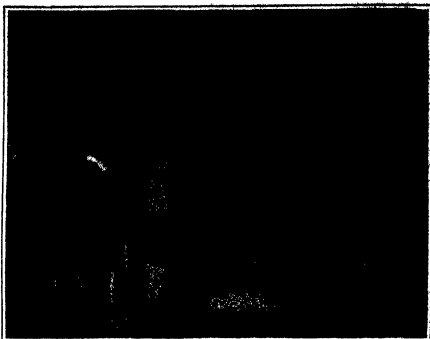
To break up the old pavements a pneumatic "rivet buster" was used, that is, a pneumatic hammer with chisel point employed in breaking and knocking out the rivets of worn out structural work. An engineer of the bridge paving department exhibited a seemingly worthless machine of this type from the junk heap, had it repaired and put it to work on the old and rutted paving. The paving blocks were so firmly cemented that a man with a pick could scarcely make an impression on them. Under the blows of the rejuvenated "rivet buster," however, the paving blocks are readily broken apart.



Safety match holder with a roll of striking tape.

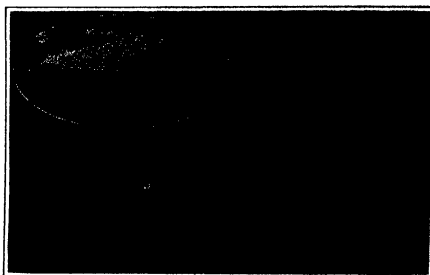


Planting an electrically controlled mine.



Copyright by Underwood & Underwood

Liberty Bell speaking across the continent.



Breaking up old pavement with a pneumatic "rivet buster." The insert shows iron blocks for lining the road.

Safety Match Holder and Box

THE pocket match box has suffered a serious decline in recent years, mainly because safety matches have displaced the common friction matches in cigar stores, and they cannot be lighted on the ordinary striking surface. And so in place of the neat little case of gold or silver men have come to carry unsightly wooden match boxes or packets of paper matches. For a similar reason the match holder has given place to a stand in which a common safety match box is placed. Recently Mr. J. E. Neahr of New York city has devised a holder in which there is a roll of paper surfaced with the chemical coating on which the safety matches may be lighted. This striking tape runs around the base of the match container. Whenever the surface becomes worn a catch may be lifted and a new surface pulled from the roll. This will last for many months. A pocket safety match box has also been designed, at one end of which is a roll of striking tape. Normally this is covered to protect it from wear and dirt in the pocket.

Mine-planting

THE accompanying photograph was taken aboard one of our own mine planters, and shows a type of mine with its automatic anchor. The anchor weighs 1,500 pounds, and the mine is loaded with a hundred pounds of trinitrotoluene. The mine is of the controlled type, which can be fired only by an electric current supplied from a station on shore. The photograph shows it hanging over the side of the mine planter, ready to be dropped into the water by tripping the hooks which support it, when the vessel reaches the desired location.

The Nipa Palm of the Philippines

AMONG the physical assets of the Philippine Islands is the Nipa palm, the sap of which has the important distinction of being the cheapest raw material known in the world for the making of sugar and alcohol. After extraction from the flower stalk this sap is known as "tuba" and contains, when fresh, about 15 per cent of sugar. Investigations made by the Philippine Bureau of Science bear the definite conclusion that nipa sugar is equal to cane sugar and can be extracted cheaper, as no crushing machinery is necessary; also, that a hectare (2.47 acres) of nipa will produce 22,942 pounds of sugar, which, valued in United States currency at 8 cents per kilo (22 pounds) would yield an annual income of more than \$400.

The yield of alcohol varies, depending on the grade of the primary product. It has been found that a hectare of nipa (about 2,000 plants) will average 21,800 gallons of sap per year; and that from four to 7.5 gallons of sap are required to produce 0.25 gallon of alcohol. Nipa alcohol was awarded the first prize for purity at the Paris Exposition.

The use of alcohol of 196 proof, mixed with 10 per cent gasoline, has been shown to be of equal effectiveness with pure gasoline in a year's continuous trial in six automobiles in Manila. That city imports about \$200,000 worth of gasoline each year, which apparently could be supplanted by alcohol. Up to the present time no forest charges have been assessed on nipa products by the Gov-

ernment of the Philippines Islands, although such assessment is urged by the local governments of neighboring Spanish colonies in the West Indies.

Award by the Franklin Institute

MR. GEORGE F. VANIER, chief chemist of the Pennsylvania Steel Company of Steelton, Pa., has been awarded a certificate of merit by the Franklin Institute, Philadelphia, Pa., for his potash bulb. This bulb has been particularly designed for use in the determination of the total carbon in iron or steel. The bulb is of large capacity, and, by the provision of a glass spiral in which the space of combustion of the sample under test and the potash solution circulate together, a high rate of absorption of carbonic acid is obtained. With the bulb is combined a drying tube. Mr. Vanier has also designed zinc tubes and sulphuric acid bulbs for use in connection with the Vanier combustion train for the determination of carbon in steel by direct combustion method with the electric furnace. Both of these pieces of apparatus are great time savers in commercial laboratories.

Continuous Rod Machine

PICTURED herewith is a machine for making continuous rods of brass and the like. Molten metal is poured in at the top and brass or other rods of 1/4 inch or more in diameter will run out at the bottom as long as the metal supply keeps up and electric current is furnished for the operation of the mechanism. At the top of the machine is a graphite crucible into which the metal is poured, and through which it finds its way by gravity into a guiding tube and eventually into the molding bore of the machine. By the junction of two sections of molding blocks which form two endless chains, respectively, a two-part mold is effected. With the metal being fed into the receiver at the top and the chain molds being continuously moved, the liquid metal molds, solidifies and delivers itself automatically in the shape of an endless rod.

The operation is strictly mechanical and automatic, and it is the claim of the inventor, a man from Newark, N. J., that with the aid of the machine 1/4 inch rod in any length should cost less to produce than wire bar. The rod from the machine can be produced without any previous working and all rolling operations are done away with. The machine is driven by a 6-horse-power motor.



Machine for making continuous lengths of rod.

The Paris Observatory and Its Work

(Continued from page 254.)
circle, and it is used to point the telescope to the approximate position of the object to be observed.

The divisions of degrees and minutes on the outer circle are read by six microscopes, which give the seconds and tenths to complete the distance the object is from the zenith. The microscopes are mounted on the exterior face of the east pier and are secured on lugs attached to cast iron standards bolted to the pier.

When the instrument was first mounted the field of the eyepiece was illuminated by means of a gas jet, opposite the axis of rotation, and on top of the west pier. The axis of the instrument is perforated, and a movable diaphragm therein regulates the intensity of the light.

With this instrument the Paris Observatory carried on its extensive series of observations for the determination of the position of the sun, moon, planets, and stars. When the instrument was first mounted its object glass was the largest that had ever been made for a transit circle, and it is to-day the largest in use. However, astronomers have found that when the moon is at work is best fitted with that class of instruments, one of less aperture and less focal length will yield better results. The astronomers of the Paris Observatory recognized that, and in 1878, through the liberality of M. Bischoffshelm, a new transit circle was provided, and upon much smaller dimensions.

The new instrument is mounted in an isolated building in the grounds of the Observatory, about 150 feet south and a little east of the large transit circle. Its object glass has an aperture of 7.5 inches and a focal length of 7 feet 7 inches. With this new meridian circle the Paris Observatory has continued its meridian circle work, the larger one being now used merely for the purpose of obtaining accurate time. This is distributed from the Observatory over the railroad telegraph lines in France, and also by wireless from the powerful station at the Eiffel Tower, for the benefit of the shipping at the seaports of France and also ships at sea.

One of the unsolved problems in astronomy is the probability of changes taking place in the crater formations and mountains on the moon. In the early history of the science certain astronomers, from visual observations secured by means of a telescope, made drawings of all the prominent objects on the surface of the moon, but at best that process could not compete with a well-developed photograph of the lunar surface. In making a drawing the operator can sketch only so fast, and while he is engaged upon the drawing the reflected sunlight and the shadows caused by its absence are constantly changing on the object he is attempting to transfer to paper. With a relatively quick photographic plate a much more detailed reproduction of any selected region on the moon can be secured in a very short interval.

An instrument designed with that purpose has been in operation for a number of years at the Paris Observatory. It is called an equatorial coude, and it was first planned by M. Lowry, another of the illustrious directors of that institution. The mechanical form of the instrument is not at all similar to that of the ordinary equatorial refracting telescope. Imagine the main tube fastened to two upright pillars, the one to the north much higher than the one to the south. This main tube is constructed so that it will revolve on a bearing at the top of the shorter pillar. It is fastened to the longer pillar by a sleeve, so the main tube can revolve. The angle of elevation of the tube is the same as that of the latitude of the place.

Near the lower end of the main tube is a support, clamped to it so as to form a right angle at the point of joining. On the opposite side is another tube, attached to the main tube, and its purpose is to act as a counterbalance for the whole instrument. At the extreme end, and at the side of the second tube, is mounted, in place of the objective, a 2 1/2 inch lens.

other in the tube formed by the junction of the two tubes. A ray of light from a celestial object enters through the object glass, strikes the mirror at that point, is deflected down the tube until it reaches the mirror in the central tube, when it is again deflected up the main tube to enter the eye-piece or the photographic plate.

In this form of instrument the astronomer remains seated at the eye and all the time he is observing or photographing, as the diurnal motion given the instrument by clockwork, to follow a celestial object, is around the eye and as an axis. The eye end of this instrument is shown in one of the illustrations.

The equatorial coude has the following dimensions: The length of the tube containing the object glass is 5 meters. The length of the tube opposite to that of the one containing the object glass is 4 meters. The length of the tube to which the eyepiece or plate holder is fastened is 12 meters. The diameters of the tubes vary from 0.6 to 1 meter. The aperture of the object glass is 0.6 of a meter, and its focal length is 18 meters. The diameter of the exterior mirror is 0.6 meter, and of the interior one 75 meter.

In designing this instrument it was the intention of the illustrious astronomer to have made a telescope that would exactly reproduce, without enlargement, images of heavenly bodies. The construction of the telescope was commenced in 1880, and it was finished in April, 1890. The first observation was made with it in 1891.

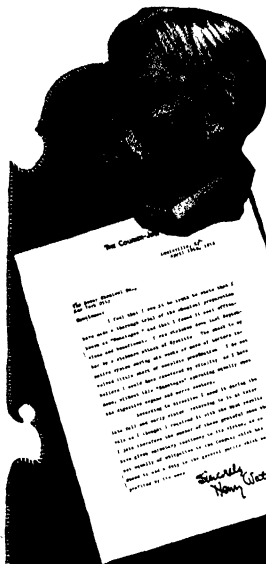
With this equatorial coude M. Lowry and Puleux have secured the splendid atlas of the moon that has been issued by the Paris Observatory, and in the vaults of that institution are more than two thousand photographs of the lunar surface. After these photographs were obtained M. Lowry and Puleux made a careful study of the hundreds of lunar formations thus obtained, and their writings upon that subject fill many pages of the publications of the French Academy of Sciences. The crowning work of all was the Atlas of the Moon mentioned. In this will be found enlarged reproductions of all the mountains, craters, dead seas, and plains that can be seen on the moon. The lunar enlargement varies from a diameter of 2 to 2.5 meters. The original negatives were 0.18 of a meter in diameter. The atlas is without doubt the finest reproduction of the visible portion of the lunar surface that exists, and the student of lunar formations will find in these enlargements a study of the highest interest.

In the future, astronomers who obtain photographs of the moon have the means of plotting the craters alongside those secured with the equatorial coude of the Paris Observatory, to carefully compare every portion of the lunar surface, and to detect any change that has taken place in any crater or mountain formation in the interval between the time the first and second photographs were taken.

As the actual position of the moon in the sky at any instant holds but a short while to any theory of its motion that has yet been developed, and its predicted position for the future is liable to uncertainty, so it is impossible to state definitely that any of the craters or mountains have changed or are changing until photographs of sufficient size are compared one with the other. It is from such a collection we may expect to verify supposed changes, by comparison, over long intervals of time.

The Heavens in March

(Continued from page 252.)
of February 10th. It was then in Ophiuchus, in 17 hours right ascension and 3 degrees north declination, and was moving slowly southward. Preliminary elements compiled at the University of California indicate that the comet is still receding from the sun and sun and will not come to perihelion till next August; but the comet's situation is such that the computed elements are uncertain, and more observations will be necessary to permit of accurate prediction. For the present, however, the comet will continue to travel slowly southward, and grow fainter. The predicted position on March



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What's Coming in Business?

Successful men say they will read March SYSTEM to find out

Alexander H. Revell
President of Sales & Company: "I have gone over the articles you enclosed and find them very interesting. As a subscriber to SYSTEM no doubt I shall have the pleasure of reading these articles from time to time."

Walker H. Cottlegham
President of the Columbia Graphophone Company: "I have read SYSTEM for many years and where it leads to say, I have never picked up a single copy without finding something of real value and help in my affairs."

Hugh Chalmers
President of the International Harvester Company: "SYSTEM is one of the few magazines I take home to read. I find helpful ideas in it. I think one of the reasons SYSTEM is unusually successful is because its articles are practical and easily adaptable to everyday business conditions."

Theodore P. Shontz
President of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company: "I read the progress of the evolution of business. Such work is worth doing and I find it worth my time to follow SYSTEM in it."

Joe R. Simpson
Vice-President of Wm. Flegg's Sons Company: "I think it will be very helpful to business men generally to read in March SYSTEM a record of the opinions of leading men on 'What's Coming in Business?' I shall read it."

Walker H. Cottlegham
President of the Shure-Williams Company: "I have been a subscriber to SYSTEM since it was first published and have received many good ideas. Any business man can use SYSTEM to good advantage."

Edward D. Easton
President of the Columbia Graphophone Company: "I have read SYSTEM for many years and where it leads to say, I have never picked up a single copy without finding something of real value and help in my affairs."

Joseph Vahan
President of The Royal Tailors: "Judging from advance proofs of 'What's Coming in Business?' to appear in March SYSTEM, I shall call this issue to the particular attention of every executive in our organization."

Alexander H. Revell
President of Alexander H. Revell & Company: "The opinions of prominent men of industry on 'What's Coming in Business?' in March SYSTEM, will be of unusual value to business men, and as a regular reader of the magazine it will have some of my time."

A. C. Brown
President of the Hamilton-Brown Shoe Company: "My father was a business man of the old school and probably would not have given a penny of the money for a magazine on business, but we of the younger generation realize that many a helpful lesson comes from other sources through just such an organization as yours. We read SYSTEM with great interest."

Indorsa Saks
President of the Columbia Graphophone Company: "I have read SYSTEM for many years and where it leads to say, I have never picked up a single copy without finding something of real value and help in my affairs."

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These men are planning for the future with the experience of thousands to guide them

Remarkable as has been the past success of the merchandising genius of America, he does not rely on this alone to fight the business battles of tomorrow.

And the man who has worked up to the top of a \$35,000,000 concern—and the man who built a nation-wide industry in two short years, these men, too, will turn to March SYSTEM for new ideas, inspiration, answers to problems, tested experience.

So will E. W. Darrell, the enterprising Newton Grocer—and so will 471,000 other business executives—large and small, in all lines—use March SYSTEM (just as they do every issue) to save their time and multiply their dollars. Can you look into the faces of these men and say: "They are mistaken—I will not trust their judgment—I am better prepared than they are seize new opportunities and make my business grow?"

Examine the Big March SYSTEM

After the President of the Remington Typewriter Company had examined his first copy of SYSTEM, he said: "I was surprised to find prominent business men giving up secrets and experiences worth great sums of money." You, too, if you have not seen SYSTEM lately, will be surprised at the practical and timely help you will secure from the March issue alone.

"What's Coming in Business?" is but one of the 21 startling articles, 76 specific plans, 67 short cuts for getting more business and reducing expenses. The answer to the very problem that baffles you today—already solved by some other business man—may be in March SYSTEM—yours at the turn of the page and glance of the eye. Will you deny your business and yourself the advantage so many other men possess, when to investigate March SYSTEM means simply to send the attached coupon at one tick?

Wabash Ave. and
Madison St., Chicago

A. W. Shaw Company

461 Fourth Ave.
New York

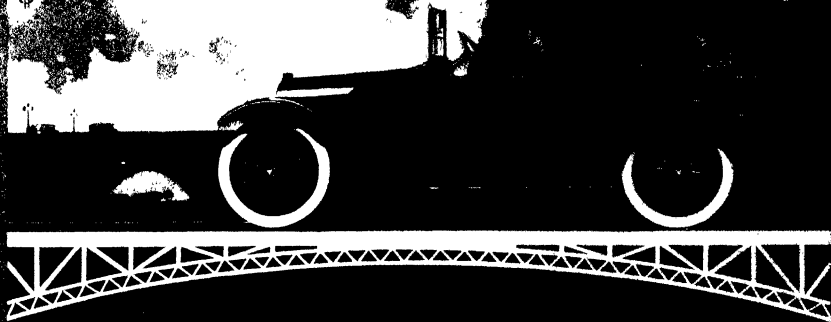
No-Risk Offer

A. W. Shaw Company
Wabash Ave. and Madison St., Chicago

I want to find out what's in SYSTEM—for me—no need to see the Big March Annual. I enclose \$5 which will be returned to me at the end of a week. If I am not more than pleased, otherwise SYSTEM is to come to my office regularly for a full year. \$5-00

Name _____
Address _____
City _____
State _____
Position _____

\$1550



Lightness Can Be Combined
With Strength

HUDSON PROVED IT

When light steel bridges took the place of stone, there came up the question of strength in them.

When steel buildings displaced solid masonry, the question arose again.

So in automobiles. The early high-grade Sixes weighed 4500 pounds. That overtax in tires and fuel barred the Six to most men. Now it is known that overweight was a crudeness, a weakness in itself.

The Hudson Remedy

Howard E. Coffin, the great HUDSON engineer, long ago decided that lightness could be combined with strength. He displaced cast iron with aluminum. He adopted pressed steel. He re-designed a thousand parts to secure staunchness without weight. His hollow driving shaft illustrates one method of weight reduction.

Then he designed a small-bore, high-speed motor. That let him lighten a hundred parts because of the lesser shocks.

After four years of effort, the final result is this HUDSON for \$1550. It weighs 2890 pounds, ready for the road. As compared with old-time Sixes, it has cut fuel and tire cost in two.

Excess Out-of-Date

The Light Six vogue started with this HUDSON. Now crude excess is distinctly out-of-date. The leading cars average hundreds of pounds less than last year. But the HUDSON, because of our years of refinements, is the lightest in its class—the lightest 7-passenger Six.

This year, if you pay between \$1000 and \$2000, you are pretty sure to want a Light Six. Your sole question is, "Which is the best Light Six"?

10,000 Men Say Hudson

Over 10,000 men chose the HUDSON. Half of them bought last year's model, and have driven it two seasons. Half bought this year's model. Together they have driven this car, perhaps 25 million miles.

They have proved it right. They have found no weakness, no shortcoming. Any owner around you will say that.

That's the all-important point. Every old-time standard has been radically revised in creating the Light Six. And only time and tests can demonstrate the avoidance of mistakes.

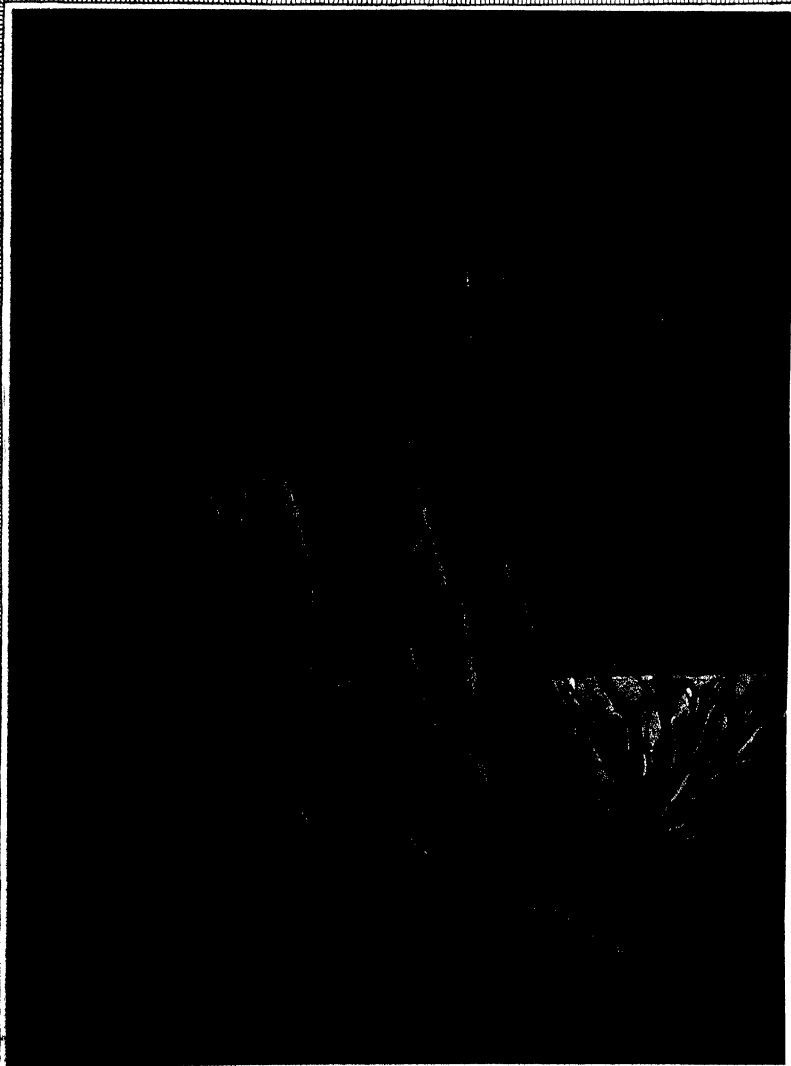
The HUDSON has met those tests. It is a proved success. Its buyers take no chances. It is, in addition, a Howard E. Coffin model. It is a finished product, showing the results of four years of refinement. We believe that you'll select it.

HUDSON Six-40 Seven-Passenger Phaeton, \$1550, f. o. b. Detroit. Four other styles of bodies.

The HUDSON Company never loses interest in the cars it sells. So long as a car is in service we maintain our interest in the character of its service. That's one great reason for HUDSON reputation.

HUDSON MOTOR CAR COMPANY
Detroit, Michigan

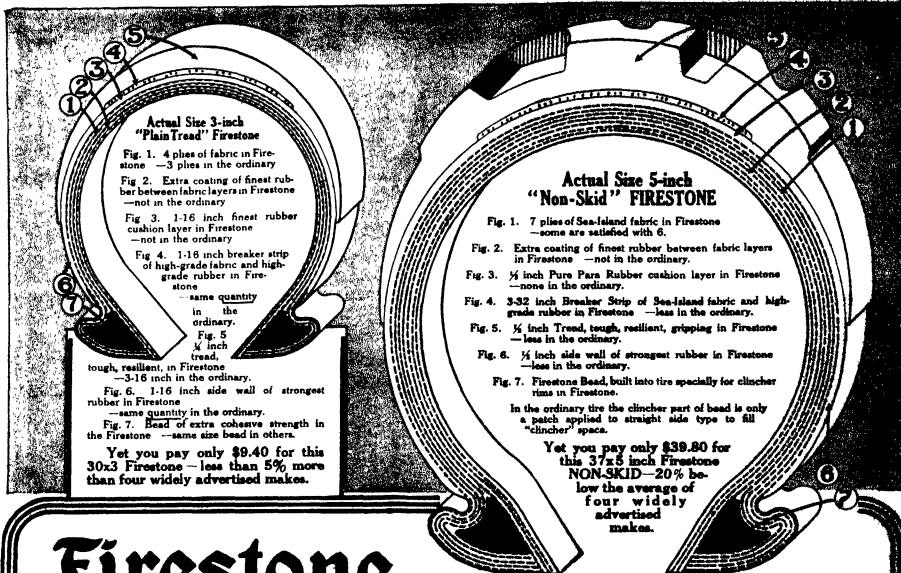
SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



Vol. CXL No. 12
March 16, 1912

Munn & Co., Inc., Publishers
New York, N. Y.

Price 10 Cents
\$3.00 A Year



Firestone

Has Done Better than Meet Popular Prices

HERE are two examples: a small size, 30 x 3 plain tread, and a large size, 37 x 5 Non-Skid. Each shown actual size. The same relative values apply in all sizes. Note the detailed specifications of sections as outlined above. Then ask any neutral repair man which manufacturer gives the most in quality. He cuts into all makes of tires. He knows.

You want that extra layer of fabric in the Firestones—4 plies instead of 3 in the small—7 plies instead of 6 in the large size.

You want that cushion stock in the Firestone. There is none of it in the so-called "popular" priced tires. Yet it is impossible to build a full service tire without a cushion layer under the breaker strip. You must have it to prevent bruising and overstraining the fabric.

Firestone Tires have never been built down to a price. You will find everything in a Firestone that ought to be there.

Firestone Tires are vulcanized by the "two-cure" process. This is more expensive than the "one-cure."

but it allows rigid inspection in the making and eliminates fabric buckles and other defects.

And you want the Firestone bead on that big tire for your safety as well as economy. Designed, built and cured into the tire specially for a clincher rim. Some have clincher beads that are merely patched onto straight side types.

The Sections Show These Things—The Wear, the Mileage, Prove Them

Yet you pay only 40 cents more for this small Firestone than the ordinary. And only a trifle more in proportion for the larger sizes. Because the much greater surface of the big tires demands so much more of this most expensive rubber and fabric.

And remember the little more you pay for the Firestone Non-Skid gives you a lot more tread. Ordinary anti-skids contain no extra rubber. You are asked to pay more just for a pattern. No extra rubber, no real skid protection, such as Firestones offer.

Take the word of the specialists of the industry—take the record of the Firestone Tires for 15 years—as your authority that these extras of quality are necessary for real service and true economy.

Less material and lower grades are traps to make sales on prices.

The Firestone organization, the largest in the world specializing on tires, can make and market tires and tubes at the lowest possible cost to you, the user.

The tires and prices prove it beyond argument.

Firestone Tube Prices Give Added Proof of Firestone Savings to You

Firestone is below them all on tubes. WHY?

A tube is good or bad to the eye and the touch. Quality can and does vary, weight can be and is skimmed, but not so radiantly as in tires. The buyer won't have it. Having to come near meeting Firestone quality in tubes others must go above Firestone in price.

Because, as stated, Firestone manufactures and markets at the minimum cost to you.

But we are no more proud of giving you the best tube below the others than we are of giving you the best tire for so little more.

And the proof of appreciation among car owners lies in the fact that their demand for Firestones last year established 50 per cent more dealers for us and increased our output 78 per cent.

So compare the tires inside. Compare the prices. Compare the service-records among your acquaintances—then get Firestones from your dealer and enjoy

Most Miles per Dollar

FIRESTONE TIRE AND RUBBER COMPANY

"America's Largest Exclusive Tire and Rim Makers"

Akron, Ohio

Branches and Dealers Everywhere

Firestone Net Price List to Car-Owners

	Cas Brand Tread	Cas Non-Skid	Grey Tube	Red Tube
30 x 3	\$ 9.40	\$10.55	\$2.20	\$2.50
30 x 3 1/2	11.90	13.55	2.60	2.90
32 x 3 1/2	13.75	15.40	2.70	3.05
34 x 4	19.90	23.30	3.90	4.40
34 x 4 1/2	27.30	30.55	4.80	5.40
36 x 4 1/2	28.70	32.15	5.00	5.65
37 x 5	35.55	39.50	5.95	6.70
38 x 6 1/2	46.90	51.50	6.75	7.55

SEVENTY-FIRST YEAR

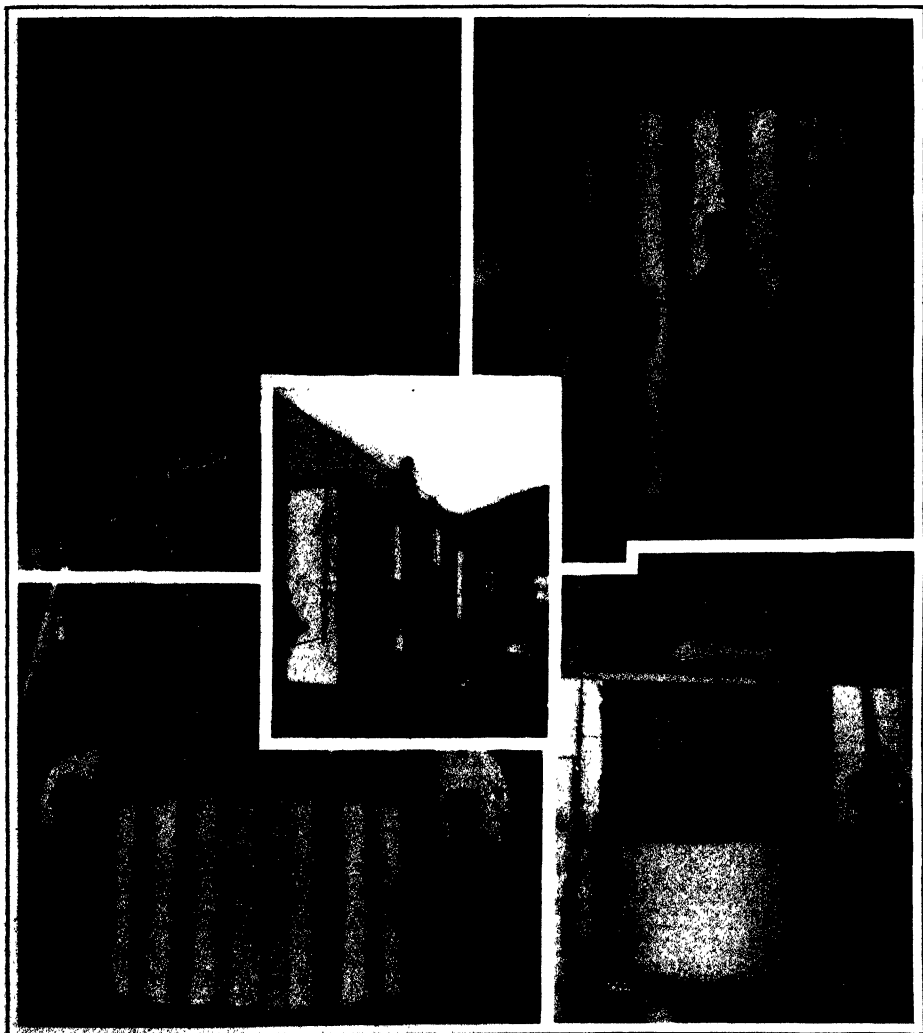
SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

VOLUME 57

NEW YORK, MARCH 20, 1915

[10 CENTS A COPY
\$5.00 A YEAR]



The middle picture shows 300 tons of marble being stead up with wire saws. In the lower right-hand view is a block which has been cut into a drum with the barrel saw shown above and ready to be turned. At the lower left the drum is being turned on a lathe. At the upper left the drum is being finished. There are twelve of these drums to a column.

AT WORK ON THE HUGE MARBLE COLUMNS OF THE LINCOLN MEMORIAL.—[See page 267.]

Electricity

Telephone Fire Alarm System.—As an emergency precaution the Fire Department of New York city has established a telephone fire alarm system. Should there be a breakdown of the existing fire alarm system a signal will be sent out notifying the police as well as the fire companies, and at once men will be stationed at the fire alarm boxes. Then when a man runs to the nearest firehouse to turn in a alarm, he will find someone stationed there who will send in the alarm over the police lines.

Co-operative Electric Garage.—The New York Electrical Vehicle Association has opened a new co-operative electric garage. In this venture the Association has been aided by three of the leading makers of electric pleasure cars who have made this garage their headquarters. The garage is operated by the Association and the average cost of keeping a car there is about \$45, this including care of the car, charging and boosting. The garage has a floor space of 80,000 square feet. The switchboard has 48 charging outlets.

A Vibration Electrometer.—Any alternating current measurement which makes use of a null method requires an instrument which will detect small alternating currents or voltages. For this purpose the telephone is used, being very sensitive between frequencies of 500 to 3,000 cycles per second. However, it is very insensitive at frequencies below 100 cycles and, also, it responds to the harmonics of the current as readily as to the fundamentals. Vibration galvanometers may be adjusted so that any harmonics in the current will produce very little effect upon the deflection of the instrument, but while such instruments are very sensitive at low frequencies, they require an appreciable current to produce a deflection because of their relatively low impedance. Hence in bridges where the impedance of the arms is very high they are not very sensitive. A vibration electrometer is described in Scientific Paper 229 recently issued by the Bureau of Standards in which the impedance is much higher than that of a telephone or vibration galvanometer. It is a modification of a quadrant electrometer. Instead of the quadrant there are four vertical plates with a thin vertical vane of twice the area of a single plate corresponding to the needle of the electrometer. Two plates separated by a narrow vertical slit are in one plane, while opposite them in a parallel plane are the other two plates. Midway between the plates is the aluminum vane suspended by a bifilar suspension. The vane is maintained at constant potential by a battery, while an alternating voltage with the same period as the natural period of the vibrating system is applied to the plates. This sets the vane in vibration and as the forces are small, the suspension is designed so that there will be very little loss of energy, and the instrument is kept in a vacuum.

A New Rectifier.—Dr. Saul Dushman, writing in the *General Electric Review*, describes a new rectifier of the hot cathode type which he calls *kentron*, derived from *kentron*, the Greek for "empty" with the suffix *tron* signifying an instrument. The name gives a clue to the particular feature which has made this rectifier practical. It has been known for some time that a vacuum tube containing two electrodes, one of which is heated, will act as a rectifier. But the apparatus acts very erratically and, furthermore, as the voltage is increased there is a blue glow that grows more and more pronounced and under these conditions the cathode disintegrates, rendering the rectifier inoperative. Investigation has proved that the blue is due to positively charged gas molecules which bombard the cathode and cause its disintegration. But when the vacuum is made more perfect, there is no evidence of a gaseous discharge and conduction occurs only by means of electrons emitted from the hot cathode. As the temperature of the cathode increases the electron emission increases in accordance with a known equation, but above a certain temperature it becomes constant, and it has been discovered that due to a "space charge" that is, the electrons emitted from the hot cathode produced an electrostatic field which tends to prevent motion of any more electrons toward the anode. It has also been found that with a hot filament, in place of the ordinary cathode, there is no conduction except by electrons. Hence, in the *kentron* a filament is used instead of a cathode, which may be either a straight plate forming the sides of a cylindrical cathode or a V or W-shaped filament placed between parallel plates to facilitate placement inside a cylindrical envelope. Up to the present inventors have been contented for direct filament cathodes as high as 300,000, with every prospect of being able to increase the pressure to twice that amount. The *kentron* is a vacuum tube which has been a straight plate forming the sides of a cylindrical cathode or a V or W-shaped filament placed between parallel plates to facilitate placement inside a cylindrical envelope. Up to the present inventors have been contented for direct filament cathodes as high as 300,000, with every prospect of being able to increase the pressure to twice that amount. The *kentron* is a vacuum tube which has been a straight plate forming the sides of a cylindrical cathode or a V or W-shaped filament placed between parallel plates to facilitate placement inside a cylindrical envelope.

Science

The Polar Medal has been awarded by the British government to the officers and men of Mawson's Australasian Antarctic Expedition of 1911-14. This medal was last awarded in 1912 to the members of Captain Scott's last Antarctic Expedition.

Protecting the Elk.—The Forest Service reports that it made two "plants" of elk last year, viz. one of twenty-four head on the Colorado Forest and one of twenty-three head on the Borgia Forest. Since the distribution of elk began three years ago, a total of about five hundred head have been planted in eleven national forests by the Forest Service, the Biological Survey, and certain States, in nearly every case with successful results.

The Exhaustive Study of the Cacti which Dr. Britton and Dr. Rose have been carrying out for the Carnegie Institution, and to which reference has previously been made in these columns, has now reached the point where the descriptive accounts of most of the genera and a majority of the North American species, including those of Central America and the West Indies, have been drawn up. Dr. Rose spent several months last year collecting cacti in western South America, and this year he expects to carry out a similar undertaking in southern South America. Dr. Britton's field work last year included extensive studies in Porto Rico and adjacent islands, one interesting result of which was the recognition of the long-lost *Cactus moniliformis* of Linnaeus.

The Bureau of Chemistry and the Fish Industries.—Through its Bureau of Chemistry the U. S. Department of Agriculture proposes heretofore to devote the same attention to questions of storage, transportation, preservation of fish, and the like, as it has heretofore devoted to questions of the food supply. The bureau has recently paid special attention to the industry of canning sardines on the coast of Maine, and has already brought about a marked improvement of the sanitary conditions under which these fish are packed.

Death of Prof. James Geikie.—The announcement is made that Prof. James Geikie, the noted geologist died in Edinburgh on March 24. At the time of his death he was Emeritus professor of Geology and Mineralogy at the University of Edinburgh and dean of the Faculty of Science. After his graduation from the University of Edinburgh he entered Her Majesty's Geological Survey in 1861, and in 1869 he became District Surveyor. In 1892 he occupied the Murchison Chair of Geology at the university. He was one of the founders and a past president of the Royal Scottish Geographical Society, and an honorary editor of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. During his life he was the recipient of many honors, including the Murchison medal of the London Geographical Society, the Brisbane Medal of the Royal Society of Edinburgh and the gold medal of the Royal Society of Geographical Society. Prof. Geikie was an extensive writer, and a contributor to many publications. Among his books may be mentioned "The Great Ice Age," which came out in 1872, and "The Antiquity of Man in Europe." Prof. Geikie was born in Edinburgh in 1839.

Invisible Icebergs.—In a recent communication to the New York Tribune Abbot H. Thayer, the artist, asserts that many icebergs have been lost by collisions with icebergs because, under certain conditions of sky and light, they were invisible. He notes the fact that on the occasion of the "Titanic" disaster, although the black ship was clearly visible to survivors at a distance of several miles they could not see the white berg against which they actually heaved the bow of the ship. He claims that on a clear starry night the bergs are so nearly the same color as the sky that they are totally invisible, and that the same is the case under many conditions of cloudiness, the only exception being when the side of the berg viewed is in such shadow that it shows black against the sky. In other words, it is impossible to see white against white. We do not see white against black, as is the general impression of the conditions that prevail in the case of icebergs at night. As an experiment he suggests that we view the snow covered roofs of neighboring houses at night, far enough away from artificial lights so that the sky is not affected by them to see white against white. It is very difficult to distinguish the white, snowy roofs, which correspond in color with the iceberg, from the sky. The same result is found when the roofs are observed in broad daylight on a cloudy day whenever the light is uniform. In answer to the criticism of those who say they never saw a berg at night that was the color of the sky he made this is very natural, because this is the very condition under which the berg is invisible. Mr. Thayer makes the suggestion that a very simple way to avoid the danger of colliding with an invisible berg would be to use a searchlight; the reflection would show up the berg very plainly.

Automobile

Armored Automobiles.—The \$50,000 included in this year's army appropriation bill for the purchase of armored cars stimulates inventive manufacturing interests since the development of a satisfactory automobile of this type should lead to large appropriations here as well as to orders from abroad. Capt. John B. Ross, U.S.A., of the Ordnance Branch of the service, is under orders to inspect at Detroit a car built at the plant of one of the large producing companies following the ideas of one of the company's inventors.

Good Roads Mileage in France and America.—According to the Good Roads Year Book of the American Highway Association, recently issued, American roads have 6,000 miles of more good roads than France, the total for this country now amounting to 31,000 miles. Of this 3,000 miles were built in 1912 and about 6,000 in 1914, making a total of over one third of the entire mileage of the good roads of the country. New Jersey was the pioneer State to provide State aid for public highways in 1893 and Massachusetts and Connecticut soon followed, but it is only during the last 10 years that the State and policy has been in effect to any considerable extent.

A New Tell-tale Spark Plug.—A novel type of spark plug for internal combustion engines has been invented by a British company. The plug has a tubular central electrode, which carries a block of quartz serving the purpose of a window through which one can observe the "color" of the explosion in the combustion chamber. A dark purple spark shows the mixture to be correct, a light blue or white explosion signifies that it is too weak, while a red glow indicates too rich a mixture. By simply detaching the quartz "window" and substituting a milled nut, the plug is transformed into a "priming" plug, through which gasoline can be injected directly into the combustion chamber.

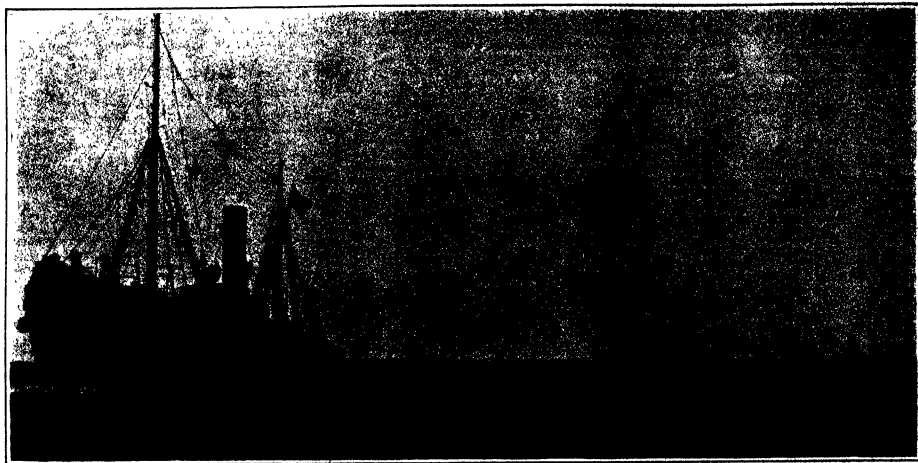
A Reversible Spark Plug.—A spark plug which permits the driver to watch explosions through a rear window, is not new. But the manner in which the reversible "twin-spark" plug accomplishes this object is decidedly novel. The plug really consists of two separate and distinct plugs assembled into a single unit. While the "active" end is screwed into the cylinder heads, the outside end also gives off sparks, which are easily watched from the seat, when the hood is raised. If the end of the plug used for exploding the gas mixture becomes fouled for one reason or another, it is necessary only to reverse the plug and to use the other end. The fouled end can be cut out instantly by reversing the terminal contact clip, assuming to touch the plug to the metal groove, the rebo "short-circuiting" the fouled sparking points. The double spark is said to give a very much better combustion and to enable the motorist to use a leaner mixture in the cylinders.

Facts Reported in the Good Roads Year Book for 1915.—More than two hundred million dollars of State appropriations have been expended to January 1st, 1915, and an approximate total of 31,000 miles of surfaced highways constructed under State supervision since the inauguration of the policy known as "State Aid" according to the Good Roads Year Book for 1915 to be issued in March by the American Highway Association from its Washington office. Only seven States, namely, Florida, Georgia, Indiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, Tennessee and Texas, have no form of State Highway Department whatever, although Georgia grants aid to the counties for road improvement by lending the services of the entire male State convict force. To have State highway departments placed under non-partisan, efficient control, skilled supervision required in all construction work, a proper classification of highways to insure intelligent distribution of State supervision, an adequate provision for maintenance of highways from the day of their completion are among the objects for which the American Highway Association is waging a vigorous campaign.

An Automobile for Railway Use.—In furtherance of the "safety first" principle, the Atchafalaya, Topoka & Santa Fe Railway Company has equipped its Safety Commissioner, Isaiah Hale, with an automobile which is fitted with removable tires, as to permit of the machine being run on the standard-gauge track of the system. With him in the automobile Mr. Hale carries a phonograph and he operates the car over those stretches of the road in the far southwest where great numbers of the Mexican section-hand, track-laborer and other employees are regulated with a programme of phonographic selections. In this the Spanish tango and Mexican song records predominate. Thus the swarthy men from across the frontier are prepared for the 9-minute "safety talk" in Spanish—the Spanish of the border—which closes the impromptu "concert." This consists of a graphic recital of the danger which must attend the taking of chances and about the company's laws and properties. Whenever he finds that the Mexican "boys" have a phonograph in their bunk cars, Mr. Hale leaves a set of "tango" and song records, which is sure to include one of the "safety-talks."

Forcing the Dardanelles

Further Evidence of the Supreme Importance of the Command of the Sea



A fleet of British trawlers of the kind now being used by the Allies in mine-sweeping operations in the Dardanelles.

IF the great Mahan were living to-day he would witness, in the so far successful forcing of the Dardanelles by the allied fleet, one more of those striking evidences of the decisive value of the command of the sea, of which the present war has afforded so many.

It is quite possible that the ultimate issue of the great conflict will be determined by economic exhaustion, due to the absolute blockade of Germany and Austria by sea and land; and the stupendous operations which are being carried on in the Dardanelles may prove to be the forging of the last link in an unbreakable chain, which, with the capture of Constantinople and the resultant entry of Italy and the Balkans into the war, will extend unbroken from the western coast of Norway by way of the North Sea, the Mediterranean, the Balkans and Russia, to the eastern shores of the Baltic.

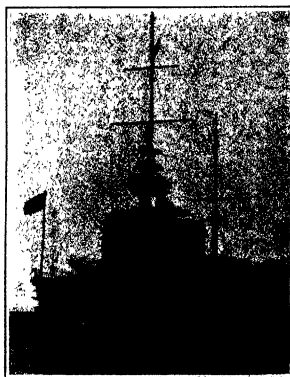
Much has been said and written during the past few years about the impregnable character of modern sea-coast fortifications against successful attack by water. For reasons which we indicated in our last issue, such is the more accurate range finding and the more stable platforms of seaward guns. It has been generally believed that no admiral would risk the loss of ships costing from ten to fifteen million dollars apiece, by venturing within the zone of fire of heavy sea-coast guns and mortars. Nevertheless, to-day we see this very thing being done with a deliberation and a success which are equally astounding.

The security of Constantinople from attack by the sea was supposed to lie in the fact that it could be approached from the Mediterranean or from the Black Sea only through a narrow strait, at one point less than a mile in width, which was defended by some of the strongest and most heavily-armed fortifications in the world. Thus, the Dardanelles, some forty miles in length, are flanked at their entrance by forts on either side, and at the Narrows are similarly protected by a

string of forts well supplied with Krupp artillery of from 9.4-inch caliber up to 14-inch. Should both the entrance and the narrows be forced the ships for the next twenty-five miles would be threatened by various redoubts and batteries and, finally, would have to overcome a series of unusually strong defenses where the Dardanelles narrow before opening into the Sea of Marmora.

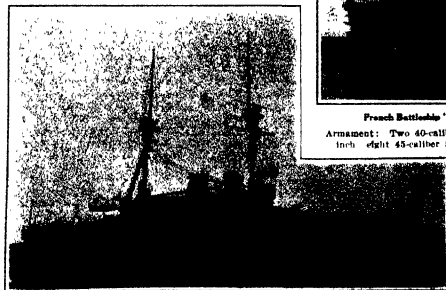
During the first two weeks of operations the allied fleet has forced the westerly entrance of the Dardanelles and silenced some of the heaviest forts at the Narrows. The indications are that this attack will be pushed through successfully. If so, the day when Constantinople will be covered by the guns of the enemy is not very far distant. Now, with Constantinople in the hands of the enemy, the whole Turkish plan of campaign would collapse; for Constantinople is to Turkey what Essen and Westphalia are to Germany. If Holland should enter the war, and the Allies, attacking on the flank, should capture Essen and the great manufacturing centers of Westphalia—the source of the enormous supply of arms, ammunition, and transport for the German army—German resistance would cease automatically. Equally vital is Constantinople, where is situated the Turkish arsenal, to the continuance of Turkish operations.

The collapse of Turkey would set free probably between 300,000 and 400,000 British and Russian troops, for the reinforcement of the allied armies in the east.



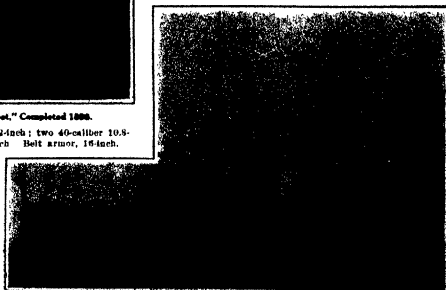
French Battleship "Bourvet," Completed 1898.

Armament: Two 40-caliber 12-inch; two 40-caliber 10.8-inch; eight 45-caliber 5.5-inch. Belt armor, 16-inch.



British Battleship "Lord Nelson," Completed 1908. Also "Agamemnon."

Armament: Four 45-caliber 12-inch; two 50-caliber 9.2-inch. Belt armor, 12-inch.



British Battleship "Albion," Completed 1901. Also "Vengeance."

Armament: Four 35-caliber 12-inch; twelve 40-caliber 6-inch. Belt armor, 8-inch.

The large fleet of warships attacking the Dardanelles is composed chiefly of old battleships, such as the "Bourvet" and "Albion"; the "Queen Elizabeth," "Lord Nelson" and "Agamemnon" are modern.

ern and western theaters of conflict. Furthermore, it might well serve to bring Italy and the Balkan nations into the conflict, urged on by their desire to have an authoritative voice in the readjustment of boundaries which must necessarily take place at the finish of the war.

To follow in detail the nature of the operations which are being carried out by the allied fleet we must understand the nature of the defenses which have to be broken down. These are three-fold: First, the heavy, long-range, armor-piercing guns, generally mounted on high elevations; second, the batteries of rapid-fire guns equipped nearer sea level and the shore, which protect the mine fields and prevent mine-sweeping operations; and, lastly, the mine fields themselves.

The heavy batteries of the forts at the Narrows are armed with guns of from 9.2 up to 14-inch caliber; and the first step was to reduce these guns. If possible at a distance which would place the ships outside of the range of the forts. For this work the British Admiralty designated the most powerful ship of the British navy, the "Queen Elizabeth," which has just been commissioned. This vessel mounts eight 15-inch guns, which fire a 1,025-pound, high-explosive shell with a velocity of 2,800 feet per second. For the purpose of attack, the ship took station off the north coast of the Gallipoli Peninsula near the Gulf of Saros. Between her and the forts, running down the peninsula, was a ridge

and enable the latter to be drawn aside from the channel, or brought to the surface and rendered harmless by exploding them. Into the channel as thus closed the fleet moved up, and the process of the reduction of the next fort or series of forts within range is proceeded with.

So interesting is the Admiralty statement of March 8th, giving the details of operations to that date, including the activities of the fleet of seaplanes, that we reproduce it in full:

"The operations at the Dardanelles are progressing and have been favored by fine weather. Admiral Carden reports that on March 6th the "Queen Elizabeth," supported by the "Agamemnon" and the "Ocean," began an attack on Fort Hamidieh (Tato No. 1 and Hamidieh-Tato No. 3, marked on the Admiralty map as Forts U and V, by indirect fire across the Gallipoli Peninsula at a range of 21,000 yards, or about eleven and a half miles.

"These forts are armed thus: U with two 14-inch guns and seven 8.5-inch guns; V with two 14-inch guns, one 9.4-inch gun, one 8.5-inch, and four 5.5-inch.

Battleships Are Struck.

"The "Queen Elizabeth" was replied to with howitzers and 8.8-inch guns. Three shells from the field guns struck without causing any damage. Meanwhile inside the strait the "Vengeance," "Albatross," "Majestic," and "Prince of Wales" fired on the fort at Koca Bay, on the European side, and on the batteries at Mount Dardanus marked D and E on the Admiralty map.

"These ships within the strait were fired on by a number of concealed guns. Fort Hamidieh-Tato, marked J on the Admiralty map, which had been attacked on the previ-

ous day, also opened fire and was engaged and hit by 12-inch shells. The majority of the ships within the strait were not so successful.

"The weather continuing calm and fine on March 7th, four French battleships, the "Gaulois," "Charlemagne," "Bouvet," and "Buffet," entered the strait to cover a direct bombardment of the defenses on the Narrows by the battleships "Agamemnon" and "Lord Nelson." The French ships engaged the battery on Mount Dardanus and various concealed guns, silencing the fort at Mount Dardanus. The "Agamemnon" and the "Lord Nelson" then advanced and engaged the Narrows forts at from 12,000 to 14,000 yards by direct fire.

"Forts J and U replied and both were silenced after a heavy bombardment. Explosions occurred in both forts. Fort J has not fired a shot since the explosion of the magazine on March 6th.

"The "Gaulois," the "Agamemnon," and the "Lord Nelson" were each hit three times by Turkish shells, but the damage was not serious. Three men were slightly wounded on the "Lord Nelson."

Airships Wounded.

"While these operations were in progress the "Dublin" continued to attack the Bulair batteries. She was fired at by 4-inch guns and was struck three or four times.

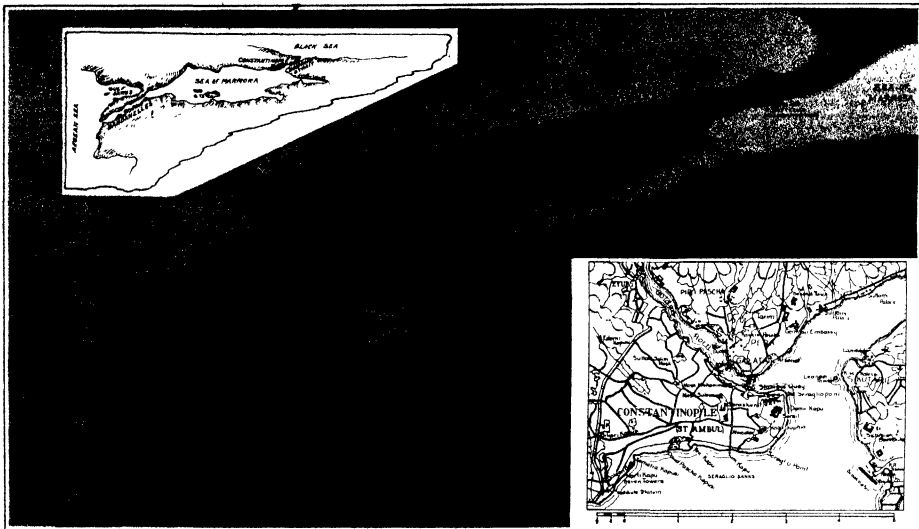
"Owing to the importance of locating concealed guns the seaplanes sometimes had to fly very low. One seaplane, when pilot was Lieut. Garrett and whose observer was Lieut. Commander Williamson, became unstable on March 4th and dived into the sea. Both officers were injured.

"Lieut. Douglas, accompanying at close quarters in another seaplane, was wounded, but managed to return safely. Seaplane No. 17th, commanded by Flight Lieut. Bromet, with Lieut. Ross as observer, was hit twenty-eight times. Seaplane No. 7, Flight Lieut. Kennewick and Petty Officer Merchant being the crew, was hit eight times in locating concealed positions.

"The "Ark Royal," convoy to the aeroplanes and seaplanes, is equipped with every appliance for necessary repairs and for maintenance of the numerous aircraft who carries."

We close this article with the following detailed description of the defenses of the Dardanelles and Constantinople, which is translated from the *Handbook fuer Heer und Flotte*. The Strait of the Dardanelles connecting the Aegean Sea with the Sea of Marmara is about 70 kilometers long, with an average width of 4 to 5 kilometers. At the western entrance the width is 4 kilometers, at the narrowest portion between Kild-Bahr and Kale-Sultanije (Tschamak Narrows) only 1,300 meters wide. The European shore is cliff-like in formation, with the exception of the mouths of small streams, and is topped by 200 to 300-meter hills. Large war vessels can easily pass through the straits, but the strong current from the Marmara Sea renders navigation somewhat difficult. The current flows with the velocity of about one and one half nautical miles an hour but the velocity may attain a maximum of five nautical miles in a strong northern gale.

The fortifications consist of the four Dardanelles castles. Of these, the Sull-Bahr and Kale-Sultanije were built in 1462 by Sultan Mohammed II, Koca-Kale and Kild-Bahr, the so-called new Dardanelles castles, were built in 1650 by the Grand Vizier Achmed Koprili. These are huge masonry structures which have been



The Dardanelles, showing the method of reducing the forts at the Narrows by indirect fire across the Gallipoli Peninsula, assisted by the observation of ships near the entrance to the strait.

Plan of Constantinople, showing the formidable character of its defenses.

of hills several hundred feet in height, which of course, shut out the forts from view. The firing was what is known as indirect—that is to say, the gunners could not see the target—and the range, according to the British Admiralty report, was about 11½ miles. The fall of the shell was noted by aeroplanes and by ships at the entrance to the strait and the proper correction was sent to the "Queen Elizabeth" by wireless.

When the heavy guns had been silenced, two semi-dreadnoughts, the "Agamemnon" and the "Lord Nelson," supported by the French battleships "Gaulois," "Charlemagne," "Bouvet," and "Bouffier" engaged the forts in the Narrows at from 12,000 to 14,000 yards by direct fire; that is to say, the gunners were able to lay the gun sights directly on the forts.

Following the reduction of the heavy guns, the armored ships were sent in to closer range, where they demolished the rapid-fire batteries of 4, 6.7, and 8.5-inch guns and the batteries, which were mounted so as to cover the mine fields and prevent mine-sweeping.

For the work of silencing sea mines the British Admiralty, it was said, judge from the experience, has sent out with the first arrival of those North Sea steam trawlers, which we have heard to report during the present war, a detachment of a few of which is herewith mentioned. These trawlers, which were sent over the course of the campaign to be placed at various points of heavy chain, were used to sweep the mine fields of the mine

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subject to considerable reconstruction. They are armed with old heavy guns and are partly in ruin. In addition to these there are a few small old forts.

The newer fortifications, batteries, or forts in the Tschamak Narrows were built at the instance of England between 1864 and 1877. They consist of the Namazli group (three earth batteries southwest of Kild-Bahr), Dzirnen Bruns (an earthen battery) on the European side, and Medjidije (a fort) and Nagma (an old stone fort, a newer fort of earth, and two batteries) on the Asiatic side. These works have been armed for the most part with more or less modern Krupp guns and were amplified in 1884 by smaller works. In 1902 the system of obstructions were strengthened with 150 sea mines. The defenses have in recent years been somewhat modernized and provided such modern equipments as telegraph, telephone, etc. The entire fortifications are said to contain 682 guns, about one half of which are more or less modern. The modern defenses are very well equipped and manned, so that a passage could be forced only with heavy sacrifices.

As part of the Dardanelles defenses, the line at Bulair must be mentioned. This is a land defense in the north of the peninsula, 5 kilometers long, consisting of three forts each with twelve to fifteen guns, and connecting lines, intermediate batteries, and advanced redoubts (together over one hundred guns). This line of Bulair protects the mainland from attack.

Two Startling Discoveries in Oil Refining

Dr. Rittman's "Cracking" Process in Which Vapors Are Subjected to High Pressure and Dr. Snelling's Discovery of a Way to Reconvert Paraffin, Vaseline or Any Other Petroleum Derivative into a Synthetic Crude Oil Similar to That from Which it Was Originally Obtained

Gasoline from "Synthetic" Crude Oil*

By Walter O. Snelling

MORE than five years ago I placed a small quantity of a transparent liquid lubricating oil in a bomb-like vessel and heated it to a relatively high temperature. At the end of the experiment I removed the oil from the vessel and was amazed to find that instead of bearing any resemblance to the oil which I put in, it now had the appearance of ordinary crude oil. The green color by reflected light and the rich red-brown by transmitted light were unmistakable. I subjected the material to fractional distillation, and the surprise which I experienced at the appearance of the oil changed to amazement when I found that it yielded, on distillation, 15 per cent of gasoline and 30 per cent of kerosene oil and that its construction resembled crude oil quite as much as did its appearance. Furthermore, the gasoline and kerosene distillates which it yielded were of a clear water-white color, entirely without treatment with acid or alkali, and were entirely free from the odor familiar in "cracked" petroleum distillates.

Apparently some remarkable change must come about in the hydrocarbon molecules, when a hydrocarbon body is heated in a still only approximately one fourth full of oil, that does not occur when the same hydrocarbon is heated under similar conditions except that a greater proportion of the volume of the still or retort is filled with oil. With grave doubts and fears, I placed in my retort some kerosene. If this water-white material after treatment, should come out green in color by reflected light, and red by transmitted light, then indeed I would be convinced that I was dealing with a true transforming into crude oil. The experiment ended, I poured out from the vessel a liquid which resembled Pennsylvania crude oil so perfectly that when I placed a bottle of the new product by the side of a bottle of the real crude, it was hardly possible to say which was which, by appearance alone. I next melted some paraffin and placed it in the vessel, and after heating under the prescribed conditions, I poured out a thin fluid, suggesting crude oil in every way, which on distillation gave somewhat over 15 per cent of a water-white gasoline, free from "cracked" odor, and other distillates in about the same relationship as in ordinary crude oil.

Vaseline, Red Wax, All Natural Hydrocarbons Yield Gasoline Containing Synthetic Oil.

One after another I tried putting all natural hydrocarbons available to me through this process. Vaseline, red wax, gas oil, and R. S. S. all these went into my treating vessel, one after the other. They all yielded materials similar in appearance, odor, and composition. From any of these materials I obtained a synthetic crude oil containing about 15 per cent of gasoline, and other distillates in about the same order as are found in typical crude oils.

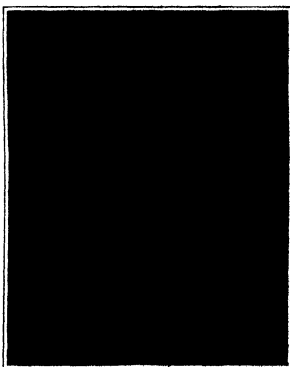
This paper makes public for the first time the results of my experiments, and in presenting it I wish to express my indebtedness to Mr. John T. Milliken of St. Louis, Mo., president of the Milliken Refining Company. He was the first oil man whom I met, who was willing to believe that research could really add materially to the oil man's knowledge. He has generously supported the experiments which I am now reporting.

It has long been known that under the influence of high temperature hydrocarbon bodies could be thermally or "cracked," and that by this method low boiling bodies could be produced from hydrocarbons of higher gravity. Indeed, the commercial use of cracking distillation in petroleum refining goes back more than half a century.

"Cracking" and the Snelling Process Compared.

When the limitations of simple cracking of hydrocarbon oils at ordinary pressures were first understood, efforts were made to bring about destructive distillation under increased pressure. Results showing great improvement over those obtained by the simple cracking methods were given by these processes, which seem to have been first made use of by J. J. Young, and later developed by Dewar and Redwood, and others. Very recently improved processes of cracking distillation under increased pressures have been used commercially by Burton, and are said to have been so developed as

Two very remarkable processes for producing gasoline have recently attracted the attention of the entire country—the one devised by Dr. Walter F. Rittman and the other by Dr. Walter O. Snelling. Both are still in the laboratory stage, and much research of a most expensive and extensive character must be conducted before they can be considered commercial successes. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN here publishes the first exposition of the principle underlying both processes. Mr. Cloddy's article appears with the approval of Dr. Rittman, to whom it was submitted before publication, and Dr. Snelling's is an abstract of an unpublished paper read recently before the American Institute of Mining Engineers. After reading the two articles, we cannot but be impressed with the mystery of crude oil. Here is a compound with atoms and molecules so delicately balanced that they can be shifted into new relations merely by changing the pressures to which they are subjected or by changing the volumes employed. Why this should be so no chemist is wise enough to answer. In other words, there is still more empiricism than science in petroleum refining. While both discoveries are related to "cracking," Dr. Snelling's is particularly noteworthy in the sense that he can take what may be called a finished product and rearrange its structure so that it becomes practically its own original.—EDITH.



Dr. Walter O. Snelling, who has succeeded in making gasoline from synthetic crude oil.

to yield products readily salable as substitutes for gasoline.

It will thus be seen that I cannot claim to be in any way a pioneer in the production of lighter hydrocarbons from materials of heavier gravity. Hydrocarbons have been cracked and broken up into lighter hydrocarbons of lower boiling point, both experimentally and commercially, for a period of over fifty years, and such cracking experiments have been conducted both at normal pressures and under increased pressures.

Apparently, however, the remarkable influence which is played by the ratio of the liquid contents of the vessel to the total volume of the vessel, has been either wholly overlooked, or at least not properly appreciated. It has been wholly through the investigation of the effects of the ratio of the volume of oil, to the total volume of the vessel, that I have developed the process which I am here describing, and which has given the remarkable and unexpected results already mentioned. I believe it is only when these suitable volume relationships are observed that we can get these results within a range of temperature and pressure adapted to commercial development.

The Wonderful Results are Obtained Only When Small Quantities are Treated.

Very careful studies made in my laboratory have now proven that when a hydrocarbon body, such as gas oil, for example, is heated in a vessel which is filled to

more than one tenth of its volume with such oil, but such filling is less than one half of the total volume of such vessel, and if then the vessel is so heated that a pressure of say 800 pounds per square inch exists within the vessel, a very remarkable and fundamental change occurs in the hydrocarbon filling such vessel. It is as though the carbon and hydrogen atoms were free to rearrange themselves, and that such rearrangement goes on until a more or less definite mixture of hydrocarbons remains in the vessel. Where the vessel is less than one tenth filled with oil, considerable "cracking" seems to take place and the product is quite inferior. Where the vessel is more than one half filled with oil, the reaction seems to fall almost wholly, the amount of light products produced being very small. But when the conditions within the vessel, as to amount of filling and temperature applied, are as indicated above, the carbon and hydrogen atoms of the hydrocarbon seem to rearrange themselves to form crude oil and natural gas.

In this rearrangement, not only are low boiling compounds produced from those of higher boiling point, but even the reverse action takes place. In several tests I have obtained from petroleum products of medium boiling point synthetic crude oils which contained high-boiling ends, whose boiling point was considerably higher than any of the constituents present in the original oil used. Apparently the action proceeds through certain equilibrium reactions, in which constituents of different boiling point tend to be present in a certain very definite ratio, provided the space relationship within the treating vessel is of the proper order. Solid paraffin, of course, contains no constituents that are liquid or gaseous at ordinary temperatures, but upon treatment by this process even this solid paraffin is resolved into synthetic crude oil and natural gas, and the percentage of products of each definite boiling point appears to be in a definite condition of equilibrium. If, instead of starting with paraffin, we go to the other extreme, and start with kerosene, which is entirely free from heavy ends, we will obtain a synthetic crude oil which is much lighter in gravity than that produced from paraffin, but which nevertheless contains high boiling constituents whose boiling point exceeds by many degrees the boiling point of the heaviest product present in the untreated kerosene. Thus, it will be seen that while this process is primarily one in which heavy hydrocarbons give crude oils containing light distillates (this being the main trend of the reaction), yet the process is so essentially one dependent upon equilibrium, that if high boiling constituents are absent, or present in very small amount, the equilibrium will not be satisfied until additional amounts of these high boiling constituents have been produced as the result of the reaction which is going on.

Gasoline is Always Contained in the Synthetic Oil.

A residual pressure, after cooling, always exists due to the natural gas formed in the process, and the amount of gasoline in the synthetic crude oil seems to be very constant no matter what hydrocarbon is taken. It is of course evident to the chemist that natural gas and gasoline contain a greater percentage of hydrogen than do heavier oils, and it is very interesting to note that when the charge which is placed within my treating vessel contains a hydrocarbon deficient in hydrogen, the formation of saturated gasoline goes on just the same, and the synthetic crude oil produced carries a "tail" consisting of the carbon which in the rearrangement has failed to find hydrogen. The gasoline produced from materials even highly deficient in hydrogen is quite normal in color and does not appear to be in any way like the "cracked" products which are produced by the thermalolysis of oil vapors, etc.

It is of course evident that if putting any hydrocarbon through the process described makes it a white oil, it ought to be possible to take any hydrocarbon and first convert it into crude oil by the process described, then remove the gasoline, for example, or any other constituent, from this crude oil by distillation, and then to subject the residue to a repetition of the process. I have done this many times, and have converted paraffin and other hydrocarbons into synthetic gasoline and other petroleum products, and have obtained wholly into gasoline and kerosene oil, and have obtained from paraffin about 70 per cent of synthetic gasoline, the remaining 30 per cent representing the material left over by the repeated action of the process, and some free carbon. From gas oil, gas of natural gas, similar materials I have obtained, from gas oil, about 70 per cent of water-white gasoline, and from kerosene

* Paper read before the American Institute of Mining Engineers.

the process, even after standing for a pair of two, the odor is not changed, and is therefore of "cracked" odor. I wish particularly to note that this gasoline, when used in the process, is not treated in any way, and has never come in contact with either acid, alkali, fuller's earth, bone black, or other related materials. In brief, the process which I have described produces from gasoline a product resembling a material which resembles natural crude oil, and which gives a gasoline which appears equal in quality and appearance to gasoline from natural crude. Both the crude oil produced by my process and the gasoline produced from its distillation possess an odor which is somewhat different from the odor of natural crude oil and ordinary gasoline. This odor, while peculiar and distinctive, is not in the slightest like the odor of "cracked" products, and it is in fact a slightly milder and sweeter odor than that of ordinary oil products. Upon mixing my synthetic crude oil, or the gasoline produced from it, with certain sands and clays, it seems to be altered, and the odor changes and becomes much more like that due to ordinary crude.

These experiments which I have described have been wholly of a laboratory nature, and much work remains to be done in the application of the principles which have been discovered, to commercial work on a large scale.

The Rittman Process of "Cracking"

By C. H. Cloudy

THE shortage in dyestuffs founded upon the coal tar industry, as well as the increased consumption of gasoline abroad, not to mention the enormous business in explosives, have all aroused great interest in possible methods of supplying coal tar dyestuffs in enlarged quantities, and explosives of all kinds. In many explosives coal tar products are important ingredients. Any process, therefore, which is concerned with coal tar or gasoline, and looks to the preparation of either, is of considerable economic interest in America. A process which concerns both coal tar derivatives and gasoline is, therefore, of double interest. But the ill-considered and misleading statements of newspapers regarding new processes and their possibilities frequently do more harm than good, by prejudicing the scientific world in advance against worthy ideas, when they are presented in a manner which shows at once that impossible claims are being made.

The recent announcement by the Secretary of the Interior of a new process of petroleum "cracking" has resulted in the usual daily press hysteria regarding its possibilities. While refusing to prophesy what the future will develop in the commercial application of his discovery, Dr. Walter F. Rittman, chemical engineer of the Bureau of Mines, would be the first to deny the many impossible powers attributed to his results by newspapers more sensational than accurate.

Dr. Rittman's Process is Still in the Laboratory Stage.

Dr. Rittman's process, which are the result of applications of mathematics, physics, and chemistry to the process of petroleum cracking, were worked out in the laboratories of Columbia University. Showing remarkable results in many ways, they are still in the laboratory stage, and, as all practical chemists know, what happens in the laboratory cannot always be duplicated commercially on a large scale. Dr. Rittman believes that his process is commercially practical, and that it will not only result in an increased production of gasoline at a less cost than at present, but that it will to a large extent relieve the shortage in coal tar dyes caused by the European situation, and in the same way, contribute to the manufacture of those explosives which depend upon coal tar derivatives for their ingredients. That a full-fledged coal tar industry, completely displacing foreign competition, will result from the application of this process commercially, as apparently believed in some newspapers, is an improbability at which Dr. Rittman would be the first to laugh.

The fundamental difference between the Rittman process and all other processes of obtaining from petroleum these more refined products of use in the arts, is found in its use of the vapor phase rather than the liquid phase of the material which is to be "cracked."

The Old and the New Process of "Cracking."

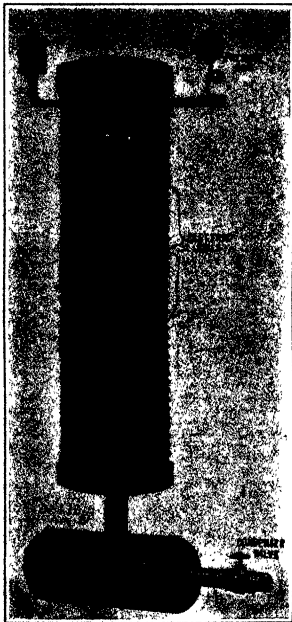
From the beginning, the still has been the recognized method of dealing with any treatment of petroleum. When distillation gave rise to the newer process of "cracking," a heavy petroleum distillate to make lighter oils, the use of the still was continued. A certain incident apparently developed in the chemical engineer's mind which prevented him from thinking of any process looked for the subsequent use of change of petroleum consisting of a process of distillation.

The first process was to break the "cracking" process, and the pressure and temperature, which were previously not provided, were the commercial standpoint in the process.

Some chemists, while the process, from altogether an-

other angle. Knowing that liquids are incompressible, and that in spite of the application of considerable pressure, they do not and thus give rise to danger of exploding the still, with the consequent loss of its entire contents, not to mention the loss of the still and the attendant dangers. Dr. Rittman proposed to himself first to convert the petroleum to be treated to vapor. Then, when it was in the vapor or gaseous stage, to subject it to such pressures and temperatures as would result in the production of gasoline, or, pushed farther, of kerosene and toluol, and the other similar compounds which together form the mother substance, in coal tar, of so many useful products, dyes, medicines, constituents of explosives, etc.

In practice, the apparatus used is represented in the accompanying diagram. A suitable tube of iron, closed at one end and opening from the other into a condenser of appropriate form, has across its upper section a septum, pierced, upon which is placed a layer of lumps of fire clay, balls of iron, or other non-melting substance. Connecting to the main tube through a smaller one is an oil cup so arranged that its contents may drip down slowly onto the layer of fireproof material above the septum. On the other side of the tube a smaller tube leads off to the familiar pressure gauge.



The experimental apparatus of Dr. Rittman.

Surrounding the main tube is a coil or coils of wire, by which, through the application of an electric current, the tube may be raised to any desired temperature.

The oil dripping upon the heated fireproof material is converted into a gas or vapor. Any solid residue which would normally appear to collect upon the fire brick or iron balls is washed down into the main tube, and thence into the condenser, by the gasoline and gasoline vapor inherent in the petroleum. As the vapor or gas collects in the main tube and is heated by the hot electric coils, it creates its own pressure, which is regulated by the amount of crude oil permitted to flow down, and also by the amount of heat applied. It is further subject to regulation through the valve which leads from the condenser.

The Advantage of Treating a Vapor Instead of a Liquid.

By treating vapor of petroleum instead of the liquid itself, Dr. Rittman is able to go much farther than can be accomplished by the use of the still. In the still, pressures of 100 pounds are high, and an undue increase of heat after that pressure is reached is usually dangerous. Gas, however, is compressible to a much greater degree than a hundred pounds without danger of explosion in apparatus of the type described, and

in experiments, Dr. Rittman has succeeded in working with a pressure exceeding 300 pounds. With such pressures as this, and with a degree of heat perfectly controllable by the means described, the Rittman process not only delivers gasoline to the amount of from 50 to 75 per cent, but permits him to obtain benzol and toluol at will.

These substances, and others closely allied to them, form that mother substance which is derived from coal tar, is used for making dyes and other materials so much in demand in many arts. It is his production of these in this new method of "cracking" that has caused Dr. Rittman to be so misquoted and so untruthfully advertised in many newspapers which have published a garbled account of the facts as given out by the Secretary of the Interior. There seems to be no question in the minds of those practical chemists who have looked into the matter, that a new principle of petroleum treatment has been made commercially possible, but as Dr. Rittman himself points out, there is only a belief to go upon, practical applications as yet not having been made. Patents have been applied for which are to be dedicated to the American people, and not held as Dr. Rittman's personal property.

The products of the Rittman process which pass into the condenser are, of course, as easily subjected to further heat and temperature, in the ordinary still, as any other petroleum distillate. The great advantages of the process are safety and speed of operation. Laboratory tests prove the benzol and toluol made synthetically in this Rittman process to be identical with those derived from "natural" coal tar.

Practical tests are to be made in a commercial way of the new discovery in the immediate future, although there is no definite announcement at this time as to who will do it or where it will be done. The development of the new idea in treating crude petroleum in the vapor phase instead of the liquid phase will be watched with interest, not only by the oil industry and its allied commerce, but by all users of gasoline and those to whom the coal tar dyes and coal tar constituents of explosives are of importance.

The Marble Columns of the Lincoln Memorial

By J. P. Kirsch

WHEN Congress made the appropriation of \$2,500,000 for the Lincoln Memorial at Washington, D. C., everyone understood that it was to be something of grand proportions, but few realized the magnitude of this great memorial at that time, although figures were published in papers and magazines throughout the United States. Mere figures, however, are not readily grasped by the average mind, and until he actually sees the object it is hard for him to obtain an adequate conception of its dimensions.

On the front page of this issue are some pictures of the huge columns of this memorial in process of being raised. One cannot help but be impressed with the mammoth proportions. These will be the largest columns of their kind in the world. Each block of marble as it comes from the quarry weighs about thirty-five tons and twelve of these huge blocks are required for each column. There will be thirty-eight big columns in the Lincoln Memorial, and each column will be 40 feet high, weigh 102 tons when completed, and will be valued at \$15,000. As the thirty-eight columns will require four hundred and fifty-six blocks of about 25 tons each, the total weight of marble will approximate 11,000 tons. This mass of stone is being shaped into columns at Marble, Col. The complete story of the work done on these columns after leaving the quarry, is shown in the front page illustrations. First the blocks are sized with wire saws to the required thickness. After that they pass through the barrel saw, where they are cut into drums. The barrel saw is in the shape of a drum, with the lower end open and the lower edge doing the cutting. From the barrel saw the stone drums then pass to large lathes, where they are turned up. The next process is to flute the drum. This is done with carbide wheels operating on opposite sides of the drum simultaneously, as shown in the photograph. After being fluted, the drums are ready for hand finishing and fitting so that each drum will register perfectly with the one above and below when the column is assembled at its destination.

France-Swiss Railroad Connection.—A piece of engineering work which has an important bearing on international railroad traffic is the completion of the Moutier-Grange tunnel. This will afford a long-desired connection from the east French railroads to the Swiss lines centering at Berne. From here, transit is made by way of the Lötschberg line to the Simplon tunnel and to Italy. The length of the Moutier-Grange tunnel is somewhat over five miles. Work was commenced on November 6th, 1911, being retarded by strikes in 1913 and by the recent mobilization, after which it was taken up again on September 30th, 1914. Drilling work is now completed.



The ring appears here as a mere thread of light.



1907 the ring of Saturn was invisible to small telescopes

needed to make sure the action is complete. The rôle of the alcohol is to dissolve the mass, the luminous products which cling to the walls of the cylinder; those particles of carbon which are not dissolved, but are thus deprived of support, become detached. The motor is then set going, and there issues from it a dense smoke with which solid particles are mingled. This does not, perhaps, give the absolute cleanliness of the oxygen method (previously described in *Cosmos*), but such as it is it largely suffices to enable a motor to resume normal functioning. Since this method of cleaning is extremely simple it is a good plan to make use of it regularly at the end of every three



Saturn is the lightest of all the planets. Placed in an ocean large enough, it would float like an ordinary cork

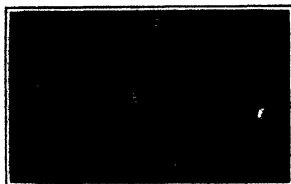
or four thousand kilometers of travel

Foreign Patent Doings.

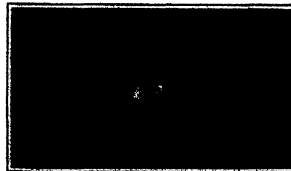
The Belgian government has been a migratory institution for some time, and the various practitioners before its departments have been traveling with it. Some of these attorneys have traveled from Antwerp to Ostend, and thence to Havre, while a few have established branches in Holland, according to advice they have sent to their correspondents in Washington. The German Patent Department, in Berlin, has been practically stripped of all its able-bodied clerks, the army having claimed their services, and the force remaining is only sufficient to the intent applications



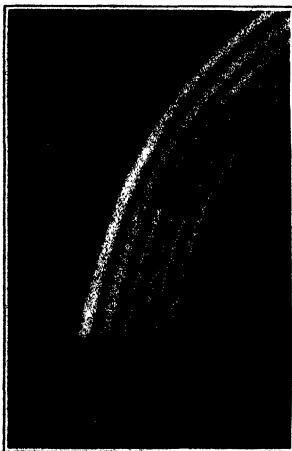
In 1908-1910 the ring of Saturn resembled a very narrow ellipse.



Saturn as seen from the Earth in different parts of its orbit.



Saturn and its principal satellites.



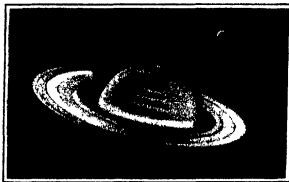
When observed from a point near the equator of the planet, on the side toward the sun, the ring would appear in the heavens like a great luminous arch, showing different colors and changing forms. This ring must be made up of particles of dust held in position by their common attraction. They are, therefore, millions of little satellites unable to reunite with the central sphere.



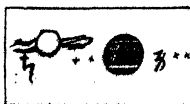
In 1911-1912 the perspective of the ring was a wide ellipse.



This year the ring of Saturn presents its maximum opening.



Saturn is almost 815 times as large as the Earth



Jupiter with its satellites and Saturn, by Galileo.



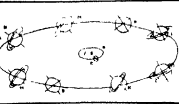
Saturn, triple (Gassendi, 1655).



Saturn (Biccoli, 1650)



Saturn with two moons (Gassendi, 1656)



The phases of Saturn explained by Huygens.



Saturn (Gassendi, 1655)



Saturn, triple (Huygens, 1649)



Saturn with two moons (Huygens)



Saturn (Gassendi, 1656)

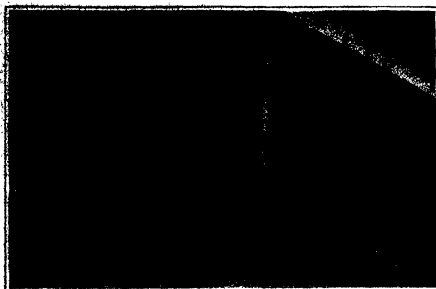


Saturn (Huygens, 1657)

Some Interesting Automobile Novelties

Barrel-shaped Garage

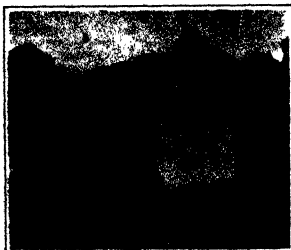
WHEN a man leaves his car at a garage that he machines will not be used in his absence? What guarantee is there that the manager of the garage will give the patron? It is an open building, in which all have access, and while there is little danger of the loss of a car it is not infrequently happens that chauffeurs or even employees of the garage go out for a joy ride with a car to which they have no right. Now the matter is not liable to be detected unless the car meets with an accident. Another annoyance is the borrowing of tools from the tool box of the car that is nearest at hand. Frequently the tools are not returned, and gradually the stock dwindles. In order to provide better security for cars and car accessories the locker system should be employed, as in the accompanying illustration. Closed and locked about each car is a stout iron fence, which will make the car inaccessible for pilfering and render it impossible for any one to take the car out without a key to the barrier fence.



Locker stalls for automobiles.

A Barrel-shaped Garage

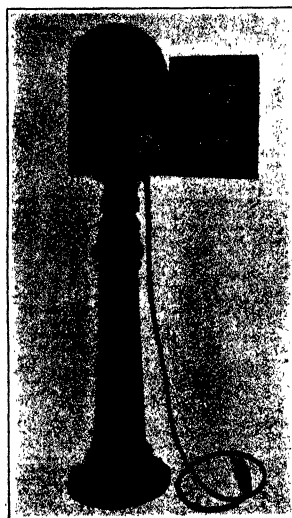
THOUGH it resembles a big barrel, this odd structure is in reality a garage and a very good one. It is built of 2-inch boards of 14 foot length, and the width of the structure is 12 feet. Instead of being held together by nails, the building is kept solid by four heavy iron hoops, which are held snug by bolts and nuts at the top. Only an hour is required to set up the building and it can be taken apart for setting up elsewhere in a few minutes. This portable feature makes it valuable for other purposes besides a garage: as a prospector's cabin, summer cottage, or other non-permanent structure it is ideal. As it is practically airtight, it has a particular value in freezing weather, for the engine of a car that has been operated in the daytime is sufficient to heat the interior and keep it warm all night, or if the car is idle, a very small heating apparatus will keep the garage from undue chill. In fact, the staves and door and ends, with their tongue



This is not a barrel, but a garage.



Structure on the port side of the garage.



Sidewalk charging outfit for electric vehicle batteries.

and grooved joints make a building almost as tight as a tank. Of course a few coats of paint will make it impervious to rain. This building method is very economical as there is no waste lumber and the cost of assembling is slight; the parts fit together so simply that any unskilled man can set it up in a short time. It is not necessary to set up a permanent foundation, as the building is very light; in fact, it can all be carried, when dismantled, upon a single wagon. In order to simplify the construction, the only openings are at the ends, a double door with windows, and in the rear a circular window. This garage is on the home-plate of the inventor in Spokane, Wash., where it has been found satisfactory in every particular.

The First American Twelve-cylinder Car

IN a note in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of January 26th last, reference was made to the increasing number of cylinders in automobile engines, with a hint that twelve-cylinder engines might come into vogue. In support of this prediction we draw attention to the twelve-cylinder "Suburban" racing car of British make, which holds some records on the Brooklands track. Our statement that one of these cars took part in the Indianapolis Speedway race is corrected by W. G. Wall, chief engineer of the National Motor Vehicle Company, who remarks that it was not a twelve, but a six-cylinder "Suburban" car that entered the race.

Mr. Wall made us the accompanying photograph of the first American twelve-cylinder automobile engine which was built by Mr. George Schebler of Indianapolis and put in a car in 1910. As will be noted, the engine

is of V-type with overhead exhaust valves. In view of the present interest in cars of eight and more cylinders it is notable that this original "twelve" has been running for the last five years and is still in use.

Vehicle Batteries Charged at the Curb

ANOTHER invention has been perfected for the convenience of motor vehicle owners. Electric cars can now have their batteries charged at the curb without entering the garage. The charging outfit is a very compact apparatus capable of supplying any electric pleasure or commercial vehicle with enough current to send it on for five to twenty miles on ten minutes to one hour's charge.

A slate panel is mounted within an electrically welded steel box only accessible through a steel spring-locked door. The box contains ammeter, pilot lamp, rheostat fuses and one main line switch. Connections to supply the service are made through underground cable. A terminal block is provided, accessible through pedestal hand hole. The charging cable folds within the box when not in use. When in use the door of the box can be locked with the cable outside.

To obtain current application is made to garage attendant, who unlocks the charging station. Charges made depend of course upon how much current is taken. The curb station is intended mainly as a "booster" for the machine until it can reach its destination. A Cincinnati man is the inventor.

Speaking Tubes for Racing Cars

ON account of the terrific speed at which automobile racers travel it is practically impossible for the driver and mechanic to speak to each other without slowing down. To overcome this difficulty the device shown in the accompanying photograph was introduced at the Corona race, held near Los Angeles, Cal., on Thanksgiving Day. It was invented especially for the



Speaking tubes on a racing car.

event by Eddie Bickelbacher, and was used by himself and mechanic. It consists of two speaking tubes—one extending from the mouth of each person to one ear of the other—and is combined with the usual head-guard and face mask.



Twelve-cylinder American car built in 1910.

Arc-light Controller for Motion Picture Projection Apparatus

THE widespread interest that attaches to motion pictures and the constant advances made in apparatus for their projection is a subject of universal concern. The elimination of the disturbing flickering has largely been accomplished, and now there has been perfected a device for controlling the arc lamp so that the source of light is maintained not only constant as regards its position, but also constant in its intensity. This is accomplished in an invention made by H. N. Baker and originally patented in 1900, but since that time developed and put on so practical and efficient a basis that it has found application in moving picture apparatus of the highest grade, and also for arc projectors used in photo-engraving and search lights.

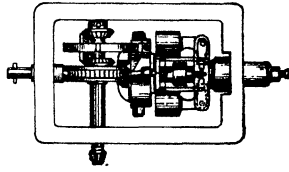
Previously with the hand feed by which the carbons in an arc-lamp were brought together and maintained at the proper distance so as to produce an effective arc, it was not possible to preserve uniformity in illumination, and, as the distance between the carbons varied, there was a corresponding variation in the intensity of the arc as well as a general diffusion of light. Even with a watchful operator, constantly adjusting and feeding the carbons properly, the results were far from satisfactory, while automatic apparatus, in which by some magnetic or other system the carbons were fed mechanically, failed to give the desired results, and even when such mechanism was new there were sufficient variations to interfere with the effectiveness of the projection.

The new device is available for practically any form of hand-fed lamp, and maintains the arc constant so that there is practically no variation in voltage across the terminals. This is secured by means of a motor-driven controller, where a 1/10 horse-power electric motor is connected directly across the arc and is so wound that it will respond to a wide range of potential. The main axis of the armature carries a centrifugal switch, so that when a certain speed is exceeded the weights moving out from the center throw into operation a system of gearing, which connects with the lamp mechanism and moves the carbons together. The speed of the motor depends upon the voltage across the arc and this naturally depends upon the separation of the carbons. If the carbons are separated widely the voltage naturally is greater and more current passing through the motor increases the speed of revolution. This affects the centrifugal governing device and communicates the motion, suitably reduced, to the regulating mechanism. This brings the carbons together until the normal voltage is restored, when the speed of the motor falls and the centrifugal mechanism ceases to operate.

Instead of a variation from two to six volts ordinarily encountered, the potential difference across the arc can be held to less than one tenth volt and the arc maintained for several hours absolutely constant and in the position set at the first adjustment. The shaft connecting the centrifugal governor with the regulating mechanism is telescopic and mounted on universal bearings at either end, so that the lantern may be shifted from ordinary projection apparatus to that for moving pictures, and the whole control system is regularly connected and housed so that it gives very little trouble and can run for hours without adjustment or attention. Not only is the arc maintained constant, but uneven and unnecessary wear of carbons is prevented and stopping for renewal or adjustment



Apparatus for eliminating the flicker of arc lights.



The gearing of the governor.



Welding water and gas mains.

ment of carbons during the course of a performance is obviated. By means of an adjustable spring apparatus, which the centrifugal governor acts, regulation can be effected to any desired voltage or length of arc, and the control will act surely and automatically.

As used with the projection apparatus of several of the large motion picture companies, the new speed controller has served to decrease the flickering and variations in intensity of illumination to a marked degree, and as a result of experimental installation other machines are being equipped with this device. It has also been used to control the arc of a large projection lantern in the photo-engraving laboratory of a bank-note company, where an arc is maintained between carbons 1 1/4 inch in diameter for the upper carbon and 1 inch in diameter for the lower. The speed controller also has been applied to searchlights, so that it is possible to maintain constant the beam of light emitted and regulate its direction by operating gear from some distant point, such as a bridge or observation platform, without the presence of an operator at the search-light itself.

The motor of the arc controller is so small that the consumption of current is inconsequential, and the increased economy at the arc itself more than compensates for the small amount shunted through the motor. The latter is so wound that it will respond to any amount of current at the arc, whether it be five or more than one hundred amperes. The important additional consideration is the fact that the attention of the operator is released from the lamp and he can devote himself entirely to the control of the film, and thus secure the best results. The entire mechanism has been so well arranged and developed that it promises to have a striking effect upon motion picture projection, and especially where high power lamps are produced. The accompanying diagrams indicate in a general way the operation of the apparatus and the construction of the centrifugal governor.

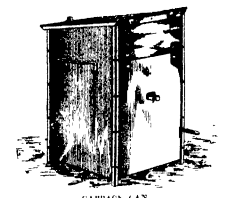
Welding Water and Gas Mains

THE gas welding processes which have come into vogue during recent years, particularly the oxy-acetylene and the oxy-hydrogen procedures, have been extending themselves into fields of activity far removed from the machine shop and foundry. Among these new applications is that of steel pipe laying. Already notices have been laid by gas welding in the cities of San Francisco, Chicago, and Peru, Ind. In fact, at San Francisco, in addition to a high pressure gas main in the city proper, the entire system of gas and water mains for the Panama-Pacific Exposition has been gas welded.

One of the great advantages seems to be the reasonable prospect of a long life for the joint—of a life as long as that of the pipe line itself. Apparently, gas mains in the past have had to be abandoned when only partially worn out because of deterioration of the joints. The new procedure does not employ any other metal markedly different from the pipe itself at the joints, and a steel pipe line is welded up with a material that is approximately steel. When the pipe is once laid, the whole affair—joints and all—becomes in effect a single piece of steel. It is possible that electrolytic action will be almost eliminated, as such action only takes place where there is a difference in metals. The strength of the joints will be a very considerable percentage of the strength of the pipe. Indeed, it is in general possible, whenever it seems

(Continued on page 273)

can which can be easily filled and emptied. Also to provide a car having a foot operated chute which may be opened to allow filling of



GARBARO 145

the car, the mechanism for operating the chute being inclosed in a movable housing where it is protected from the elements and the contents of the car and where it may be uncovered to removal of the housing when it is desired to repeat the operation.

WINDOW WICKET OPERATOR.—M. H. ANISM, 11 B. Canal St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a locking mechanism to maintain the wicket in closed position, provides a means for maintaining the wicket in adjusted position and provides means for locking the wicket in a number of positions.

EXTENSIBLE WINDOW SCREEN.—R. T. BROWN, Woodhull, L. I., N. Y. The purpose here is to make a screen more attractive in appearance, capable to adjust and so designed as to be devoid of gaps through which flies may get in, to make the screen in closed position, provides a means for maintaining the wicket in adjusted position and provides means for locking the wicket in a number of positions.

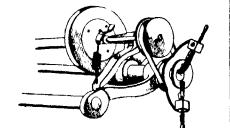
CLOTHES LINE SUPPORT.—J. T. PULSIFER, 11 B. Canal St., New York, N. Y. The invention relates to means for supporting a clothes line and particularly to a supporting means adapted to be affixed to the side of a house and to a post or to two posts of other equivalent supports. The support is provided at all sides of the pulleys so that an endless clothes line with clothes hung thereon, may freely pass with the clothes around both pulleys.

Machines and Mechanical Devices.

CUTTING A ROOM.—Central Building, Paterson, N. J. The invention relates more particularly to a device whereby the transverse shut from one shaft to another is first obtained by a frictional engagement of means carried by the shafts and then by bringing in engagement means adapted to transmit positively the motion of one shaft to the other and thus not depend on the frictional engagement of the parts.

SPINDLE TRIPPER.—P. KELLY, 15 Green St., Worcester, Mass. The object of this invention is to provide a means for arranging to permit an operator to quickly and accurately ascertain the efficiency or non-efficiency of the spinning and twisting without requiring stopping of the machine or removal of the spindles or bobbins from the spindles.

ATTACHMENT FOR BOTTLE WASHING MACHINES.—S. MARSHALL, Jr., 229 St. Watsonville, Cal. The invention relates more particularly to an attachment for a bottle washing machine, and one of the principal objects is to provide an attachment for a well known type of bottle washing machine, by means of which the fluid which ordinarily col-



ATTACHMENT FOR BOTTLE WASHING MACHINES

lects at and adjacent to the crown groove of a bottle neck may be removed simultaneously with the treating of the interior of the bottle. Another object is to provide an attachment including certain means for adjusting them, means for attaching them to the machine, and means for driving the brushes from the spindle of the machine.

MACHINE FOR OPENING AND PASTING STAMPS TO CIGARETTE BOXES OR OTHER PACKAGES.—JOSEF BARBA, Habana, Cuba. This invention provides means for a mechanically delivering in separated condition loose into the path of stamps for enclosing said boxes, and means operating in conjunction with the box delivery for receiving and delivering said stamps by an operating station to be mechanically wrapped about, and caused to adhere to, each of the boxes of said station.

provide a machine wherein the above means are multiplied and united to be operated by a common driving mechanism; and provides means for delivering the boxes after having the stamps applied thereto.

PROPELLER.—C. T. A. H. WINDLEIGH, 124 26th St., Catterburg, N. Y. The invention pertains to rotary propellers for ships, balloons, flying machines and similar vehicles, and it is also of equal usefulness for other devices and machines as a rotor for steam, water or other fluid turbines, pumps, air compressors, blowers, fans, etc. The object is to reduce vibrations.

KEYING DEVICE FOR ROLLS.—W. F. KIRK, care of McLanahan Tool Machine Co., Hollidaysburg, Pa. This speedy and powerful mechanism is especially adapted for crumpling sheet metal and has but one roll, cooperating with a fixed plate and by means of which the sheet may be crumpled to varying degrees of looseness in accordance with the requirement.

Musical Instruments.

GRAPHOPHONE CABINET.—J. P. CLAWSON, 34 N. North Nashville Ave., Ventnor, N. J. The cabinet for disk graphophones comprises a lid so constructed with the cabinet body and other elements as to be adjustable to form, in effect, a horn or sound intensifier in which the tone volume may be governed by the lid to take the place of shutters, doors, and the like, which elements are employed to control the volume of sound in accordance with the requirement.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.

SPARK PLUG.—A. H. DIMON, Alhambra, Pa. The invention relates to spark plugs and is used in connection with internal-combustion engines. It provides a simple and efficient plug which is light in weight and of simple and all proof. The insulation protecting the

electrode is so placed as not to be affected by the radiation of the atmosphere or by the gases of the cylinder as certain insulating means which prevent the gases entering the cavity or oil working therethrough. The structure, therefore, insures permanency to the spark plug.

STAY BOLT FOR BOILERS.—H. A. LAUREN, 205 Campbell Ave., Schenectady, N. Y. The invention provides a stay bolt for the fire boxes of boilers and like structures and arranged to prevent leakage, waste expenditure and contraction of the bolt without unduly straining the boiler sheets, and to permit more than the sheet to provide the direct action to plane without causing shearing or tensile in juries to the stay bolt.

GAS ENGINE SPEED CONTROLLER.—R. M. AUGUSTINE, care J. Wade Anderson, Laurens, S. C. This invention relates to internal combustion engines, and more particularly to regulators thereof. It improves and simplifies the construction and operation of regulators referred to so as to be reliable and efficient in use and easily and quickly manipulated for heavy, no load, and intermediate load conditions with a maximum economy of fuel.

CARBURETOR.—L. M. PARSONS, Beldenville, N. Y. The invention is more particularly directed to provide satisfactory starting and operation with kerosene as a fuel. Among its objects are to provide means associated with the nozzle, to heat the latter, and thereby heat the fuel in the passage from the fuel chamber to the nozzle as well as to furnish heat to the fuel chamber itself, and to provide in connection with the fuel intake a means for utilizing the heat from the exhaust pipe to heat the air in an effective manner.

DIEK VALVE FOR INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINES.—J. S. O'NEAL, care of Munro Hotel, Cincinnati, Ohio. The improvement provides a valve controlling the intake or outlet of a pair of cylinders of an internal combustion engine and so positioned that the thrust on the valve produced during the explosion or compression in the cylinder is reduced to a minimum and also the leakage of gas between the valve and its seat.

RAILWAYS AND THEIR ACCESSORIES.
BOUNDRINE DEVICE FOR AUTOMATIC TRAIN STOPPING.—C. O. WATSON, 569 West End Ave., New York, N. Y. The invention has particular reference to devices arranged along the railway track or roadbed, and associated with either the switch gear or other means for automatically controlling the position of an obstacle adapted to be struck by a locomotive or other vehicle, and so arranged as to stop the train for an oncoming passenger, or other points at or before which it should be stopped.

RAILWAY TIE—H. H. HANSEN, JR., Pullman, Pa. One of the main objects here is to provide a tie which insures a sufficient unit of resistance to the removal of said unit without disturbing the tie itself, which is formed generally of metal and concrete, which presents an enlarged end of the supporting surface at its under side in the position of each rail, and which provides means for retaining snow, ice, and dust from the channels and channel rails of said railway system.

DEVICES FOR REMOVING SNOW, ICE AND DEBRIS FROM CHANNELS AND CHANNEL RAILS OF UNDERGROUND RAILWAYS.—F. J. KACOROS, 600 W. 125th St., New York, N. Y. This improvement relates to appliances or apparatus adapted for use in connection with underground railways systems, and the object thereof is to provide means for removing snow, ice, and debris from the channels and channel rails of said railway system.

AUTOMATIC TRAIN STOP.—J. H. PEARL, Innis, Massachusetts, Canada. The invention relates more especially to the track device, which comprise a trip adapted to be thrown into position to be engaged by an element on the train, the trip being mounted to be thrown into operative or inoperative position, and to yield to a train passing in either direction, while affording sufficient resistance to actually stop the train, being usually in the form of a magnet to release the air pressure in the train pipe or of air or water pressure in the train pipe.

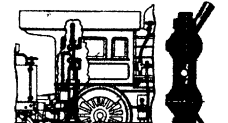
AUTOMATIC SWITCH.—H. E. PALMER, 42 Columbia St., Charleston, S. C. The invention provides means for operating railway switches automatically through the medium of a manually controlled operating device on the

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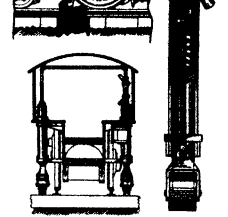
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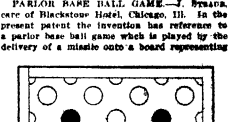
AUTOMATIC RAILWAY SWITCH.



SPINNING DEVICE.

SPINNING DEVICE.—F. J. WATSON, 748 Chatham Square, New York, N. Y. The invention provides a spinning device for spinning tops, propellers and like articles, and arranged to permit of quickly placing the top or other article in position on the spinning device and to allow of readily actuating the latter with a view to spin the top or to cause the propeller to ascend.

PARLOR RARE BALL GAME.—J. FRANKLIN, care of the Hotel, Chicago, Ill. In the present patent the invention has reference to a parlor rare ball game which is played by the delivery of a missile onto a board representing a playing field, and in which the random figure of the ordinary rare ball game is reproduced in a manner so calculated as to insure amusement without danger to surrounding articles.

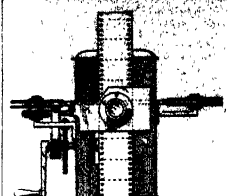


PARLOR RARE BALL GAME.

ATTACHMENT FOR SPINNING MACHINES.—A. H. H. HANSEN, JR., Pullman, Pa. One of the main objects here is to provide a tie which insures a sufficient unit of resistance to the removal of said unit without disturbing the tie itself, which is formed generally of metal and concrete, which presents an enlarged end of the supporting surface at its under side in the position of each rail, and which provides means for retaining snow, ice, and dust from the channels and channel rails of said railway system.

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ATTACHMENT FOR MOVING PICTURE MACHINES.

ATTACHMENT FOR MOVING PICTURE MACHINES.—A. H. HANSEN, JR., Pullman, Pa. One of the main objects here is to provide a tie which insures a sufficient unit of resistance to the removal of said unit without disturbing the tie itself, which is formed generally of metal and concrete, which presents an enlarged end of the supporting surface at its under side in the position of each rail, and which provides means for retaining snow, ice, and dust from the channels and channel rails of said railway system.

MOVING PICTURE MACHINE.—A. C. BROOKS, 1124 J. Ave., West, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. This invention provides a structure which will cause a proper movement of the film past or through a beam of light by a simple continuous moving structure which may be run at any desired speed, and which will cause the usual stationary period for the film at the right time.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

SPRING SUBSTITUTION DEVICE FOR VEHICLES.—A. HANSEN, JR., Pullman, Pa. The invention relates to the suspension or mounting of the frame of a spring or springing when axle or traveling machine upon its axle by means of levers connected with the axle and provided to the frame and adapted to be moved against the action of a spring or springing when said axle is raised relatively to the frame or chassis so as to absorb the shock or jar caused by the passage over rough roads or over irregularities or obstacles. Mr. Hansen has invented another spring suspension device in which each end of the axle is attached to the generally connected adjacent inner ends of two longitudinally horizontal flanges, the outer end or ends of one or both of which is or are pivotedly connected to the frame of the car, vehicle, or machine by a lever and spring device which tends to keep the flange as nearly as possible in a straight line and to restore them should after displacement.

WAGON END GATE.—J. DONAT, Vandegra, Neb. The invention relates more particularly to gates of the type in which the gate is formed of slatted sections, each succeeding section supplementing the action of the preceding series or sections.

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What the Small Manufacturer Needs

THE largest companies have organized Patent Departments, which are as important—if not more so—than the manufacturing force. Their salaried patent experts analyze new ideas produced by research engineers and chemists, secure the fullest measure of protection, and determine whether the idea is worth protecting. They save the waste of re-inventing what is old; they study new and patentable ideas and work hand in hand with the Research Department.

A thousand questions must the experts answer: Is an invention anticipated by prior patents? Can changes be made in the invention which would avoid infringements? If so, what changes? Is the prior anticipating patent or patents valid or not? Who owns the patent which protects a rival product, which seems to be capable of development?

Such questions arise, not only in the business of the large corporations, but of the small manufacturer as well. Because he cannot afford to maintain an expensive staff of patent experts with their assistants, stenographers and draftsmen, he has sometimes seen his business slipping away from him into the hands of a wealthier rival.

The firm of Munn & Co. have instituted a patent service for the small manufacturer, which is designed to give him all the facilities which are now enjoyed by the large manufacturing corporation. Patent experts, many of whom were formerly connected with the United States Patent Office and are specialists in their various lines, will study your products. They will ascertain whether or not adequate patent protection has been, or can be obtained; they will compare from the patent standpoint all the products of the same class now on the market, and determine if it is not possible to effect a profitable combination; they will critically compare your product with that of your rival. In a word, they will see to it that your ingenuity—the most vital asset of your business—is adequately protected.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION, ADDRESS

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Manufacturers' Service Department

361 BROADWAY

NEW YORK CITY

American, managed to film pictures of an artillery duel between the French and Germans, after which he rushed to the nearest vacant house and hid both camera and film in the cellar. A few days later, when the fighting had shifted to another part of the country, he returned for his belongings and was successful in eluding the vigilance of the authorities on his journey to the coast, en route for England.

The Current Supplement

IN Modern Issues of the End of the World. In the issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT for March 20th, No. 2040, readers will find an able review of theories, and a valuable contribution to cosmology that is full of interest not only to every physicist, but all well-informed people. Gasoline from "Synthetic" Crude Oil will be especially acceptable at this time when so many are engaged on problems relating to the fractional separation of petroleum, as it tells of some remarkable experiments on a process by which a considerable additional yield of gasoline was secured. The Gardens of the Zoological Society of London, with its pleasing illustrations, gives something of the history and organization of a celebrated institution in Europe. The Science of Nutrition tells about an important work by noted specialists that is of interest to everyone. The Cutlery Works at Thiers tells a readable story, with illustrations, of the methods of manufacture at one of the oldest and most important cutlery centers in Europe. The Relations of the Planets on the Sun discloses the influence exerted by the earth, and considers the question of sun-spots from a new point of view. The article on Gaseous Reaction is concluded, and there are the usual assortment of valuable short articles, including some account of recent developments in X-ray tubes, hydrogen and the rare gases and conditions of industrial accidents. A number of valuable new books are also described.

Finger Prints in the Army

THE last report of the Adjutant-General, United States Army, contains interesting information as to the use of the finger-print method of identification in the army, including some striking instances of the utility of this method. To the end of the last fiscal year a total of 230,181 finger-print records had been received in the Adjutant-General's office, of which 88,337 were made in cases of re-enlistment, when the records made during previous service were already on file. It is found necessary to obtain finger-print records of men claiming previous service, for the purpose of detecting cases, several of which have been the covered, in which a man with a discharge certificate in his possession claimed the service represented by and enlisted under the name appearing in that certificate, although his finger-print record established beyond a doubt the fact that he was not the man he claimed to be. During the fiscal year 467 cases of fraudulent enlistment of former deserters, general prisoners and others were discovered through the finger-print system. The office has also identified by means of this system dead men who were former soldiers and whose identities could not be satisfactorily established in any other way, as well as civil offenders who sought to evade arrest by enlisting in the army under assumed names, and soldiers who left impressions of their fingers while in the act of committing serious offenses.

Keeping the Eye on the Golf Ball.—In patent No. 1,126,051 the inventor provides for preventing the player from raising or turning his head and thus forcing him to keep his eye on the ball by supplying a harness in which an anchor member in the form of a strap or band encircles the chest and an elastic tube projects therefrom and is held by the teeth of the player so that when he starts to move his head to one side or the other, he will feel the pull on the elastic tube and will be reminded of the fact that he should face to the front and keep his eye on the ball. Apparently golf isn't hard enough.



Just Fifteen Minutes at Bedtime

IN only those few minutes a day it is possible for you to get the knowledge of literature, the broad culture, that every University strives to give.

This is no idle promise. Dr. Chas. W. Eliot, from his sixty years of reading, study, and teaching—forty years of it as President of one of the world's greatest universities—has put aside those few great Poems, Dramas, Biographies, Histories, Works of Travel, Science, Philosophy, and Religion that best picture the progress of the human race from the earliest times down to the present day.

"I believe that the faithful and considerate reading of these books will give any man the essentials of a liberal education, even if he can devote to them but fifteen minutes a day."—Eliot.

What books? The answer is contained in the free booklet mentioned below; it is the most valuable booklet ever written for the man who wants advice on what or how to read. It contains the story of

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One hundred thousand business men are using the pleasant, helpful reading courses therein laid out. They are reading the great histories, seeing the great plays, hearing the great orations, meeting the great men of history.

A Free Booklet For You

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It is the most valuable little booklet of its kind that has ever been written. It shows how to select a library without waste or worry—just what books are most worth while. It contains the advice of the leading educator of his day on what and how to read. No obligation merely by clipping the coupon.

Mail this coupon to P. F. Collier & Son, 300 N. 4th St., New York, N. Y.

Danger Pennies

How false economy in lubrication often proves a boomerang

LET us look at some plain arithmetic. Suppose your car cost \$1200.

At the end of the year, you reckon expenses and, roughly, you find:

Depreciation in selling value, say	\$400.
Tires, approximately	100.
Repairs	?
Gasoline, 5000 miles at 1c a mile	50.
Insurance, say	65.
Lubrication, perhaps as much as	10.

\$625. plus

Lubrication comes last—
at a trivial \$10. a year.

It is a human failing to treat such small outlays lightly.

Some motorists do not yet realize that oils which can be sold at pared-down prices cause pared-down efficiency, and send total yearly expenses up—not by mere penny steps but by real dollar leaps.

Consider *depreciation*: Why does it loom up so large?

Not enough attention to that \$10. a year. When all cars are given efficient oil for their motors, automobiles will command higher resale prices.

Trace back most *repair bills* and again you find—*not enough attention to that \$10. a year.*

Gasoline consumption mounts up. The experienced motorist knows that efficient lubrication insures a higher mileage from gasoline.

This is certain: Cheap, poor-wearing oils make noisy, quick-wearing motors.

And worn motors soon wear out.

If you use the grade of Gargoyle Mobiloils specified for your car in the chart below, you may spend an added few cents a gallon. But the gallon "wears" longer.

Gasoline mileage is increased and avoidable repair bills and depreciation are eliminated, adding years to the life of your car.

If you decide in favor of *true* economy in lubrication, you will find your scientific guide in our Chart of Automobile Recommendations which represents our professional advice.

If your car is not listed, a complete chart will be sent you on request.

In buying Gargoyle Mobiloils from your dealer, it is safest to purchase in original packages. Look for the red Gargoyle on the container.

The four grades of Gargoyle Mobiloils for motor lubrication, purified to remove free carbon, are:

Gargoyle Mobiloil "A"
Gargoyle Mobiloil "B"
Gargoyle Mobiloil "E"
Gargoyle Mobiloil "Arctic"

For information, kindly address any inquiry to our nearest office.

VACUUM OIL COMPANY
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Specialists in the manufacture of high-grade lubricants
for every class of machinery. Obtainable
everywhere in the world.

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Detroit	New York	Philadelphia	Minneapolis
Boston	Chicago	Indianapolis	Pittsburgh

A guide to correct Automobile lubrication

Explanation: In the schedule, the letter opposite the car indicates the grade of Gargoyle Mobiloil that should be used means Gargoyle Mobiloil "Arctic." For all electric vehicles use Gargoyle Mobiloil "A" for motor and enclosed chains. The recommendations cover all models of both pleasure and commercial vehicles unless otherwise noted.

For example "A" means Gargoyle Mobiloil "A" "Arc" For open chains and differential use Gargoyle Mobiloil "C"

[illegible]

Mobil oils

A grade for each type of motor

[illegible]

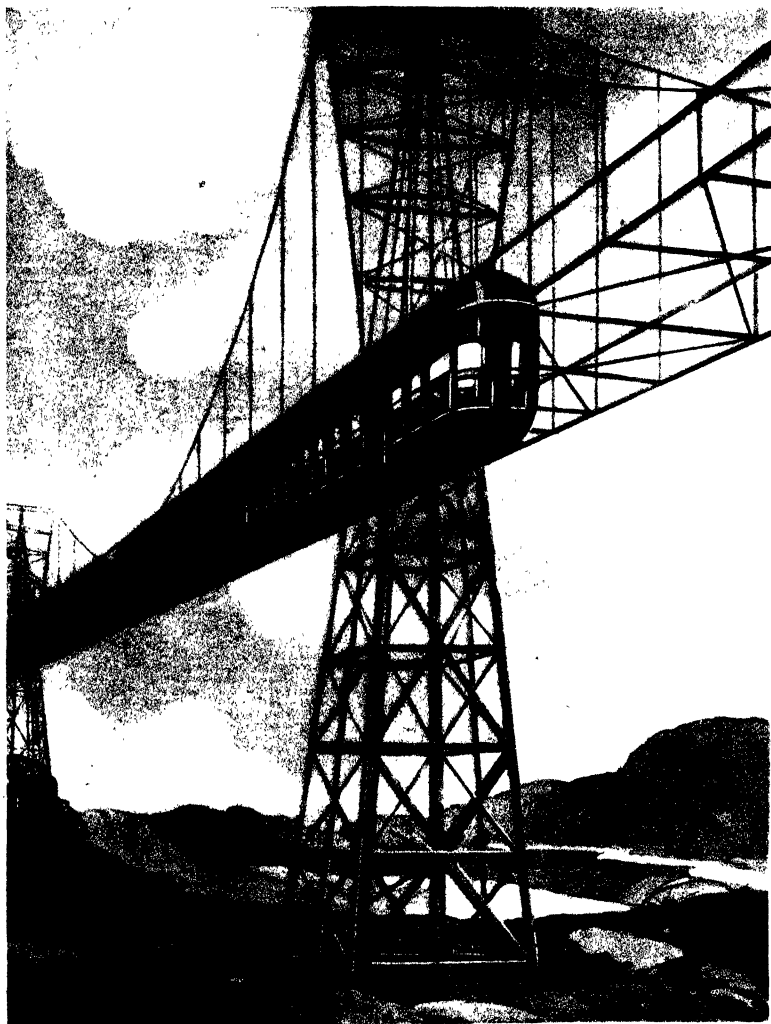
MODEL OF	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915
CARS	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer
Mercedes (22-70 Series)	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Mitsui	B	Arc	A	Arc	A
Maxwell	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Knights	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Moon (4-11)	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
National (10-17)	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Oldsmobile	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Overland	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc
Packard	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Pontiac	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Paige	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Payson	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc
Peppel Arrow	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Pope Hamilton	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc
Prentner	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Reynolds	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Regal	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Renault	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Rockwell	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
S. G. W.	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Selden	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Seaton	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Six	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Spencer	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Standard	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Studebaker	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Studebaker Knight	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Studebaker	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Valley (4-11) Valley (4-11)	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Walter	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc
Wheeler	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Wills Knight	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Wilson	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Wright	A	Arc	A	Arc	A
Utility	A	Arc	A	Arc	A

FATIMA

THE TURKISH BLEND CIGARETTE



SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



A FAST MONORAIL TRAIN CROSSING A VALLEY [See page 202]

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Pre-purchase service given by White analysts enables the buyer to avoid mistakes in selecting the truck for his particular needs.

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Atlanta 63-65 Ivy Street
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SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

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NEW YORK, MARCH 27, 1915

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Rescue Company No. 1 of the New York Fire Department

HERE is nothing a fireman dreads so much as a smoky fire, and when that smoke contains choking fumes and poisonous gases his task is hazardous in the extreme. Nevertheless he must penetrate that smoke to its source, regardless of personal danger. Time and time again have the firemen of New York city risked their lives in fires of this kind, bravely rushing into veritable death traps, struggling until overcome, then being dragged out in the nick of time by their companions, and sometimes they have not been dragged out in time.

Although such conditions have existed for a long time, and the work of mine rescue squads has pointed out the value of smoke helmets in just such conditions, it was not until after the subway fire last January that any definite action was taken. At that time, it will be recalled, hundreds of passengers stalled in the subway were overcome by the fumes of burning insulation, and the firemen had no end of difficulty in dragging them out. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN then pointed out the urgency of having a rescue squad of firemen equipped with smoke helmets. Immediately after the fire, with commendable promptness, such a company was organized.

Tests were made of six or seven varieties of smoke helmets in order to determine the best for firemen's use. Finally the one shown in the accompanying illustrations was adopted with a slight modification at a point which was thought to show a slight weakness, and ten helmets of this type were bought. The manufacturers claimed that this helmet with its oxygen tank and regenerator would keep a man supplied with fresh oxygen at the rate of two liters (about two quarts) per minute for an hour. At the end of that time a gas, known as the "finimeter," would register zero, but there would be still enough oxygen in the tank to keep a man supplied at the same rate for twenty minutes more in order to make sure of this, Capt. John J. McElligott, in charge of the rescue company, decided to try out the helmet under extreme conditions. At the Firemen's College there is a concrete room, twenty feet square, where sprinklers are tested. Into this room a quantity of smoke-making fuel was put, consisting of excelsior, straw, oakum, rubbish of all kinds, and sulphur. This was set afire and it produced dense volumes of smoke and intense heat. Into this inferno Capt. McElligott went equipped with his smoke helmet, and the door was closed behind him. The firemen found it difficult to close the door at first because of the outflow produced by expansion of the air in the room. The helmet was secured with a telephone, by which Capt. McElligott could communicate with the outside. He had with him a thermometer registering up to 500 degrees, and he found that the temperature rose quickly to 280 deg. Fahr. Despite this intense heat, he remained in the room watching the index pointer of the finimeter gradually swing down to zero, when his watch showed him that he had been in an hour, and then he remained fifteen minutes more—seventy-five minutes altogether in a temperature which, for at least three quarters of an hour, was up to 280 deg. Fahr. At the end of that time he emerged thoroughly exhausted, streaming perspiration, with the sweat stinging in his shoes at every step. His clothes were rotted by the action of the fumes, and his hands were so blackened that it was impossible to wash them white again. The discoloration did not wear off for weeks.

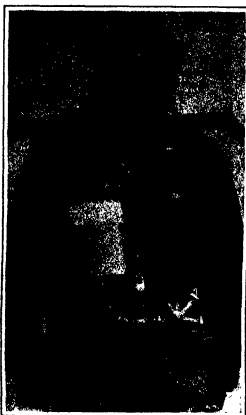
It is astonishing what an intense heat one is able to stand in dry air. Water at a temperature of 150 degrees would scald a person. In a Turkish bath the temperature may go up to 200 degrees. But 80 degrees above that is decidedly uncomfortable, to say the least, and it is really remarkable that a person should have been able to stand it for an hour and a

quarter. Capt. McElligott states that it was very distressing, but that he expected no scalding effect except at one time when a drop of water, which evidently had condensed upon the ceiling, splashed down on the leather flap of his helmet and burned right through to his neck.

This kind of helmet apparatus has been described in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN before, but a brief explanation of its operation may not be amiss. From the helmet there are two tubes leading down to a pair of "breathing bags" that rest on the breast of the wearer. One of these bags takes the surplus inspiratory air and the other the surplus expiratory air. The air that is exhaled passes from the breathing bag to the back of the wearer, where it is forced through a regenerator consisting of a receptacle containing caustic potash. The caustic potash removes the carbon dioxide. The regenerator is shown at the left in the rear view of the apparatus. At the right is the tank in which oxygen is kept at a pressure of about 1,800 pounds per square inch. This passes through a reducing valve so that it will flow out at the rate of two liters per minute, and passing through an injector serves to force the exhaled air through the regenerator. As some heat is produced in the regenerator, the air mixed with fresh oxygen passes through a cooler before making its way to the inspiratory breathing bag. Thence it is inhaled through the tube shown at the left hand in the front view of the helmets. In order to make an effective seal of the helmet, it is provided with a soft rubber tube which is inflated to fit snugly around the face, and this is pumped up by means of the small bulb pump which may be seen hanging from the face plate of the helmet. On the opposite side of the face plate is a small projection, which is the handle of a sponge mop with which the fireman may wipe the perspiration out of his eyes or brush away any irritation. This is a feature that is very much appreciated. Divers who have no such means of relieving itching or irritations of the face, frequently suffer untold agony.

For nearly two months eight men besides Capt. McElligott and his lieutenant have been practicing with this apparatus and also with pulmotors and a Blaugas oxygen torch, and on March 24 they were established as Rescue Company No. 1. They have a motor car fitted with the Blaugas torch apparatus, two pulmotors, stretchers, smoke helmets, and additional supplies of oxygen for the pulmotors and the helmets, besides the customary life line, fire extinguishers, axes, etc. They respond to every (western fire south of Fifth Ninth Street and to three alarm fires as far as 125th Street. Already they have shown themselves invaluable. At a recent fire in a building extending from Greene to Moore streets, the fire was at one end of the building and the entrance at the other. This meant that the firemen would have to grope through two hundred feet of black smoke before reaching the fire. Ordinarily this would have meant the suffocation of many of the men, but the helmeted men went to the front without the slightest difficulty and located the blaze.

As yet the torch has not been put to any service, but it is provided for occasions where armored doors are encountered which resist the battering of axes. With the torch the locks can be cut out with practically no delay. In a test of this apparatus a bar of steel four inches square, by cross-section, was cut through in 6½ seconds. The apparatus carried by the company has a capacity of fifty-six inch cuts. It will be recalled that when the Equitable Building burned down a number of men were trapped in the basement behind windows guarded by thick iron bars. The firemen exerted almost superhuman efforts in endeavoring to cut through these bars. Had the Rescue Company been in existence then, the bars could have been burned through in a couple of minutes and the men easily saved.



The air regenerating apparatus.



Members of the first rescue company of the New York Fire Department.

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The purpose of this journal is to record accurately
simply, and interestingly the world's progress in science
and technology, and to disseminate the results of scientific
research and industrial achievement.

A Fair Field and No Favor

THE failure of the Shipping Bill has served the purpose of clearing the atmosphere of some of the fog which has covered the whole question of the American merchant marine, and to that extent the attempt to pass this bill involving as it did a lengthy and very thorough discussion of the question of the merchant marine, has been profitable and in many ways helpful. The policy of the straight subsidy has been subjected in previous years to a similar thorough thrashing out both inside of Congress and outside. Its failures have been exposed, the whole country has been given an opportunity to express its wishes in the matter, and it is now certain that the question of subsidy is dead for all time. Another proposed measure, from which much has been expected, namely, the imposition of preferential duties, has been rejected. The restriction upon the purchase and operation under flag of foreign built ships has been removed, and while some advantage has resulted from this measure the benefit has proved to be so slight as to leave the problem pretty much where it was. Hence, it must be admitted that the endless discussion and the attempted legislation for the merchant marine have served a good purpose in so far as they have cleared the air and brought both Congress and the nation a measurable step nearer to the true solution of the problem.

The causes which render the construction and operation of the American-built ships unprofitable are two fold. First it costs more to build a ship in our yards than it does in foreign yards and secondly, because of certain burdensome navigation laws, it costs a great deal more to operate them.

The first difficulty should be met by doing everything possible in the way of legitimate legislation to remove the handicap under which our shipbuilders labor, and to this end it would be advisable to permit the importation free of duty of all materials which enter into the construction of ships built for the American merchant marine. A few years ago and for aught we know to-day, the plate mills of this country were selling ship plate at a lower price than Great Britain, and they could be bought by our own American yards. It would be a far-sighted policy on the part of our steel mills if, in the endeavor to encourage American shipbuilding, they made it a point to lay down ship plates in American yards, at least at the same price as they are delivered to foreign shipbuilders. If this were done and all the materials that enter into the construction of ships were permitted to enter this country free of duty, the materials cost would be considerably lowered and our shipbuilding yards in spite of their heavy labor costs, would, by their excellent system of management and the super-excellence of their plant, be in a position to build, if not at least as cheaply, at least very closely to the price at which tonnage is turned out in foreign yards.

The principal burden under which our mercantile marine labors, however, is the much greater cost of operation. This is due to certain antiquated and very burdensome laws with respect to the employment of seamen, their accommodations, food, and the various regulations governing their employment. As long as this burden exists our merchant marine will be handicapped by comparison with the best-sea shipping of the world. If Congress instead of wasting its time in trying to pass laws which the defense shipping bill are opposed to the most elementary economic prin-

ciples, would set itself seriously to consider a revision of our navigation laws and the removal of the burden under which our deep-sea trade is carried on, we believe that private capital would be encouraged to enter generously upon the task of building up a great merchant marine. Before many years we should be in a position to carry out our own goals in our own bottoms and retain the \$300,000,000 annually which is now paid to foreign shipowners.

Legislation of this character would be well directed. It would receive the endorsement not only of the shipping interests but of the vast majority of the people of the country. There is not a practical shipping man in the United States today who does not believe that, if thereby Congress gave our merchant marine an opportunity to demonstrate what it could do in a fair field with no favor, it would ultimately regain the proud position which it held in the middle decades of the last century.

The Chemist as a "Trust Buster"

IN the last report of the Bureau of Mines, Director Holmes made a stirring appeal for Government aid in behalf of industrial research. He pointed out that the Department of Agriculture spent about as much for printing and binding alone as the Bureau of Mines for research, and this despite the fact that untold millions of dollars are added to the country's wealth if the present scientists were given the opportunity. Although he did not say so, he probably despised of interesting our populist congressmen in his plans, apparently because farmers, having votes, may ask Congress for anything and obtain it, and because mines are owned by capitalists who are not in high favor just now. Relying on a more scientific he did not understand how these problems should be attacked. Instead of talking economics and conservation he should have talked "trusts" and oppression.

The Secretary of the Interior understands these things better. A scientific man would never dream of concerning a chemist with every last political squabble. Now that the Secretary has shown how the Rittman process of increasing the yield of gasoline may become a means of thwarting the devilry of Standard Oil, he will know how a chemical formula may be miraculously transformed into a battle cry of freedom from trust control, how politics and science may be united, and how the millions we need for research may be obtained.

Back of Secretary Lane's public announcement lurks the split of antagonism against large corporations that has animated the present Administration. We had thought that the fangs of the Standard Oil had been drawn long ago and that it had been reduced to thirty-three harmless parts. We had thought that the only marked development in petroleum refining of recent years—the Burton process of cracking—was a development of the Standard Oil Company of Indiana alone. In the face of the well-known "state of the art" as patent lawyers term it, Secretary Lane makes the absurd statement that "for some time the Standard Oil Company through the great amount of money at its command, has employed the employment of experts and through its extensive organization, has had a big advantage over the independents in the production of gasoline, this company having a patented process that obtains for it as much as three times the amount of gasoline from a given quantity of petroleum as the independents now obtain." This, we presume, is a veiled reference to the Burton process, which, we repeat, was developed by the Standard Oil Company of Indiana alone. "There are two or three other large corporations," continues Secretary Lane, "that have an efficient process for the manufacture of gasoline, but the independents as a whole have never been able to approach the results obtained by the Standard Oil Company." Now the Federal Government, through the efforts of Dr. Rittman, proposes to make free, for the use of all of the people of this country who wish it, a process that is confidently expected to increase their yields of gasoline from crude petroleum fully 200 per cent and perhaps more.

The publicity methods which have been adopted by Secretary Lane must be offensive to every scientific man. Dr. Rittman's process is still in the laboratory stage. It is contrary to the unwritten code of scientific ethics to exploit an undeveloped invention in this cheap promoter fashion. When it is considered that many thousands of dollars must still be expended to ascertain whether or not laboratory success can be duplicated on a factory basis and that much ingenuity must be exercised in devising pressure retorts which will work day in and day out with the regularity demanded by a commercial enterprise, the Secretary's announcement must be considered as reckless. There are oil refiners enough in the United States of America who would gladly have conducted experiments on a sufficiently large scale to ascertain just what we may expect of Dr. Rittman's investigations, but until those experiments had been made it was wrong to mislead the public by rushing into print.

If the Secretary's statement had been more guarded and accurate, even its premature publication might have been overlooked. As it stands, it presents an absurd picture of the control supposedly exercised by the Standard Oil Company on the development of the petroleum industry on its scientific side and of the miracles that are to be achieved in building up a coal tar chemical industry comparable with that of Germany. Let anyone read the paper by Brooks, Bacon, Piddget, and Humphrey in the March number of the *Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry* and he will learn what the state of the petroleum refining art really is and how much has been contributed to our knowledge of "cracking" distillates by English, French, German, and Russian chemists. Anyone can take the old Dewar and Redwood process, upon which even the Burton is only an improvement, and work it with success.

Chemists will be even more amused by Secretary Lane's conception of a coal tar dye industry founded on the basis of Dr. Rittman's undeveloped laboratory discoveries. Anyone who has read Dr. Bernhard C. Hesse's analysis of the coal tar dye industry of Germany, made for the General Chemical Company, must be convinced that even if the Rittman process were carried to the most advanced commercial success, we must have something more than a few scraps of material with which to make synthetic drugs and dyes. There must be co-operation between the dye user and the dye maker. The manufacture of coal tar chemicals is an economic rather than a technical problem. Hundreds of intermediate products must be handled in a way that is distinctly forbidden by our anti-trust laws. We have a small coal tar chemical industry now, but it can never grow to the proportions of the German trust-controlled industry merely because the Rittman process may give us cheap benzol. If there is any doubt about this, consider the following from the "Recommendations of the New York Section of the American Chemical Society on the Enlargement of the Coal Tar Chemical Industry in the United States":

Benzol, toluol and the like are produced in sufficient amount in present installations of by-product coke ovens to provide all of the things that would be needed for a coal tar chemical industry of a magnitude sufficient to supply the United States market, the separation of these materials from the gas that carries them is dependent upon the market and the demand therefor. There is no inherent defect in our present plants with regard to the actual making of these things, the only question involved is whether it is more profitable to burn the benzol, toluol and the like for domestic heating coal, or to separate them from the gas and from each other for purposes of sale. Ample supply can be provided before any plant that could be found and the like for domestic heating coal, or to separate them from the gas and from each other for purposes of sale. Ample supply can be provided before any plant that could be found and the like for domestic heating coal, or to separate them from the gas and from each other for purposes of sale.

After that one has a feeling that Germany may continue to sing "Lib Vaterland" must sing "Lib."

Scientific Research in the Public Health Service

ONE result of the national health insurance law recently put in operation in Great Britain is that the British Government will devote a liberal annual expenditure for medical research. The law provides that a definite portion of the funds contributed by Parliament to the insurance scheme shall be spent in research, and this amounted in 1914 to the respectable sum of £50,000.

It is an interesting coincidence that the United States Government has also recently placed its work in medical research on a firm footing by materially enlarging the scope and resources of the Public Health Service. A law enacted August 14th, 1912, contained broad authorization for investigations of "the diseases of man and conditions influencing the propagation and spread thereof, including sanitation and sewage and the pollution, either direct or indirect, of the navigable streams and lakes of the United States," and a year later an appropriation of \$200,000 was made for field investigations under this authorization. Additional funds were authorized for enlarging the work of the Hygienic Laboratory and for other incidental purposes connected with research.

According to the annual report of the service recently issued, the last fiscal year marks the beginning of a new epoch in the development of medical research by the Government. The summary of the work done in this direction by the service runs to 117 octavo pages, and is a remarkable record of beneficent activity.

Among the diseases of man investigated in the Government laboratories and in the field were beriberi, diphtheria, endemic typhus, hookworm, leprosy, typhoid fever, malaria, pellagra, trachoma, tuberculosis, typhus fever, and various occupational diseases. These studies also entailed the investigation of sanitary conditions; systematic studies were made of rural sanitation, school hygiene, industrial hygiene, and health organization and administration. Lastly, investigations were made on the pollution of rivers and coastal waters, the disposal of sewage, and the treatment of industrial wastes. These undertakings entailed a large increase in the research staff of the service.

Notes on the War

Aftermath of the North Sea Fight.—Probably, when the history of the North Sea fight between battle-ships is written, it will be found that the 20-knot "Lion," "Tiger" and "Princess Royal" were opposed to the "Doerflinger," "Seiditz" and "Moltke" of about the same speed, and that the "Indomitable" and "New Zealand" of 26½ and 27 knots were outdistanced. If so, after the disablement of the "Lion" and her withdrawal, the three German battle-ers possessed a heavy preponderance of armor-plating guns over the "Tiger" and "Princess Royal," opposing as they did twenty-eight 11- and 12-inch guns to sixteen 13½-inch. As we showed in a recent article, the German guns outranged the British, and, in view of their heavier gun fire, the fact that the Germans even then continued their fight suggests that the Admiralty had given orders to avoid an engagement and save the ships for the big fleet engagement, should it ever come off.

Two Hundred Miles of Trenches on 12-mile Front.—A correspondent of the New York Times, describing a trip along the line of the French, British and Belgian forces, speaks of visiting a stretch of fighting front 12 miles in length, on which the war was irregular, as shown in a triangle, that the total length of the successive trenches with their zigzag approaches, etc., was 200 miles. Although this seems to be an exaggerated estimate, it is by no means impossible under the conditions of French warfare as being now carried out on the eastern front. Where the advance was made by a tunnel and captured trenches are added to those of the successful advance, it is quite possible that from the foremost line facing the enemy, back to the rearmost trenches of the attacking force, the total length, if the zigzag approaches are taken into account, might well reach the figure given. This will be understood if a study has been made of the modern trench, as shown in the accompanying illustration from our issues of October 3d and December 5th, 1914.

A Demand for 16-inch Coast-defense Guns.—Before the "Queen Elizabeth" had done her surprising work in reducing the Dardanelles forts at 21,000 yards range, Brigadier-General E. N. Weaver, Chief of Coast Artillery, had recommended the construction of 16-inch 50-caliber guns for the new fortifications at the entrance to the Chesapeake Bay. Such a gun would be superior to the 15-inch naval guns on every point of comparison. The Elswick 15-inch naval gun fires a 1,925 pound shell with a muzzle velocity of 2,500 feet per second and a muzzle energy of 84,422 foot tons. A coast defense 50-caliber 16-inch piece, firing a 2,500 pound shell with equal velocity, would have a muzzle energy of over 100,000 foot tons; moreover, the depth of the depression of elevation which could be given, it would greatly outweigh the 15-inch gun. In view of the extraordinary increase in fighting ranges developed during the war, it will be good policy to mount some 16-inch guns at all our existing defenses, and particularly at Panama, and in the Philippines.

Obsolescent Battleships to the Fore.—Very interesting is the fact that the bulk of the battleships which are engaged in reducing the forts of the Dardanelles are ships whose term of usefulness was supposed to be near its end. That estimate, however, was based upon their ability to stand the test of battle on the high sea, in which work, if matched against modern ships, they would be worse than useless. For the particular duty assigned them in the Dardanelles, namely, that of silencing the guns of small caliber and limited range after the heavier guns of from 9.4- to 14-inch caliber have been dismounted by such ships as the "Queen Elizabeth," the "Nelson" and the "Agamemnon," they are admirably suited. Their 10- and 12-inch shells carrying large charges of high explosives have proved to be terribly destructive in wrecking gun positions, blowing up magazines, etc. Their armor of from 12 to 16 inches in thickness and the possession of the heavy protective deck, which were given to ships from 15 to 20 years ago, enabled them to withstand the attack of 5- and 6-inch shells with comparative immunity.

Eight Russian Dreadnoughts Approaching Completion.—An important fact affecting the naval situation in the Baltic, of which little public mention has been made, is that the Russian fleet in those waters will shortly be augmented by the addition of eight new dreadnoughts of great size and power, which are nearing completion and will probably go into commission during the present year. Four of these ships, the "Sebastopol," "Tseretsevolovsk," "Poltava" and "Gangut," are dreadnoughts of 23,200 tons displacement, 23 knots speed, carrying each twelve 12-inch guns and sixteen 4.7-inch guns. They were launched between June and October, 1911, and work upon them having been accelerated, they should be in commission before many months have passed. The other four will be the largest battle-ships afloat. They are named the "Ismail," "Kiburn," "Borodino" and "Navarino." The displacement of these ships is 32,200 tons, the speed 28 knots, and each of them will carry the enormous battery for a battle-cruiser of twelve 14-inch guns and twenty-one 5.1-inch guns.

Science

Volcanological Studies in the West Indies.—Dr. E. O. Hovey was sent by the American Museum of Natural History to the West Indies to continue the volcanological investigations that he began in that region after the great eruption that destroyed St. Pierre. He expects to spend about three months in studying, especially, the Grande Soufrière of Guadalupe, Mont Pelé, the Soufrière of St. Vincent, and the boiling lake of Dominica, collecting gases from the fumaroles, making temperature observations, and noting the changes that have occurred since his last visit.

Concentrated Cider and Cider Syrup.—These two new products of surplus and cull apples are described in the last annual report of the U. S. Bureau of Chemistry. In manufacturing the former the apple juice is frozen solid and the block of ice crushed and placed in a centrifugal machine, which removes the concentrated cider, leaving the ice behind. The product, when diluted with water, has practically the flavor and qualities of the original apple juice. The concentrated cider ferments very slowly at refrigerator temperatures, but at room temperatures ferments in a few weeks. It is, of course, much cheaper to transport than ordinary cider. Cider syrup is made by clarifying and boiling down apple juice and it is said to be of value for table use.

The Auto-irrigator.—This is a new instrument for measuring the water-attracting power of the soil, devised in connection with experiments by Prof. B. E. Livingston and Dr. L. A. Hawkins at Johns Hopkins University. It is essentially similar to a standard porous-cup atmometer, but the cup is buried in the soil instead of being exposed to the air. The experiments have carried out a series of measurements upon potted plants irrigated automatically with this device. The rate of water-loss from the irrigator is found to be highest somewhat later in the day than the time of maximum transpiration from the plants. The rate of loss from the irrigator then falls slowly, reaching its minimum in the early morning.

Effects of Grass on Trees.—This subject was brought into prominence a few years ago by the researches of S. U. Pickering, of the Woburn Experimental Fruit Farm, in England. We have previously noted in these columns his observations concerning the very injurious influence of grass on orchard trees, apparently due to some toxic substance produced by the former. The question has now been taken up at another English research institution, viz., the Long Ashton station of the University of Bristol. Mr. Barker also finds that grass seriously impedes tree growth, but the effect is less marked in lands where grass is at the time the trees are planted and remains so that in land which is first cultivated and subsequently grassed. In other words, trees are able to acquire some degree of immunity from the toxic effect in question.

Salton Sea.—fell 42 inches during the year ending June, 1914, when the annual sample of its water was collected for analysis by the Carnegie Department of Botanical Research. The annual concentration of the salts amounted to 18 percent. During the year in question the total solids increased from 1,003 to 1,180 parts per 100,000. During 1914 the Carnegie botanists also made a collection of the algae growing in Salton Sea with a view to determining whether these plants are responsible for deposits of tufa, as has recently been suggested by Jones and Walcott. Similar investigations have been made in the Lake Lahontan basin, where remnants of algae have been found in all the tufas except the tholothic form. Laboratory experiments on the subject are in progress.

Biological Relations of Atmospheric Ionization.—Some recent studies of H. A. Spoer indicate that sunlight and ultra-violet light, in addition to their direct physical and chemical influence of important plants, are also important factors in the processes indirectly by affecting the air surrounding the plant. The effect is especially noticeable in the respiratory activity. Experiments were carried out in which the only variable factor to which plants were exposed was the air of day on the one hand and of night on the other. Air drawn from outside doors was from a room of carbon dioxide in months of winter, then drawn over the plants kept in the dark at constant conditions of temperature and humidity, and finally through a standard barium hydroxide solution in Meyer's tubes. The rate at which carbon dioxide was evolved by the plants was found to be regularly higher by day than by night. It was thought that this difference in respiratory activity might be due to variations in the chemical activity of the atmospheric oxygen as indicated by the values for atmospheric ionization, and this was tested by discharging the air by passing it between the poles of a series of electric batteries before it reached the plants. The difference in respiratory activity between day and night were found to be much reduced under these conditions. Without the deoxygenizing process the course of the rate of carbon dioxide evolution showed a marked similarity with the values generally found for atmospheric ionization. What seedlings were found most convenient for use in these experiments.

Astronomy

Rotation of Two Satellites of Saturn.—Observations made at the Lowell Observatory on the varying brightness of two satellites of Saturn, viz., Mimas and Enceladus, indicate that these bodies rotate on their axes in periods identical with those of their revolution around the primary, i. e., the bodies like our own moon, and probably like satellites generally.

Copernicus Visible to the Naked Eye.—The Swiss astronomer J. Vobly reports in *Astronomische Nachrichten* that he was recently able, from an elevated spot near Geneva where the air was particularly pure, to distinguish plainly with the naked eye the planet Copernicus, when lying beyond the terminator, i. e., the summit of the crater was illuminated while the surrounding region was still in shadow.

The "Parsec."—This convenient unit, suggested by Prof. Turner, and used by the astronomer-royal, Sir F. Dyson, in a recent discourse at the Royal Institution, has not yet been defined in any dictionary. It is the distance at which a star's parallax is one second of arc, or 206,265 times the distance of the earth from the sun. If the sun were at a distance of 1 parsec it would still be one of the brightest stars in our sky, with a magnitude of 0.5. If distant 100 parsecs its magnitude would be 10.5. Most of the stars within the range of our telescopes are believed to be within a distance of 1,000 parsecs.

Remarkable Stellar Velocity.—Recent observations at the Mount Wilson Observatory on the star O. V. 8, 11,220 indicate that it has a remarkably rapid motion in space. It is a star of the 9.2 magnitude, having a carefully determined parallax of .10435 second and a proper motion of 3.76 seconds annually. Its radial motion, as determined approximately with the spectrograph, is 4,290 kilometers (2,665 miles) per second. It gives for its actual velocity in space 577 kilometers (358 miles) per second, which far exceeds even that of the famous star Groombridge 1830. The average velocity of a star in space has been estimated at about 21 miles per second.

The Magnetic Field of the Sun.—Prof. Hale and his assistants have continued their fruitful investigations of the subject and during the past year 25 spectrum lines, all originating at comparatively low levels in the solar atmosphere, have been found to show the Zeeman effect and hence the existence of the sun's general magnetic field. The elements responsible for these lines are iron (10), chromium (8), nickel (4), vanadium (2), manganite (1). The displacements due to the general field appear to be continued to the lower levels of the solar atmosphere, in harmony with previous observations on this subject. The measurements show that the vertical intensity of the general field at the poles varies from a value of 55 gauss for the weakest lines to 10 gauss for the strongest lines yet found to show the effect. A preliminary statement to detect the Stark effect due to electric fields in sunspots has not thus far yielded any positive results.

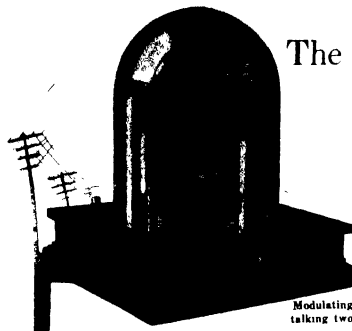
The Stars of Napoleon.—Camille Flammarion, writing in *L'Astronomie*, records with much gusto the fact that a German university once sought to curry favor with Napoleon by dedicating a group of stars to him. In 1807, when the French conqueror was at the summit of his power, the University of Leipzig issued a statement to the learned world setting forth the reasons which had led it "to consecrate to the glory of his majesty Napoleon the stars of the sword and the belt of Orion." These stars were not to constitute a new constellation, but an asterism in the constellation of Orion bearing the special name of "Stella Napoleonica," just as a certain group of stars in Taurus bears the name of the Pleiades, or another the Hyades, etc. The would-be announcement contained much fulsome praise of Napoleon, and pointed out the appropriateness of giving his name to a group of stars surmounting the constellation of Erubus (the Bull). The namesake of the terrestrial river near which Napoleon won his early victories.

Mounting for the 100-inch Telescope.—The last annual report of the Mount Wilson Observatory states that all the larger parts of the mounting for the 100-inch reflector (which will be much the largest telescope in the world) will probably be assembled at the For River shops, where they have been constructed, in time to permit shipment to Pasadena on the Panama Canal, early this year. Meanwhile the smaller parts and accessories have been under construction at the observatory. The drive-locks, which are nearly completed, required more than half a ton of bronze castings and nearly 1½ tons of iron castings, in addition to the 2-ton driving weight. The circular steel building for this instrument is complete up to the masts which are to carry the dome. The latter has been built in Chicago and about finished. The building and dome will probably be completed next summer so that the mounting may be set on the pier in the autumn. Meanwhile good progress has been made with the capital task of grinding and figuring the great mirror.

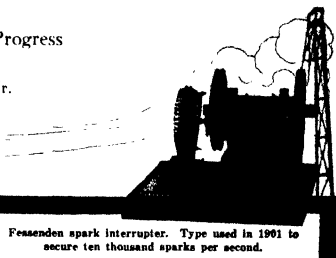
The Principles of Radio-Telephony

A Review of Recent Progress

By John L. Hogan, Jr.



Modulating relay. Used in 1907 tests for talking two hundred miles by radio.



Feasenden spark interrupter. Type used in 1901 to secure ten thousand sparks per second.

RADIO-TELEPHONY, or the transmission of vocal sounds by "wireless," bears much the same relation to wireless telegraphy as wire telephony does to ordinary line telegraphy. In each case of telegraphy the transmission of conventional signals representing letters of the alphabet is accomplished by sending forth electrical impulses in short and long groups, corresponding to dots and dashes, either into free space and guided only by the earth's surface (as in radio) or along a conducting wire. In each telephony case there are sent out substantially continuous streams of small electric disturbances, in themselves too rapidly recurrent to produce individual effects of sound, which are guided either by a wire or by the earth's surface, these streams are modulated to conform to the conventional vocal sounds of language by some change in their characteristics.

In line telegraphy it is usual, by use of a "key," to start and stop a continuous flow of current at the beginning and end of each dot and dash, though some methods of Morse transmission use currents which are automatically interrupted or reversed at a rate high compared to that at which the key is manipulated. In these latter cases the telegraph key serves to turn on and off the stream of rapidly recurring impulses. The reception is effected, when direct current is used, by a sounder which clicks at the beginning and end of each impulse, or, in the alternating or pulsating current case, by a telephone which gives out a musical tone so long as the sending key is held down and the stream of impulses is permitted to flow. It is obvious that either method gives the receiving operator knowledge of the length of time the key is depressed, and therefore the ability to re-write dots and dashes (short or long signals) formed by the sender. It is equally clear that if pulsating or alternating current is used, with a telephone receiver, the variations in it must occur at a rate to which the receiver will respond to produce a musical tone, or say from 20 to 5,000 cycles of change in each sound since otherwise the receiving operator could not determine the duration of each signal.

In radio telegraphy it is customary to produce the required dots and dashes by starting and stopping groups of sparks, each of which emits a train of electromagnetic waves in the "ether" which waves travel to the receiving station. At the receiver the impulse corresponding to each wave train is transformed into a pulse of current and sent through a telephone receiver. Thus if a dot is signified by a short group of sparks occurring at the rate of 1,000 per second, at the receiver the telephone will be subjected to the action of a short group of current pulses at this same rate or frequency, and will give off for an instant a musical tone of the frequency 1,000 per second, which corresponds to the musical second C above middle C on the normal scale. This short tone signifies to the receiver the transmission of a Morse dot, as a longer tone (produced by a longer group of wave trains) would mean a dash, and it is by the various combinations of these dots and dashes in monotone that any written message may be spelled out by telegraph.

But in wire telephony conditions are somewhat different. In the first place it is not required to signal mere time intervals, but the human voice, with its multitudes of inflections and the variations, must be carried to the receiving station and there reproduced with fidelity. In the second place, the current which carries the voice vibrations must not in itself have any fluctuations

unless these occur so rapidly that they will produce no marked effect on the receiving telephone. Otherwise a listener would hear a continual loud noise or tone which would sadly interfere with the transmission of articulate speech. Thus, for wire telephony, a steady flow of direct current has been adopted almost universally as the voice-carrying medium, and speech-wave vibrations are superimposed upon this direct current and reproduced as sound waves by the receiving telephone. Nevertheless, it has been demonstrated that easily understood speech can be transmitted by the use of pulsating or alternating current, so long as the variations are sufficiently rapid to produce of themselves only small effects at the receiver.

In wireless telephony the requirements are analogous. Direct current cannot be transmitted through the air or "ether" from sender to receiver, and so it became necessary to devise a method which would produce in the receiving telephone a steady or practically unvarying stream of direct current. When it is considered that in radio-telegraphy each train of waves creates finally a pulse of direct current, it is not hard to see that if the train of waves were sustained, or indefinitely lengthened, instead of being allowed to cease at the end of each spark, the resulting direct-current pulse would likewise be indefinitely lengthened into a steady flow of direct current. Or, alternatively, one might set up in the receiving telephone very rapid impulses (say at a frequency higher than 5,000 per second) by creating at the transmitter sparks which recur at a similarly high rate and each of which gives rise to a train of waves and a resulting pulse through the telephone. Impulses of such high frequency cannot produce strong individual effects in an ordinary telephone earpiece, and so by their use no interference with speech reproduction is made. Thus, it is evident that as soon as apparatus

remaining in operation continuously, converts them into current capable of operating a telephone. The development of this group of instruments, of which the essential element is the proportionally responsive "detector" was in itself a tremendous task involving a most radical departure from the typical receivers of early "wireless" telegraphy, and it was soon after its completion that the solution of radio-telephony was found.

Since spark transmitters were already well known in the art of wireless telegraphy, it is natural that the first work toward producing oscillations and waves for telephony was with apparatus designed to make groups of waves at very high frequencies. A photograph of one of the earliest interrupters, of a type which before 1901 was used by R. A. Feasenden in connection with high-voltage direct current, is shown herewith. The original instrument was intended to allow sparking at the rate of 10,000 per second, and with it communication was transmitted by placing in series with its aerial-wire circuit an ordinary carbon microphone telephone transmitter, which rapidly changed its electrical resistance when spoken into and so modified in accordance with voice vibrations the amount of current passing into the antenna. At the receiver the current passing through the telephone earpiece was forced to vary as the sending aerial current was altered, and articulate speech was thus reproduced. In spite of care in building the rotary interrupter spark gap, there were some small irregularities in its action which caused at the receiver such interfering sounds as are sometimes heard on a "loose wire." Continued work along these lines resulted in better interrupters, but the simultaneous development of the radio-frequency alternator or dynamo for the direct production of electromagnetic waves, provided a better instrument, and the interrupters were not much used for some years. Upon the adoption of the alternator it at once became possible to produce perfectly uniform streams of sustained waves. To appreciate this, it is necessary only to understand that the radiant waves of wireless signaling are set up by rapidly alternating electric current in a system of aerial wires or antennae, and that as the frequency of reversal or alternation of

currents grows greater and greater these streams of electromagnetic waves which they set up in electromagnetic space become shorter and more effectively alternating-current dynamo used for power and lighting ordinarily are made to produce from 15 to 60 or 120 periods or cycles of reversal of current in each second. Machines for special purposes are built to generate currents of 500 or 1,000 cycles, but still even these relatively high frequencies cannot create vigorous radiation. In 1902 and 1903 a 10,000 cycle alternator was built and used for speech transmission, which proved quite satisfactory though not entirely perfect. To secure better results it was necessary to use still higher frequencies, and therefore, in 1904, there was completed a dynamo giving current of 50,000 or more cycles which could be connected directly to an aerial circuit and which would cause to be sent out a steady stream of waves. These, when received and "rectified" by the detector, gave in the telephone at the listening station a steady flow of current which was ideal as a basis for wireless speech transmission. The available power was greater than that obtainable when the spark interrupter were used, and this permitted talking to greater

U. S. Patent 760,737; applied for May 26th, 1904; issued August 19th, 1904.

(Continued on page 284.)



Early Feasenden 50,000 cycle alternator, showing driving motor, counterweight and belted pulleys. The dynamo is in the center.

had been devised for setting up a long stream of sustained waves, or a uniform series of wave-trains at rates above 5,000 per second, one of the biggest obstacles in the path of radio-telephony had been overcome. The largest problem remaining was to find proper instruments for impressing the speech vibrations upon the emitted electromagnetic waves in such a way that their changes would affect the receiving telephone proportionally and so reproduce the vocal sounds. It will be noted that little has been said of the apparatus at the receiver, which collects the radiated waves and,

The Books of 1914

THE accompanying chart, compiled by Fred E. Woodward of Washington, D. C., showing the number and kind of books published in the United States during the year 1914, presents some interesting phases.

A glance at the chart shows a substantial pyramid of books or sections, each being marked with names and figures and representing the various divisions or classes into which, for convenience, the books of the year are divided.

The figures are taken from the *Publisher's Weekly*, and represent the actual number of books (by title) issued during the year. The grand total for the year 1914 was 12,010—just 220 less than the total for the year 1913. Of this number, 10,175 were actually new books, and 1,835 were new editions.

A further inspection of the *Publisher's Weekly* shows that American authors contributed 8,568 of this total, and foreign authors, mostly English, the remainder.

The extent to which we are further indebted to Europe is shown by 2,852 importations, the largest number, 330, being in the class known as Religion and Theology, followed by 240 in Fiction, 237 in Poetry and Drama; 223 in General Literature and Essay; The smallest number of importations was in classes known as Domestic Economy (15) and Law (16).

Perhaps the most remarkable growth is shown in the class known as Poetry and Drama—no less than 902 titles being recorded during the year. This class, as will be seen by referring to the chart, now occupies the fourth place, a change from the ninth place in 1913, and an increase of 223 in the year (from 679 to 902).

This growth records in a very forcible manner a decided movement toward poetic and dramatic ideals, which is more than local, and may be needed by those who read the signs of the times. Not only have our poets of today held their own, but new recruits have been found in the ranks of successful novelists, who, forsaking for a time the fields of romance, have clothed in dramatic form some of their most forcible expressions on the timely topics of the hour.

In the *Literary Digest* of March 1st, 1915, the writer called attention to the little appreciated fact that the proportion of Fiction to the total number of books published had been steadily declining since 1908, when the proportion was 161 per cent, to 1912, when it was only 9.2 per cent.

We have now to say that this *downward ratio still continues*, and the *astounding figures of 877 per cent* are correct for 1914 (1,060 out of 12,010).

This remarkable showing should be gratifying to all who think we publish too much Fiction, and that something more substantial than frivolous stories should engross our attention.

To understand fully how great a transformation has been wrought one has only to go back to the year 1901 to find that the ratio of Fiction to the whole number was 27.4 per cent (2,234 out of 8,141).

It is worthy of note that a large percentage of Fiction published in the United States was written by American authors (690 out of 1,060).

The remarkable growth of books classed as Sociology and Economics began in 1907, to which year 521 books were issued, an increase

of 195 over the previous year, and each succeeding year has seen an increase, until 1914, with 1,038 titles in this class, comes within 16 of winning the highest place and crowding out Fiction.

The marked interest shown by all classes of readers

46 (310 to 264 in 1913). Juvenile books, General Literature and Essays, Business, Domestic Economy, Music, and General Works are practically the same as last year, but the following show a loss. Science, a loss of 113 (677 to 700 in 1913); Applied Science, 102 (689 to 751 in 1913); Law, 185 (567 to 682 in 1913); Biography, 77 (694 to 681 in 1913); Medicine, 58 (542 to 600 in 1913).

In brief, out of practically the same number of books as in 1913, the year 1914 witnessed a decline in Fiction, Science, Law, Medicine, Biography and Education, and a gain in Poetry and Drama, Theology and Religion, Sociology and Economics, Philosophy and History while the remaining classes were changed but slightly from the previous year.

The notes on the margin of the charts are intended to call attention to some of the principal events or happenings both in the book world and in the world at large.

To a certain extent the events in the world are reflected in the books which we issue.

War Planes for Italy.

A large order for aeroplanes adapted for war purposes is said to have been recently placed with the Curtiss Aeroplane Company by the Italian government. These machines are to be of 100 horse-power, and are to be fitted with wheels for starting on land, and also with pontoons to enable them to be used at sea. They are to be capable of sustaining about 400 pounds, and are said to cost \$7,500 each. It is understood that a large number of these machines are under order, and the Curtiss Company has two representatives with the Italian naval aviation corps to see that the flyers are properly set up and prepared as they are delivered.

Building a Lighthouse on Shifting Sand

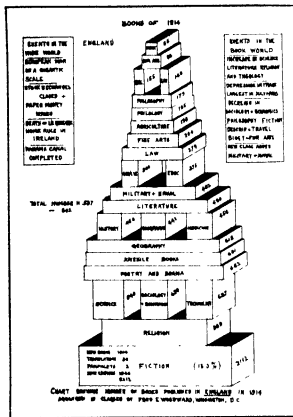
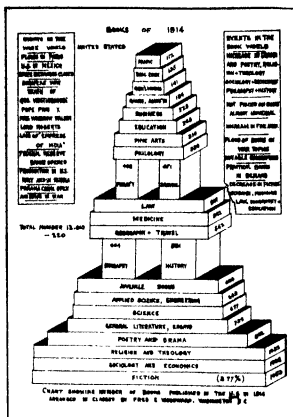
By H. J. Shepherson

TO the many notable conquests of the light house engineer, we have now to add his triumph in erecting towers upon banks of shifting sand. True, such structures can be counted on the fingers of one's hand but now that it has been shown that it is possible to place a permanent light upon a sandbank other beacons will no doubt follow. Hitherto on account of the extreme difficulties of the work and its high cost, the authorities have been content to mark such menaces to shipping with light-ships.

It was the Germans who first showed what could be done in this way by their success in erecting a cylindrical tower upon a shifting shoal near the mouth of the Weser River known as the Rothersand lighthouse. The water here, at low tide, is only some

25 feet deep not sufficient for the great liners. Briefly the plan followed consisted in staking a large caisson upon the site filling it with concrete and upon this more stable foundation erecting a stone tower. The first attempt proved a failure and was nothing but a string of accidents.

In the first place considerable difficulty was experienced in towing the caisson to the site and also in sinking it. During the night that followed its settling down upon the bank the workmen who were left upon it experienced an anxious time. Their novel home suddenly began to move and to heel

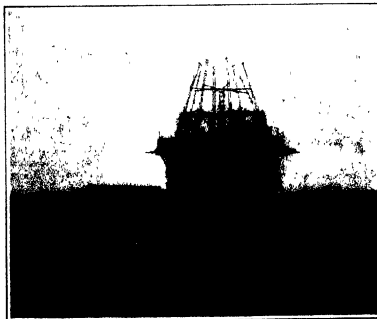


Number of books in various classifications published last year in this country and in England.

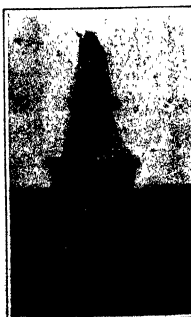
In this class of literature, well accounts for its constant increase.

Religion and Theology also has a new record with 1,032 titles, and comes within 21 of Fiction, showing a fairly steady increase each year since 1900.

Philosophy shows a good gain and makes a new record (408 to 324 in 1913), and Fine Arts shows a gain of



Building a Lighthouse in Malacca Straits on piles sixty-five feet long.



One-Fathom Bank Lighthouse in the Malacca Straits.



Lighthouse built on a sandy shoal in Delaware Bay.



Rothersand Lighthouse in the North Sea.

over to one side. The first grew more pronounced as the hours went by, so much so that the men could not keep their feet, and were forced to remain clinging to the elevated end of the structure. Every moment they expected the caisson to heel over and throw them into the sea. At dawn, however, they were rescued from this perilous position by one of the construction boats. After many weary months of work, when it began to look as if the efforts of the builders would be crowned with success, a terrible gale arose. The men were hastily got off to the mainland but when they looked across the ocean next morning they could see no sign of the caisson, which had disappeared beneath the waves.

The second attempt, however, proved successful though several times it looked as if the sea would again rob them of victory. This second caisson was certainly a mighty structure, measuring 60 feet by 25 feet, and towering over 60 feet high when launched. Its shell alone weighed 245 tons and with the various necessities added the weight was brought up to some 255 tons. It was taken out to the site in charge of five tugs, but a sudden thunderstorm coming on the air, the structure broke loose and was washed ashore. At last, however, after many vexatious delays, it was pulled and pushed, nudged and conveyed to the proper spot. Here it was sunk the water pumped out, and the men, descending into the lower chamber, removed the sand to allow its edge to sink deeper and deeper into the bank. At the end of twelve months the bottom of the caisson was buried 75 feet below low-water mark, and its weight increased to some 450 tons. Then, to prevent erosion, huge mattresses of brushwood were sunk around the base of the tower, laid down by boat loads of broken stone. For this protective work some over 175,000 cubic feet of brushwood and 900 tons of broken stone were reutilized. The tower rises no less than 75 feet above the top of the caisson, so there is as much below the surface as there is above.

Three years later the United States lighthouse engineers planned an iron tower on Fortson Point Bank over three miles from the shores of Delaware bay, 150 feet of water. As in the case of the Rotherham structure, a large caisson was built on shore, towed out to the site, and sunk. It proved a troublesome and weary piece of work, and a most anxious time for all concerned. The caisson refused to settle down properly on the shoal, tilting dangerously to one side, and it was only in the employment of heavy weights, and by virtually creating a bed for it that serious trouble was averted. When the huge tub had lighted itself concretely was poured into it forming a solid circular rock sunk into the sand, and as time and free from vibration as a granite core. Upon this foundation rises a circular iron tower, upon which is perched a house for the keepers, the whole being crowned by a lantern.

The engineer's latest conquest in crowding a dangerous shoal with a permanent light is the recently completed beacon known as the One-Fathom Bank light-house in the Straits of Malacca, in the East Indies, some sixteen miles off the coast. Until quite recently the waters here were guarded by a lightskip but the post then is very aptly exposed to the full fury of the gales that the vessel frequently dragged her anchors, so that the varying beacon became somewhat uncertain.

In this particular instance, however, the caisson was abandoned, and recourse was had to piles disposed in two concentric rings, the whole being well braced together. When it is stated that the piles go down into the sand till they touch solid rock at a depth of 28 feet, and have each a total length of some 45 feet. It will be seen that their transference to the site and the driving of them into the seabed was no mean feat.

The piles, which were made of steel and were hollow, were in fact floated to the scene of operations by barrels. Here the piles were raised and driven home, the final piles being driven in by means of a screw pile driver, a half ton, dropping from a height of four feet. As the piles disappeared into the seabed they were lengthened by the attachment of further sections. Into them concrete was then poured. These piles support a platform some twenty feet above the surface of the ocean upon which stand a few two-story dwelling where the keepers live and where the stores and oil are laid. Thirty feet above this hold aloft by eight columns, comes the lantern.

A New Engineering Medal

LEONARD C. MASON, who has just been elected President of the American Concrete Institute, has offered a new type of award annually by the Institute to the author of the best paper submitted to the Institute during the year. Competition is restricted to members, and the papers must be original in every respect and not previously published elsewhere. All papers submitted to the Institute for publication in the annual volume are eligible for the competition, but the board has the privilege of withholding the medal any year in which no papers of sufficient merit are presented.

Another Aviator Perishes

TO be obliged to record the death of another aviator, and especially one of the ability and character of Louis Bechet, is a matter of great regret, but can hardly be a surprise to those who have witnessed the sensational feats of this brilliant performer. Bechet was drowned at San Francisco on March 14th, when the wings of his monoplane collapsed as he was making one of his terrific vertical dives, and he sank in the waters of the bay strapped to the remains of his machine. His fatal drop was made from a height of about 200 feet at the Panama-Pacific Exposition, and after plunging for a great distance head down he attempted to straighten his machine out for his usual graceful landing when the wings of his new monoplane, a machine of his own design, and of excessively light proportions, crumpled up under the terrific strain, and turning over and over, he fell helplessly into the water.

He had performed this feat repeatedly with biplanes, and with his new monoplane, which was the fastest machine he had handled, he had a few minutes before the accident successfully looped the loop and made an upside-down flight. He was considered the most formidable rival of the Frenchman, Pegoud, as a stunt performer, and in this connection it may be noted that it is claimed that Bechet had the loops, spirals, and dives that made Pegoud famous all figured out long before the latter performer started the world with these feats, but his backers persistently refused to permit him to carry out his plans until Pegoud had proved them possible.

Bechet was one of the earliest all men, having performed for a number of years with little exhibition dirigibles having the well known cigar-shaped bag, but he did not take up the work with planes for several years after these new craft had become well known, but almost immediately assumed a leading position as one of the most skillful and daring aviators in the world. Bechet was only 31 at the time of his death, but his brilliant feats and modest, unassuming disposition had made him extremely popular with both the public and his fellow divers.

A Seven-ton Giant Reptile Seven Million Years Old

BETWEEN seven and ten million years ago, in what is known as the Jurassic Age, there lived a group of giant reptiles, called *Stegosaurs*, one feature of which, the *Stegosaurs*, or plated lizards, is perhaps the most fantastic and curious in all natural history. The most perfect and complete fossilized skeleton of the genus *Stegosaurs*, a smaller branch of this remarkable family group is on exhibition in the new building of the U. S. National Museum, at Washington, but as it was found and dug out of the sandstone rock. Now at hand is a natural size and very lifelike restoration in paper-mache, so vivid and monstrous in appearance as to give one the horrors.

Back in the very early days of the world this armored lizard-like monster dwelt in the western part of the United States in what is now the eastern slope of the Rocky mountains, and at the time the fossil remains did not exist. He roamed about in the marsh and swamp lands of that region, feeding on the tropical grasses and plants, the fossil remains of which are found buried with his skeleton. The specimen mentioned above comes from Quarry No. 1, in Fremont County, near Canyon City, Col., where it was found by Mr. M. P. Reich in 1885. Brief articles concerning it were written from time to time, but it was not assembled and mounted until two years ago, and never completely described until recently. With the exception of the removal of some of the sandstone which surrounds this valuable specimen, it has been left in the position in which it was discovered so that the relation of the bones to the surrounding sandstone and skin and scales to the skeleton. In order that the lower side of the skeleton and the back plates may be seen, two mirrors have been placed beneath it in such a manner as to reflect the exact structure and location of the various bones.

The mid-sternal position of the bones and the surrounding sandstone indicate that this monster died in a position on the back of a stream and from some natural cause. It is possible that the entire body lay down the stream, as the arrangement of the different bones and skin plates indicates a gradual washing and tipping over, rather than the crushing action of a heavy force. The skeleton is quite complete and lies partly on its side and back, with nearly all the bones in their relative positions, rendering it of infinite value to scientists for study and as a reference type.

In life this peculiar reptile of such gigantic proportions must have presented a forbidding appearance; it measured about nineteen feet in length, was evidently over eleven feet in height at the hips, and was covered with a very tough and horny scale-like skin, studded here and there with bony knobs or knobs of armor. Along its back were arranged great shielded plates, each alternately and projecting upward like the teeth of a

huge saw. This odd armor-plate extended from the small wedge-shaped reptilian head all the way back and well down the tapering lizard-like tail, which was tipped with four long, sharp spines. Its legs were not unlike those of a lizard or other reptile, except that the fore legs were rather short and much weaker than the hind ones, an indication that the great animal could sit up like a kangaroo, and perhaps descended from a bipedal ancestor. From a study of its teeth it has been determined that this prehistoric beast was a plant eater, as is suggested by its habitat. Further investigation of its head, which is so small as to be quite out of proportion to its massive body, reveals the fact that it had scarcely any brain. Although the body of the *Stegosaur* is supposed to have weighed more than that of an elephant, the brain of the latter is fifty times as heavy, which fact offers an excuse for the immense amount of defensive armor with which it was equipped, making it practically impenetrable as far as its enemies were concerned, provided it had any. Its bones alone weigh nearly a ton, and it has been estimated that in life the *Stegosaur* weighed at least between six and ten tons.

A very complete scientific treatise on this interesting group of extinct giant reptiles by Mr. Charles W. Gilmore, assistant curator of fossil reptiles, has just been published by the U. S. National Museum in the form of a bulletin, the edition of which has been distributed to libraries and to scientific and educational institutions.

New Gasoline Engine Drive

TO carry out gasoline engine drive upon various machines which are subject to irregular working, that is, giving rise to shocks at full load and full speed, a belt drive was preferred to couple the motor, for instance, to a thrasher. When a break shock occurs, the belt can slip on the pulley and prevent the motor from doing harm to the mechanism and breakage of parts. Realizing the great advantage which would be gained by a direct coupling of motor to thrasher and mounting the motor on the same, instead of spending time to set up motor and thrasher separately and line up pulleys and belting, a special patented motor combination due to Allart and Savaris is made by the Paris Rebon works. While the use of belt drive can be retained in permanent plants, it will be seen that the direct drive is a great improvement in portable machines. The problem of direct coupling on the class of machine we referred to above has been successfully solved by the inventors. A flat circular belt contains a differential mechanism, with means for sliding on to the end of the machine shaft in place of the usual pulley, such belt being then bolted on the side of the thrasher, and a short universal joint rod connects the differential to the gasoline motor, which is also mounted against the side of the machine. The motor drives the set of satellite gears. One of the principal gears drives the machine shaft, and on the second large gear is a brake shoe. Brake is set by lever to make its effect equal to what is needed to run the machine (or somewhat higher), but the brake action is adjusted to be less than the maximum of the motor. Normally the motor runs the machine only, for the brake part has the higher effect and is hence idle. But in case of sudden resistance given by the machine, the other side comes into play, that is, the brake wheel is now driven instead of the machine. Such device, while keeping always in gear, runs with constant speed of the motor, or in other words constant power, this being a great advantage.

The Current Supplement

THE discoveries of the last few years have shown that an atom is quite a world in itself, and as the properties of atoms are of importance in so many branches of science, the article on Recent Evidence for the Existence of the Nucleus Atom, in the current issue of the *Scientific American Supplement*, No. 2047, for March 27th, 1915, will be read with more than usual interest. Watching the Earth Revolve describes a simple instrument that enables us to directly observe and measure the revolution of the earth. The Economics of Home Lighting surveys the various systems of lighting, and makes comparisons of cost of direct value to every household. The Science of the Tariff, No. 2047, for March 27th, 1915, will be read with more than usual interest. Watching the Earth Revolve describes a simple instrument that enables us to directly observe and measure the revolution of the earth. 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Correspondence

The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.

California's Horse-power Formula

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

I desire to call your attention to a misprint in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, issue of JANUARY 30th, page 95, formula 2, under the caption "California Has a New Horse-power Formula".

The formula should read,
 $HP = 0.224 ND (D + L)$

with the same notation as published
 San Francisco, Cal J. P. ZEFF

Light from Film-pack Paper

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

Referring to the letter "Light from Electricians' Tubes," I may interest your correspondents to know that this light also appears in stripping the black paper from film-pack film preparatory to development. In this case, of course, one's eyes are accustomed to the pitch blackness of the dark room, and so the slightest glim would be discernible, but I think the light is fully as intense as that given off by the adhesive tape.
 New York city A. E. L.

A Projectile for Destroying Dirigibles

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

I note in your issue of December 5th, 1914, a projectile useful in the destruction of dirigibles, also in your number of February 13th, in which you show cuts of a projectile which penetrates the balloon fabric and at the same time explodes. I wish to say that several years ago I submitted to the United States Navy at Washington, D. C., drawings and specifications of an incendiary projectile useful in the destruction of dirigibles. The same on piercing the fabric would open knife blades and cut their way through the fabric. The opening of the knife blades causes certain fulminants to ignite or explode the gases in the bag containing therein.
 Trenton, N. J. G. GUY MILLER

How the Late Charles M. Hall Became Interested in Aluminum

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

I notice that in a recent issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN you make mention of the death of Charles M. Hall, of aluminum fame.
 You might be interested to know that it was the reading of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN that first interested Mr. Hall in a method of extracting aluminum from the clay earth.

I distinctly remember being at his father's house in the fall of the year 1880, when he was about sixteen years of age. One Sunday afternoon, in taking a walk with him, he explained to me that there was a valuable metal contained in the clay which abounds in northern Ohio, with many of the qualities of copper, and that if a cheap method of extracting the same could be found the metal would be of very great use in the arts. Although he was a little older than myself, I expressed my incredulity, but he assured me that he had read about the matter in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN and it could be depended upon.

I think there is no question but that beginning from his personal of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN when he was a mere boy, he never gave up his determination to find a method for the production of aluminum until he, while still a very young man, succeeded in his purpose.
 Manchester, Iowa E. H. STILES

Ventilating the New Subways

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

I have given considerable attention to the subways as to the easiest and best method of ventilating them and make the air as pure as we breathe in the streets, since the first tube was built to the present tubes in course of construction in the city of New York.

Take the Seventh Avenue and Broadway tubes, where improvements in ventilating could be easily installed at a small expense over the original cost.
 The openings into the tubes for entrances and exits will probably be similar to the other tubes, each about from 4 feet wide to 8 feet high, through which the air will pour in, and in order to give perfect vent to the tubes, use pipes 2 and 4 feet in diameter 15 feet high from the ground, with a goose-neck top; place near the gutter on the sidewalk or against the house, and run pipes of the same dimensions from the side of the tube and connect with the pipes above the sidewalk, and in each opening into the tube for the pipes a fan should be installed, to cause a circulation. Stations five blocks

apart, with two openings for exits and two openings for entrances on one side of the avenue or street, and the same number on the other side, making eight openings in all, each 4 by 8 feet, on each side of the tube on the street between stations, there should be eighteen goose-neck pipes, 2 by 4 feet in width, and you will have a subway free from all bad odors, the smoke from fires and oppressive heat, and the air in the tubes will be as pure as we breathe in the street. Fans must be used to cause a suction in the pipes, without fans the wind will blow down.

If the pipes are 15 feet high above the walk, the tops would not be tampered with, and no rubbish could be thrown within. Goose-neck tops prevent down draughts to a considerable degree.

The above plans would not suffice where sidewalk ventilators are installed. There would have to be more pipes used unless the gratings were covered.
 New York city J. WESLEY SMITH

Sir Hiram Maxim on the Maxim Gun in War

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

I am sending you included a newspaper cutting and also a note that was handed to me by Mr. D. George Collins, a very important business man, who has great influence in political matters. Like myself he is a Cavalier of the Legion of Honor.

On Sunday last a soldier from the front called at my residence. He had been wounded and had returned home. He said he wished to see the inventor of the Maxim gun before he returned to the front. He told us that on the Kaiser's birthday the Germans charged in solid formation, their object being to rush the English trenches and beyond the defenders. The first 15th had three Maxim guns concealed and ready for them, and when they suddenly opened fire the stream of bullets cut regular canals through the Germans and that very few of them escaped. He said from his own experience at the front he believed that more than one half of the casualties of the present war were due to the Maxim gun. He said that if they had not had the Maxim guns they would have stood no chance whatsoever against the enormous German forces that were sent against them. The Maxim gun, without question, had saved the situation. He asked permission to shake hands with me.
 HIRAM S. MAXIM

West Norwood, London, S. E.

P. S.—An English officer has said that the Maxim gun lends itself much more to the defense than to the attack.
 H. S. M.

[The following is the cutting sent by Sir Hiram Maxim: "In Paris last week I met an officer who stated that in one of the big engagements the English had fifty Maxim guns. They were masked by lines of British infantry. The Germans attacked in waves and as they came within short range the British soldiers opened out, fell back and the Maxim guns in three minutes left dead 5,000 of the Germans. The Germans did not expect the guns to be concealed behind the ranks of soldiers."—D. George Collins, February 30th, 1915.]

Acoustics of Auditoriums

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

"Acoustics of Auditoriums," by F. R. Watson, in SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, No. 2831, was interesting to me, from the fact that in 1880 I had the privilege of hearing a Mormon elder in the Tabernacle at Salt Lake where, as is well known, a pin dropped at the pulpit can be heard in the extreme rear. On my way to Philadelphia it occurred to me that few buildings possessed those acoustic properties. Not being scientifically educated I must tell you in common language what I reasoned out in 1880. Then a young man, which may help some builder.

The ideal building for the easy flow of sound waves is hemispherical, and it also is equally valuable to the return or echo waves. Curtains and wall ornaments retard the return of echo waves, but they also prevent the easy flow of the original waves from the stage. So that walls free of draperies are never the ideal. To produce an echo in a hall or auditorium the sound waves first reach the extreme rear and returning mix with other their own waves traveling slowly or with new sound waves, which are stronger, forcing them to the sides of the building. I concluded then that the nearest approach to the perfect auditorium would be a hemispherical without draperies on walls and standing on stage looking toward audience, all lines would be streamlined, or as I said in 1880, lines of beauty, and standing at rear, looking toward stage, all lines would be irregular, also at rear, equidistant along both sides would be a recess or alcove. Looking from the stage no break in the walls or ceiling would be noticeable. The sound would travel unobstructed, looking from the rear the walls and ceiling would resemble somewhat the gills of a fish, which would prevent to a great extent echo waves. A building so constructed would, I think, make it difficult for the original sound waves to reach the stage from the rear, if the orator stood at the rear and tried to make his words reach the stage. A build-

ing constructed on those lines would also open up a new world for the artist architect.

A smooth rear wall helps the echo waves. The alcove or recess I mention would be in center rear wall as a 'sound catchers.' When the sound waves reach the rear wall they have performed their duty and should die there.

Jack Wade, Alaska

T. E. PHILLIPS

Musical Pitch to the Eleventh Decimal

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

In your December 26th, 1914, issue is a commendation from Mr. L. H. Hawley giving the vibration numbers of the notes of the equally tempered musical scale. This is based on international a with 435 vibrations per second. The long strings of figures after the decimal points look so important that it seems in order to call attention to the futility of such calculations and the fact that they have no significance musically. Let us consider the c^1 . 517.3505506092 . If this c^1 is sounded with the a 435 an imperfect minor third results, since the perfectly harmonious minor third should make 522 vibrations per second ($435 \times \frac{4}{3} = 580$). In other words this equally tempered minor third is sufficiently flat to produce nearly two flats in a second. If the table gave the vibration number of c^2 as 517.3505506092 (that figure three instead of two) this c^2 would be a higher pitch than the c^1 figured by Mr. Hawley and would make one vibration more in one hundred billion seconds. As there are only 86,400 seconds in a day the two c^2 's, if sounded continually together would require well over 3,000 years for each beat. It is hard to see how figures in this class can properly apply to any musical problems, practical or theoretical.

It would appear also that the vibration numbers given for the sheet disk of the "optophone" are merely given from the extended table already discussed with credit regard for the established practice when displaying decimal figures. As the optophone will have a certain whole number of holes in each circle, the vibration numbers cannot be made to correspond so closely to the figures of the equally tempered musical scale.

Shenandoah, Va.

JOHN B. TAYLOR

How to Make Carbon Positives

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

The following method of making positives on glass is an adaptation of the well-known gum bichromate process. Briefly, it consists of making gum bichromate prints on ground glass, then varnishing the latter to give the required transparency.

Coating.—Cut with the following:
 (A) Gum Potassium bichromate, extracted and $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce
 (B) Gum mastic (sifted) $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce
 (C) Lampblack (or equivalent) 10 grains

R is prepared by suspending 2 ounces of clear gum contained in a muslin sack in six ounces of distilled water. Allow to stand for at least twenty-four hours. Mix A and B. Put the lampblack on a clean ground glass and add a little of the gum solution of C until with a glass stick to a uniform consistency. After grinding carefully and thoroughly mix this with the remainder of the solution.

Coat the ground glass surface of the plates with a camel's hair brush, using just enough of the solution in each instance to give a uniform dull gray tint when viewed by transmitted light. A second soft brush should be used to even the coating as much as possible, so as to obliterate brush marks which would show in the finished print. The coated plate must not be exposed in mix part. The plate should be dried in the dark, which takes only a few minutes to accomplish. The writer uses a small lake oven placed near a stove as a drying oven.

Exposure.—An average negative will require from three to five minutes in bright sunlight.

Development.—Soak in cold water for several minutes, then gradually raise the temperature of the water until development begins. The exposure should be so timed that development proceeds automatically, as any mechanical assistance other than moving the plate gently through the water will destroy the finer details. Because of the right glass backing the image is only destroyed by even a slight touch of a soft brush. Hence soak the plate face down, for several hours if need be, until finished.

When the development is completed dry and varnish with a quick drying pale oil varnish. Pour a pool of varnish on the center of the plate, allow it to flow over the entire surface, drain, and dry face up in a place protected from dust. Mount in cardboard frames with press-proof binding.

Some causes of failure.—Brush marks are due to uneven coating. Loss of detail, or damaged image, may be due to rough handling in development. Too thick a coating of gum pigment results in the film's peeling off in development.

Department of Chemistry, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa

The Superheated Steam Unit

Some Remarkably Economical German Engines

By Warren H. Miller, M. E.

THERE are three advantages inherent in the use of superheated steam, first, the fundamental law of thermodynamics, which states that the greatest efficiency follows when the given medium is used at the highest possible temperature and rejected at the lowest; second, the fact that superheated steam does not readily condense on cold cylinder walls, thus reducing the heavy losses that follow from cylinder condensation; finally, superheated steam occupies a greater volume per pound than saturated steam—at 300 deg. Cent. superheat is 128 times the volume of the same steam saturated—so that a pound of it will do more work than a pound of saturated steam.

Its practical disadvantages when used in an ordinary steam plant are so many that little progress in its use has been made in the United States. The ratio of heat interchange between chimney flue gases and the superheated steam inside the superheater is so small as to make a clean, non-sooted metal surface an essential (Gutermuth, *Lehrbuch der Hochdruck Lokomotiven*, 1910). In lokomobile practice the superheater is blown clear of soot every twelve hours with an special revolving steam jet for the purpose.

Again, a sufficiently high superheat to eliminate cylinder condensation is only reached around 570 deg. Fahr. and this comprises reheating of the high-pressure exhaust before admitting to the low-pressure cylinder in order to eliminate the cylinder condensation there. The valve gear and lubrication facilities of an ordinary steam engine will not do well at such high temperatures, and to carry superheated steam long distances from boiler to engine room, back to reheater and return to low-pressure cylinder of an engine at temperatures of 570 degrees and 450 degrees, respectively, is out of the question with ordinary commercial steam pipe packing.

Third, a tubular boiler designed to evaporate a maximum of saturated steam is in no way suited to be used with a superheater. Its tubes are of such a length as to deliver the flue gases to the uptake at about 410 deg. Fahr., while what is wanted for efficient superheating is around 800 to 900 degrees. With water-tube boilers this disadvantage does not hold, since the superheater can be located with more freedom.

These disadvantages of the ordinary steam plant led to the development in Europe of the superheated steam unit or "lokomobile," described by the writer in the columns of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, March 9, 1912, p. 215. During the last fifteen years over 60,000 of them have been built, aggregating four million horse-power. In general principles they are all founded on the idea of compactly assembling everything needed to make and use superheated steam in one unit. The engine is mounted on the boiler, even in 1,000 horse-power units, the fire tubes are short and the remainder of the smoke box is occupied by one or more superheaters. The boiler is internally fired, with corrugated furnace, there is no radiation and no long line of piping from boiler to engine.

Owing to the successful utilization of highly superheated steam, these units develop remarkable economies, averaging less than 15 pounds of coal and 10 pounds of steam per brake horse-power in all sizes from 40 horse-power to 1,000 horse-power, and not losing this notable economy appreciably at either underloads or overloads.

This astonishing statement has been proved beyond question by hundreds of tests made during the last ten years by such eminent European authorities as Prof. Josse of Berlin, Gutermuth of Darmstadt, Mathot of Brussels, Bursell of London, and Schroeter of Munich. I give below summaries of ten of the more important lokomobile tests made upon various sizes of Wolf lokomobiles.

A description of the various superheated steam units that figured in the above tests may prove interesting, for they cover the whole range of lokomobile practice from the earlier types of 1900 to the latest construction, uniform cylinder engine 500 to 800 horse-power line recently put on the market by the R. Wolf Company of Magdeburg, Germany.

Beginning with Test 1, Wolf, 180 horse-power, tested by Gutermuth in 1901, the following description will give a fair idea of the general construction. The boiler is of the horizontal tubular type, with removable tubes and corrugated shell furnace, permitting easy and thorough cleaning. Owing to the very low fuel and water consumption of the lokomobile it is feasible to use a compact internally fired boiler, for even in the 250 horse-power size the grate is only about 4 feet 6 inches by 3 feet 6 inches in area. The tubes are much shorter than those of a saturated steam boiler. Not only have they much less steam to evaporate to produce a horse-power, but they must deliver the flue gases to the superheater at a high temperature, 700 to 900 deg. Fahr. In front of the tube sheet is the superheater coil, bearing a ratio to the boiler heating surface of about 250 to 75. In front of this is a revolvable steam jet pipe, used daily for the purpose of blowing off the soot and ash, an essential feature in order to get real efficiency from the superheater.

On the rear end of the boiler is a cast iron shell, containing high and low pressure cylinders. This shell is riveted to the boiler and is not only the steam dome, but also a live steam jacket for both cylinders. At the forward end of the boiler is riveted the steam saddle, and since the engine strokes pass through the boiler shell, the alignment and adjustment of valve laps and center distances are made under full steam pressure and working temperature.

The steam from the boiler is led inside the shell to the front and passes through it by a double lock nut joint to the superheater. The steam is at about 180 pounds boiler pressure (11 atmospheres) and the superheater gives it a temperature around 570 degrees, whence it passes direct to the engine by a short, heavily insulated pipe. The expansion is divided between the two cylinders so as to allow the steam to enter the low pressure cylinder with as much superheat left as possible, so as to eliminate cylinder condensation in that cylinder also. Lokomobiles of this type are good for 10 to 11 pounds of steam per brake horse-power hour.

The next advance in the lokomobile was to turn the engine around and mount the cylinders tandem, as in Figs. 1, 2, and 3, placing the low-pressure cylinder in front, before the steam dome jacket with the high-pressure behind it in a casting, forming part of the chimney uptake. Turning the engine around also made the steam piping problem easy, so that a second superheater was introduced between the high and low-pressure cylinders, for it was found out that cylinder condensation would occur in the low unless excessive superheats were carried. This second superheater was made multiple coil, as it had to handle large volumes of steam at low pressures. It takes the steam from the high-pressure cylinder at about 280 deg. Fahr. and reheats it to 380 degrees, the flue gases entering the chimney at about 430 degrees after passing through this superheater and passing around the walls of the high-pressure cylinder. This type of engine is made in sizes from 40 to 80 horse-power and the 40 horse-power size as tested by Prof. Josse in 1904 gave a steam economy of 10.9 pounds per brake horse-power hour.

This was surpassed by the later type shown in Fig. 4. In this lokomobile the steam-dome jacket feature has been discarded entirely, and both cylinders

are mounted tandem in a hood over the smoke box; the main chimney uptake leading out of this hood. Otherwise all the general features of the previous type have been retained. It is made in sizes from 120 horse-power to 650 horse-power, and at present holds, so far as I am aware, the world's record of steam and coal economy at 7.05 pounds of steam and 0.79 pound of coal per brake horse-hour. This was obtained only, however, by the excessive superheat of 808 deg. Fahr., though neither engine nor lubricating oil showed any distress at that temperature. As the reader will note by Test 4, the ordinary economy of this type at 620 degrees superheat is between 8 and 9 pounds.

Test No. 5 is of an interesting lokomobile, Fig. 5, a representative of the 300 to 800 horse-power line, cross-compound, double superheat. It was the 650 horse-power engine of this type which, running in parallel with a 1,000 horse-power Laus lokomobile, furnished a large part of the electric light and power used in the Brussels Exposition of 1910. It probably represents the limit both in size and economy of the steam dome-jacketed piston-valve engine. The double superheat feature appears also in this lokomobile, and as tested by the Exposition judges it gave 8.70 pounds of coal and 1.02 pounds of steam per brake horse-hour on a superheat of 640 deg. Fahr.

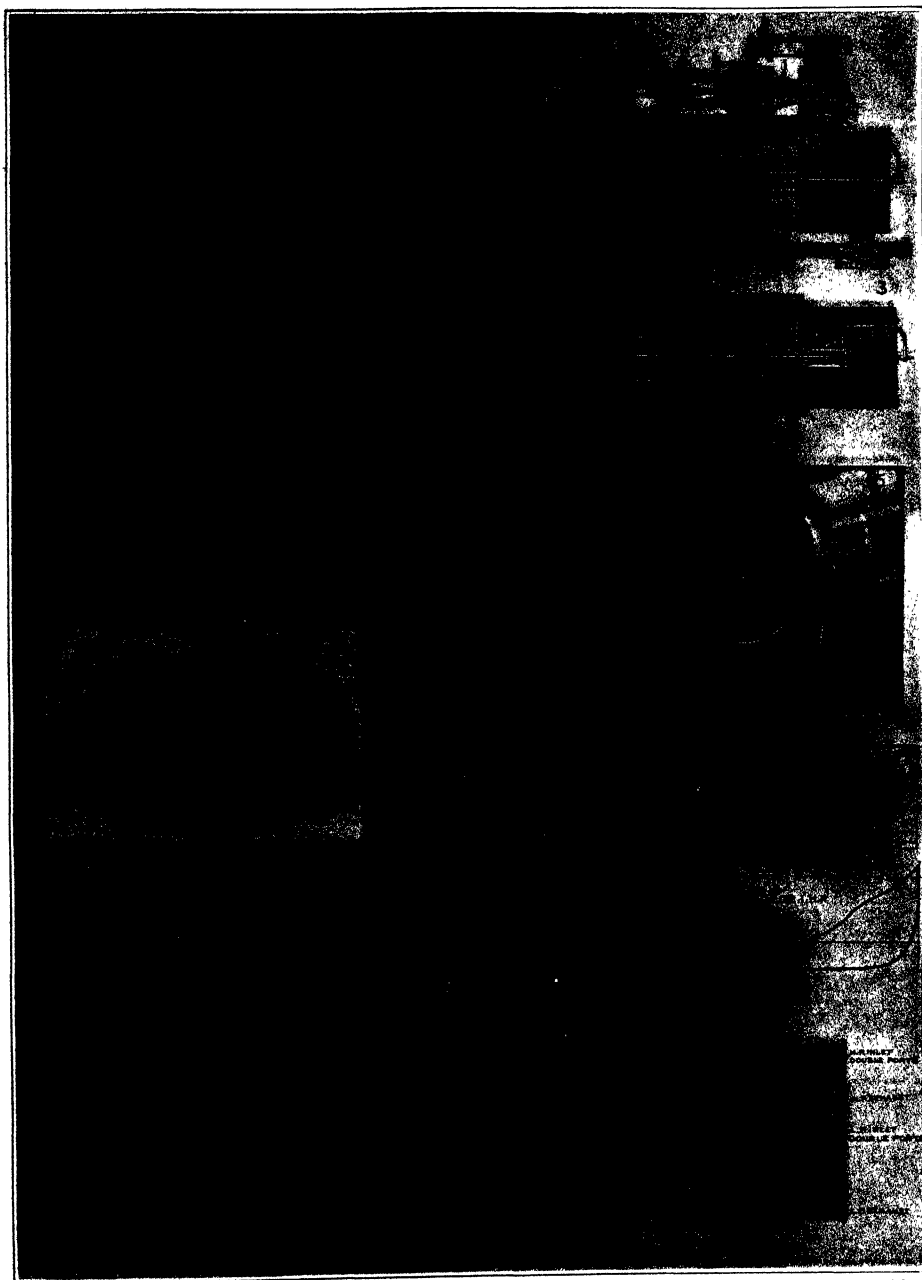
During the last two years the Wolf Company has developed what may be termed the latest advance in the lokomobile—the application of the uniflow cylinder principle to these superheated steam units. The test results, as obtained by Prof. Doerfler of Prague, are given in No. 6. Not that an economy of 4.9 pounds of steam was obtained on a superheat of 644 deg. Fahr., a remarkably low consumption with superheat well within the limits of practical operation. It may seem like double use to employ both superheated steam and the uniflow cylinder principle to eliminate cylinder condensation, but whatever is good for saturated steam is as good for superheated, therefore the uniflow type. Briefly described, the steam passes into the cylinder by the inlet port, produces the stroke in expanding, and then escapes by a central outlet port uncovered by the piston at the end of the stroke. There is thus no exhaust stroke with its cooling effect on the cylinder walls. In fact, the passage of the steam in one direction only produces a set of annular differential temperature areas on the cylinder walls corresponding closely to the varying temperatures of expansion, so that the tendency toward cylinder condensation is very small. Further, it has been found that the use of constricted cylinder ports alternately by hot live steam and cold exhaust steam at every stroke introduces a lot of condensation before the steam ever gets into the cylinder at all, and this loss the uniflow arrangement eliminates entirely. (Engine and cards shown in Figs. 7 and 8.)

To work this unit in practice the Wolf Company engineers had to devise a cross-compound uniflow cylinder engine. This was done by making the pistons of both cylinders relatively long in proportion to the stroke and putting in piston valves to control admission to high and low-pressure cylinders. The exhaust ports of the high-pressure cylinder are on the opposite side from the inlet ports and are located somewhat further inward toward the center of the cylinder instead, as shown in the diagram. These ports are uncovered by the piston toward the end of the expansion stroke and the steam thus escapes to the low-pressure receiver. It is admitted to the low-pressure cylinder and then prevented from "backing up" into the high-pressure by the low-pressure piston valve during the succeeding stroke. Part of it is trapped in the high-pressure cylinder and serves as a cushion during the return, but a real exhaust stroke, such as has been tolerated in ordinary

(Continued on page 292.)

No.	Date	Manufacturer	Horse-power	Coal (pounds)	Steam (pounds)	Superheat (deg. Fahr.)	By Whom Made	Type of Lokomobile
1	1901	Wolf	180	15.5 per B.H.P. hour	11.2 per B.H.P. hour	570	Prof. Gutermuth, Darmstadt	Cross compound, single superheat
2	1904	Wolf	432	13.2 per B.H.P. hour	10.9 per B.H.P. hour	590	Prof. Josse, Berlin	Tandem compound, double superheat
3	1910	Wolf	138	0.780 per B.H.P. hour	7.05 per B.H.P. hour	806	Magdeburg Boiler Association	Tandem compound, double superheat, chimney cylinder jacketing
4	1910	Wolf	105	1.04 per B.H.P. hour	8.60 per B.H.P. hour	626	Prof. Gutermuth, Darmstadt	Tandem compound, double superheat, chimney cylinder jacketing
5	1910	Wolf	520	1.02 per B.H.P. hour	8.70 per B.H.P. hour	640	Brussels Exposition, Test Committee	Cross compound, double superheat, steam cylinder jacketing
6	1912	Wolf	300	—	8.9 per B.H.P. hour	644	Prof. Doerfler, Prague	Cross compound, uniflow cylinder, single superheat
7	1913	Buckley, Engine Co.	160	1.08 per B.H.P. hour	9.2 per B.H.P. hour	588	Gao Cooper, Buckley Eng. Co. Balcon, O.	Tandem compound, double superheat, chimney cylinder jacketing
8	1909	Laus	120	0.805 per B.H.P. hour	7.41 per B.H.P. hour	—	Prof. Grossmann, Karlsruhe	Cross compound, "valve" valve gear
9	1908	Taus	240	1.1 per B.H.P. hour	9.74 per B.H.P. hour	580	Prof. Röhrlitz, Munich	Cross compound, "valve" valve gear
10	1910	Laus	110	0.8 per B.H.P. hour	9.84 per B.H.P. hour	676	Brussels Exposition, Test Committee	Cross compound, "valve" valve gear

* World's record.



1. Forty horse-power tandem compound Wolf "lokomobile" or superheated steam unit with double superheat and high-pressure cylinder jacketed in the chimney uptake. 2 and 3. Sectional elevation and plan of same. 4. World's record Wolf lokomobile, 150 horse-power 0.75 pound of coal per brake horse-power-hour consumption. Double superheat and both cylinders jacketed in smoke hood. 5. Cross compound 600 horse-power Wolf lokomobile at Brussels Exposition. Double superheat and both cylinders jacketed in the steam dome. 6. "The Buckeye-lokomobile" or first American superheated steam unit, virtually a copy of No. 4. 7. The Wolf uniflow cylinder compound condensing lokomobile, the latest advance in superheated steam units, 800 to 900 horse-power. 8. High-pressure and low-pressure cylinder card from No. 7. 9. The first American superheated steam unit with Alden dynamometer. 10. Diagram showing course of steam through the Wolf uniflow high and low-pressure cylinders.

The superheated steam unit.

An Aerial Monorail

Mähl System for High Speed Suspended Electrical Trains

AN outline of a new system of high speed monorail trains moved by electricity was one of the interesting features recently discussed in Paris, as the constant desire for greater speed in trains has been uppermost in the minds of railway engineers for a long time. It seems evident that the limit by existing methods has practically been reached, and if the speeds of today are to be surpassed methods based on different principles must be adopted. One hundred and twenty miles an hour has already been attained in experiments with electric traction (Zossen in 1902) but this rail is clearly incompatible with two tracks resting on the earth and following ordinary railway construction. On curves especially great strains are developed which even with present speeds, result in breaks and derailments, and with higher speeds these would be more probable, and the resulting accidents more disastrous even than those of today.

It is much more philosophical to seek the development of high speeds through the elevated monorail mounted on pillars for here high speed is really possible with light articulated cars suspended from flexible running gear, the many wheels of which would serve to distribute the weight along the rail. The applications of such a principle are by no means confined to places where speed is the desideratum. Such railways are already used for mines and quarries, for factories and for rope railways carrying passengers, as at Chamunty and other places in Switzerland, and are not without value for regular traffic, as for example the Harz and Elberfeld road in Blomberg, Prussia, the eight miles of which have been in operation since 1901.

It is a road of this kind that is suggested by Mähl, an engineer of Paris who is well known for his studies in the transmission of power, who has just submitted to the Minister of Public Works detailed plans for trains with speeds up to one hundred and eighty miles an hour. In the Mähl system, the track, whether single or double, is from twenty to twenty-five feet above the ground, with towers or pylons, and the familiar suspension-bulldog catenary cables between them. The conveyances are to be long light articulated cars, the joints affording them the ability to conform to the curves in the line. There will be no grade crossings nor tunnels, and the difficulties that are inherent in present roaded construction and current systems of running will be avoided.

The plans consider curves of a minimum radius of six tenths of a mile and grades up to five per cent. The pylons are square at the base and of dimensions varying according to the needs. The longitudinal vertical section of this is triangular, the average height to the top being about fifty feet, and the transverse vertical section is hour glass-shaped, the upper portion serving to hold and spread the cables and furnish vertical support from above to the rails, while the curve hangs in the neck of the hour glass, or the angle formed by the upper and lower sections of the tower.

The towers must be well anchored on hard pan or rock, without depending on surface stability, and it will be possible to use rocky gorges without much consideration of surface levels, even the beds of streams will furnish the route for such a railway. The distribution of the towers may be varied to suit conditions, but with an average distance between them of about one hundred and fifty to two hundred feet. The sag of the cables is about twenty-five feet, and the rails will be supported by them at such a height that the cars extending ten feet below them will leave fifteen or twenty feet in the clear.

The cars will be composed of tractor elements and necessary and vehicle elements. The former will include the motors which are independent and tandem on the rail, at intervals of a little more than a yard. The cars are about one hundred and fifty feet long

and one meter wide, generally rectangular in shape with the inner lower corner rounded, and fitted with but one row of seats, back to the inner wall. The cars will have some lateral play, swinging out of the perpendicular in one direction or the other on rounding curves. The articulation is a minor feature designed to adapt the cars more closely to the curves, but there is only about a quarter of an inch play at each joint, an amount that will not be perceptible to the passengers.

The track will be divided into sections of five kilometers each (3 miles) and a train will always have automatically two dead sections behind it forming a perfect block system and avoiding collisions. On entering a section the train automatically cuts off the current from the section just quitted, and turns it on to the third section in the rear. The intermediate sections will be left in its currentless condition. There are thus always live sections ahead for the train with clear track, but lack of current and automatic braking if there is a train within three sections. The projector asserts that it will be safe to run under such conditions with only a two minute headway.

Switching is to be done by means of moving sections of rail that will take a car and provision is made for removing obstructions on the rail or snow by means of

as in some lath or automobile processes, there is a constantly flowing stream of oil. The mechanism will have at hand the means of increasing the flow at the bearing which sends warning and thus bridge the difficulty.

In addition to the cars expended on a smooth and continuous rail the provision of shock absorbers is suggested, and springs are provided to reduce to a minimum the swing from centrifugal force, which will be merely a sway of small amplitude even at high speeds. The brakes are springs released by electro-magnetic action, and once applied they cannot be released until the train has been brought to a stop.

As to the cost, the French estimate, which can hardly apply to this country, is twenty thousand dollars for a car fifty meters in length weighing fifty-five tons with a carrying capacity of two hundred. With the passengers the weight on the rail will therefore be not far from a ton and one-half to a meter. For such weights, and to sustain the other strains the cost of construction of the way, including electrical installation, according to the estimate, is between eighty and ninety thousand dollars a mile. This does not include, however, the power house and its sources of energy.

Some of the computations of strains and other items may be of interest. For the catenary suspension of such a railway as has been discussed four cables of a diameter of 50 millimeters each (2 inches) will be ample. The centrifugal effect, with two trains on the tracks, referred to the base of the towers is figured at 8 kilograms per square millimeter, while it is 6 kilograms on the rails themselves. So far as wind pressure on the cables and structure is concerned, the amount is figured to be only about one third of that of the centrifugal force under usual conditions of weather, while that on the train is perhaps double the value of the centrifugal force, these strains being well within the strength of usual constructions. The resistance of the air rises very rapidly with the speed, being 1,230 foot pounds for 75 kilometers an hour, 10,000 for 150 kilometers, and 80,000 foot pounds for 300 kilometers. The energy required for running on a level rises rapidly with the speed, being for level stretches 29 kilowatts and 223 kilowatts, respectively, for the three speeds. On grades of 50 millimeters to the meter the corresponding kilowatt figures are 745, 1,500, and 5,080.

The Detoxication of Coffee

PERSONS with a sensitive stomach are affected not so much by caffeine as by the products formed in roasting the coffee. The effects in such cases are not nervous, but digestive, and they may be so pronounced that the person affected cannot drink coffee at all.

The object of recent experiments was to eliminate from coffee the harmful products of roasting, without, at the same time, removing the caffeine, to which the coffee owes its stimulating effect. A procedure is used by means of which the coffee bean is covered, during the process of roasting, with certain substances, such as for instance, kaolin or china clay, which absorbs the poisonous products. The clay is applied either in form of a paste, or is made to adhere to the beans by means of the moisture which escapes when they are roasted. By means of its capillary qualities, the clay absorbs the products of roasting, the oils and resins formed being thus eliminated from the surface and the upper stratum of the coffee bean.

Prof. Gilling made a series of practical tests with coffee detoxicated in this manner. He found that seventeen persons who were unable to take ordinary coffee, were not made to suffer the slightest effects when they drank his coffee. With nine other persons detoxicated coffee agreed better than ordinary coffee, and in one case only was there no difference between the two.



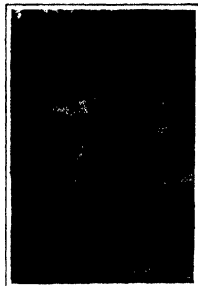
Details of construction of a monorail line, showing section of cars, method of constructing tracks, and of suspending and driving the cars.

At the left is seen the motor and switches controlling the current, at the right is the braking apparatus. The large spiral springs control the swing of the car under the influence of centrifugal force.

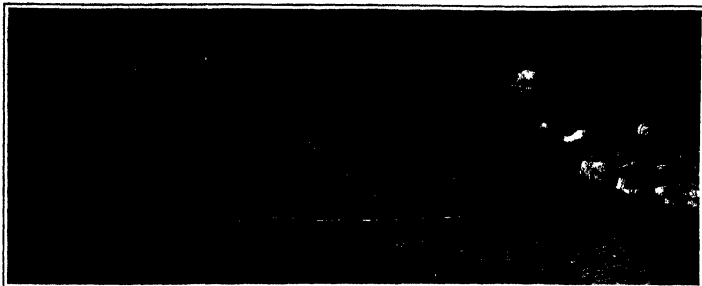
a plow on the forward motor hood. The plans call for ties and braces to support the rail, completing a light but strong structure competent to carry not only the weight of the train but to withstand the strains due to wind pressure and the centrifugal force that the train will exert at curves.

The monorails are to be T pattern, and in the spans between the towers they may be joined by fish-plates or welded. Interlocking joints will prevent all shocks and consequent injury to the rails, and at the towers there will be provisions for expansion. The motors will be of special pattern, the stators being fastened to the frame of the car while the motor wheels will be without flanges. Friction rollers below the rail will guard against accidents of derailment. For heavy grades provision is made for donkey-motors, taking current from a super-rail, which will run above the top of the car and make flying connection while the car is slowing up at the grade. The motor will precede the car slowing gradually till it has the same speed and will then, by electrical action fling itself to the car. At the top of the grade the current of the donkey will be cut off automatically, it will uncouple itself and then be ready to return for another row.

The cars are to be fish-shaped in front and similarly rounded at the rear, and the mechanism in the cab in the forward compartment is surrounded by device of report and control. One of these matters is lubrication. High speeds are apt to cause heating of bearings, and it is proposed to enclose in every axle a thermostat which will give notice to the mechanician of any undue rise in temperature. There is an elaborate plant for lubricating, a pump, pipes to each bearing, etc., so that,



Radio outfit in a side car.



Field radio telegraph and telephone station using a motorcycle power plant

Radio Telephone and Telegraph Equipment on a Motorcycle

A MOTORCYCLE radio telephone and telegraph set has recently been devised by a New York inventor for use by armies on the march or in the field. The equipment is contained in a metal side-car attached to the motorcycle. The transmitting power is approximately one kilowatt with a resultant radius for the wireless telegraph of eighty to one hundred miles and about half that distance for the radio telephone.

Current is supplied to the telephone or telegraph by a high voltage direct current generator connected directly to an independent motorcycle engine contained within the sidecar. In this connection mention should be made of the fact that the wireless equipment comprises a complete unit entirely independent of the motorcycle. It can be readily detached and pushed by hand or loaded upon a wagon and transported over rough ground. An extra wheel is provided, which can be attached to either hub of the side car or to the front or rear of the motorcycle.

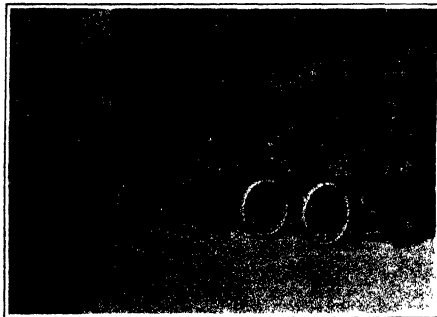
The antenna is supported by a light weight metal mast of tubular construction. The form is telescopic, so that the mast when collapsed can be easily strapped out of the way on the side of the car.

Motorcycle Mail Delivery

THE Brooklyn Post Office is trying an experiment in the handling of special delivery mail. A letter or parcel bearing a special delivery stamp travels no faster than the rest of the mail, but on arriving at the post office station of its destination it must be delivered immediately. Where there are but few letters to be delivered considerable expense is involved if they must be taken out without delay by the usual car. Evidently a lighter vehicle would do equally as well, and so in Brooklyn a test of motorcycle delivery is being made. So far three of the twenty-two stations have motorcycle carriers.

The machines are bought by the men and operated at their own expense. They are paid for their services at the rate of eight cents for each letter or parcel delivered. This service has only just been installed, and it is impossible at this early date to judge of its success.

State Must Pay for Highway Accident.—A decision of great importance has been handed down by the New York Supreme Court in the case of a garage owner, whose



Motorcycle mail delivery.

car was wrecked upon a public highway, because the laborers on the road had left an iron spike on the side of the road, which spike caused the garage owner's automobile to overturn. The court held broadly that "any State that undertakes to 'maintain' roads within its boundaries for the traffic of vehicles, thereby automatically assumes all responsibility for damages and losses which may be sustained by people using such roads."

Motor Tractor Trains at the Exposition

ONE of the notable features of the Panama-Pacific Exposition is the system of sight-seeing automobile trains that skim about beautiful Jewel City, conveying thousands of exposition visitors over the extensive grounds, and affording them a complete and comprehensive view of the great fair in its exciting aspect. These midgut trains were invented by R. B. Langel of Oakland, California, who recognized the need of an efficient, economical and popular solution of the transportation problem within the grounds of the Exposition.

In detail each train consists of a special miniature motor tractor and two specially designed trailers or cars, resembling a double settee with the conductor's aisle in the center. The braking system consists of a shoe connected midway in the drawbar, which is forced downward when the motion of the train is slackened the action being automatic and in unison with the tractor, making it absolutely safe in crowds. The system is an entirely new invention which successfully solves a hitherto perplexing problem.

The whole car is but one step off the ground, running on four invisible wheels, all controlled by a drawbar connection to the tractor in such a way that the two cars follow in exactly the same tracks as the tractor when rounding a turn in the road. This feature eliminates any cutting off on turns or crowding of people off the road. Each train seats forty people comfortably.

An Electrically Controlled Shock Absorber.—In patent No. 1,123,404 W. T. Sears of Philadelphia, Pa., provides in connection with a shock absorber, which can be employed in connection with automobiles and the like, means by which variable resistance may be secured in a positive and certain manner through the aid of electromagnets of any suitable form by which the car automatically magnetically varies the frictional or other checking effect applied to the relatively movable members of the shock absorber.



Sight-seeing automobile train, a popular feature of the Panama-Pacific International Exposition.



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Experimental Science

Elementary Practical and Experimental Physics. By GEORGE M. HOPKINS. 2 volumes. 6¼x9¼. Cloth. 1100 pages. 900 illustrations. Price, \$5.00.

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*This work covers the whole subject of the aeroplane, its design and the theory on which the design is based, and contains a detailed description and discussion of thirty-eight of the more highly successful types. It is a thoroughly practical work, and invaluable to anyone interested in aviation.

The Principles of Radio-telephony

(Continued from page 228.)

distances when it would be suitably modulated by the voice-waves

Modulation of the wave-producing energy has been one of the most difficult problems of radio-telephony, and is not yet completely satisfactory. For long-distance radio-telephony current in the aerial wire system must be as large as the current in the wire of a telephone. The microphone transmitters used in ordinary wire work never used to carry more than about one quarter of an ampere. Thus, it became necessary to devise and develop special water-cooled transmitters and microphone relays for large currents. If full use were to be made of the radio-frequency alternator. This branch of the problem was among the first attacked, and the first solution was the use of a transformer of which wireless telephony was made a fact over twelve miles during 1906 and over two hundred miles from Brant Rock, Mass., to Jamaica, N. Y., in 1907. The modulating instrument used in these long-distance tests was a special type of differential telephone relay or amplifier, which not only made it possible for the code to control relatively large amounts of energy, but also made possible the interconnection of wire and wireless telephones. By its use a person at his home could speak by wire to another person at some distant point on a second telephone line, an intermediate part of the talking circuit being provided by radio. Thus, the radio-telephone can be used to link together existing exchange systems of wireless telephones, and subscribers may from their homes or aboard ships at sea or with others who would ordinarily be isolated because of the lack of through line connection.

Although radio-telephony has been the subject of research and invention by many investigators, and although a large number of devices for production and modulation of radiant electromagnetic waves have been brought forth in the past four or five years, there has been no departure from the fundamental principles outlined above. The fact that telephony by "wireless" has remained almost purely experimental so long after its inception and first successful practice may be explained not only by a lack of confidence in its present commercial value but also by the blindness with which many of its practical exponents cling to the use of unreliable instruments of types which should have been discarded long ago.

The Superheated Steam Unit

(Continued from page 481)

side-valve engines for thirty years, has not permitted, nearly all the steam having escaped to the low-pressure receiver and cylinder. Here it expands against the low-pressure piston, escaping to the condenser at the end of the stroke by a set of central ports arranged around the circumference of the cylinder at its center. Of course, the length of cylinder and piston is long enough in comparison to the stroke to allow these central ports to be covered by the piston, except at the end of the stroke. In other words, the thickness of the piston equals the length of the stroke minus the length of the central ports.

This is a brief of the construction of a compound uniflow engine as applied to the locomotive or superheated steam unit. This combination of the two features in one engine is followed by a number of interesting corollaries. Cylinder jacketing now becomes needless, so that the cylinders are brought out in the open instead of being belted with a steam dome or casings. In the smoke-box hood. The uniflow distribution of the steam prohibits the use of a superheater between high and low-pressure cylinders, so this is omitted. A radiator change is also made in the high-pressure cylinder. The exhaust is made to pass through spiral coil of superheater pipes in large-sized engines exceeding three hundred feet of 3-inch pipe; the superheaters for the uniflow type have two wrought-iron headers the length of the smoke-box, the headers being joined by small angle-

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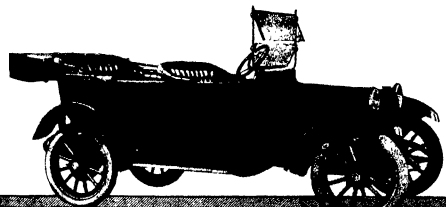
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trile light and power service to candy making. In general the following facts may be accepted as common practice with all of them. The daily coal account is all about from 40 to 500 horse-power-hours shows an average of 1.5 pounds of coal per brake horse-power hour, or 2.5 pounds of lignite (5,000 British thermal units). Up to 250 horse-power one man suffices to both fire and run the locomobile, and, as both engine and boiler must be kept clean (for the sake of the engine bearings); both are handsomely finished and decorated, and are kept polished and wiped down, no soot, ash, scale or dirt being tolerated. The class of attendant in charge is about the grade of a licensed engineer that we pay \$3.50 per diem for, able to give the engine more intelligent care and the boiler better firing than the average fireman that we employ. As a rule some sort of mechanical stoker was used, and low-grade fuels, such as lignite, peat, straw, sawdust, etc., were easily handled mechanically (also crude oil). The small locomobile grade being peculiarly adapted to such apparatus. The steam jet for cleaning off superheaters is almost invariably operated once in 24 hours, sometimes twice. Removable furnaces and tubes are withdrawn once a year for a thorough cleaning of the shell and tubes from scale. This long time between cleaning is almost partly due to the excellent water softening plants in use all over Germany. About an equal quantity of cylinder and machine oil is used per day. The cylinder lubricator oil is used in quantity at 350 deg. Cent. and some standard form of mechanical pressure feed apparatus supplies it to the engine.

I also visited the works of R. Wolf at Magdeburg and Hefrich Lantz at Mannheim, saw the construction details of locomobile building and talked with them as to their plans for introducing the locomobile into America. It is impossible for us to use them as made abroad because of the metric system fittings used throughout. Moreover, it will take us as a nation a good while to realize that here is a good, economical prime-mover, representing millions of horse-power in Europe and her trade dependencies, yet whose qualities are hardly known among our people as yet. The Germans are in no hurry to invade us at present. We have one live engine company making them already, in a large number of sizes, and fitting our standard dynamo ratings. When our engineers do get acquainted with the locomobile it will take all this company's output, plus what the Germans will be able to send us, specially made for export trade and equipped with United States standard fittings, to supply the demand.

Chestnut Blight Poisoning

THE newspapers, as well as some of the scientific journals, have recently reported several cases of illness and a few deaths supposed to have been due to eating chestnuts from trees affected with the chestnut blight. This subject has been investigated independently by G. P. Clinton, botanist of the Connecticut agricultural experiment station, and by C. D. Marsh, of the United States Department of Agriculture, who reports his results in the Journal of the American Medical Association. In both cases the results were substantially negative. Dr. Clinton declares that "there was no evidence that the blight fungus or other fungi were directly connected with the sickness, since experimental feeding of white rats with these fungi failed to produce any injurious effects. Small amounts of pure cultures of the blight were also eaten by the writer without ill effect." He suggests that trees might be so injured by the blight as to produce a greater proportion than usual of nuts not perfectly matured, and that these might possibly contain some self-produced poisonous principle, though this is not considered probable. Prof. Marsh reports to much the same effect. He says: "The symptoms attributed to eating blighted chestnuts were in all cases such as might be produced in some persons by chestnuts from healthy trees."

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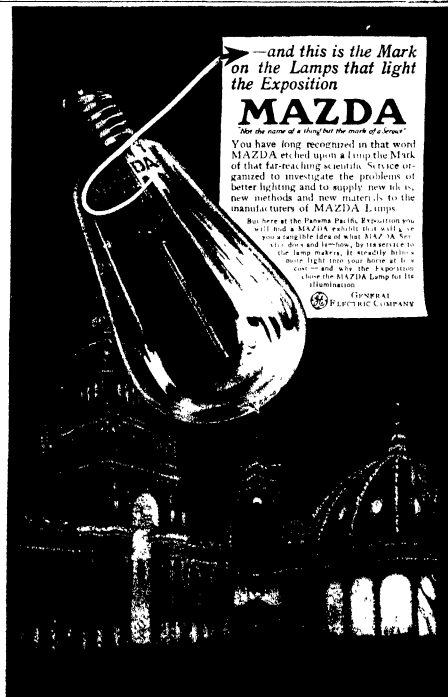
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And, in the most essential of all qualities—stability and endurance—there is abundant assurance that it will excel any Cadillac which has preceded it.

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But we are secure in our conclusions for several reasons.

The factors which are primarily responsible for short life and lack of endurance in a motor car are:

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- In-accurate workmanship
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- Vibration

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Accuracy in workmanship and the proper fit of parts which move in contact with one another, is one vital factor upon which duration of service depends.

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When it is remembered that the one-thousandth part of an inch is equal only to one-third to one-half the thickness of a hair from your head, you gain a slight conception of the remarkable accuracy which obtains.

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But because of its design, its construction, its light reciprocating parts, and its splendid spring suspension, vibration in the Cadillac "Eight" has been reduced practically to the vanishing point.

These arguments, however, mean nothing unless they be supported by evidence.

Experimental cars have for months been driven twenty-four hours a day, under all conditions of weather, rain and sunshine, in the summer's heat and the winter's cold over hills and mountains and over the worst roads that could be found.

We were not unmindful of our responsibilities to Cadillac purchasers and to ourselves.

The most priceless asset of the Cadillac Company today is its good name, — the confidence reposed in it by the public.

Upon the maintenance of that confidence there is at stake an investment in plants and equipment which runs into the millions. There is at stake an annual business amounting to more than thirty millions of dollars.

And had the proof fallen short of absolute conclusiveness, the Cadillac Company would never have staked its reputation and its future, because the Cadillac Company has consistently built for permanency above all else.

The experimental cars were not only "tested out" — They were grossly abused.

They were subjected to a grueling such as not one owner in a thousand ever imposes upon his car.

If there were weak points, we wanted to know them.

Yet, after more miles of travel than the average car is driven in five years, the condition of these experimental cars was a revelation, even to us.

Crankshaft and connecting rod bearings required no adjustment, nor were camshaft and bearings perceptibly worn. Pistons and cylinders showed but infinitesimal wear.

Everywhere, from radiator to rear axle, was the evidence of the result of scientific design, intelligent selection of materials, thorough lubrication and Cadillac workmanship.

Everywhere was the evidence that we build better than we ourselves were aware.

You can learn, in your own way, that the Eight-Cylinder Cadillac neither rides nor drives like any other motor car, that it does more of the things which a motorist wants his car to do; that it performs in ways that you had not thought possible in any car.

And, even having in mind the remarkable stability of its past product, the Cadillac Company has every assurance that its "Eight" will excel all past achievements in constancy and enduring service.

Styles and Prices

Standard Seven passenger car, Five passenger Sedan and Roadster, \$1975
Limousine Coupe, \$2500. Five passenger Sedan, \$2800. Seven passenger
Limousine, \$3450. Prices f. O. B. Detroit

Cadillac Motor Car Co. Detroit, Mich.

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Forcing the Dardanelles. A battle
between land and naval guns.
How Submarines are handled.
Pictures from the front.





Ask the Steel Man

What manufacturers put the best steel in their cars?



Ask the Accessory Man

What manufacturers put the best accessories in their cars?



Ask the Banker

What automobile firms have made good financially and are able to back up their cars?



Ask the Automobile Dealer

What are the three best automobiles in the class from \$1400 to \$2400?



Ask the Owner

How he is satisfied with his Chalmers Six—ask him particularly about its *monthly cost* for up-keep?

And the Answers

You will find more than substantiated by going to the nearest Chalmers dealer and there examining the Chalmers. In this way you will be *buying* a car, and not being *sold* one.



Quality First

Chalmers Models

New Six-40 at \$1400 Light Six-48 at \$1650
Master Six-54 at \$2400

Chalmers Motor Company, Detroit

Let Your Next Car Be a Chalmers

KEWANEE

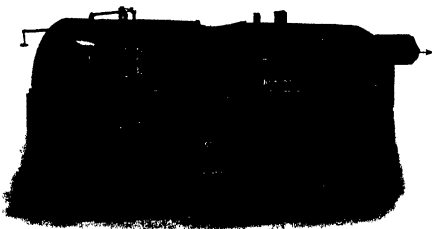
Smokeless Boilers Cut Coal Costs



Q Kewanee Smokeless Boilers are burning the cheapest of soft coal smokelessly and are saving thousands of coal dollars, every year, in many of the best buildings in all parts of this country and Canada.

Q They save fuel money in two ways: First, by permitting the use of low priced soft coal, even in cities where a rigid smoke ordinance is enforced. Second, because they get from fuel, and use for heat making purposes, a bigger percentage of the heat in the coal than can be obtained by the ordinary boiler.

Q Our booklet "Cutting Coal Costs" is of interest to any large user of coal. It will go on request.



In a Kewanee Smokeless Boiler (brickset or portable type) the fire is built on the upper, water tube grates, the fire on the lower grate being maintained by the hot coals dropping onto it from above. The draft is down which draws all the heat giving gases down through the hot fire on the upper grate then down and over the fire on the lower grates. This completely burns all the heat giving gases before they can be condensed into smoke.

KEWANEE BOILER COMPANY

KEWANEE, ILLINOIS

Steam Heating Boilers, Radiators, Garbage Burners and Tanks
CHICAGO NEW YORK ST. LOUIS KANSAS CITY MINNEAPOLIS

SEVENTY-FIRST YEAR

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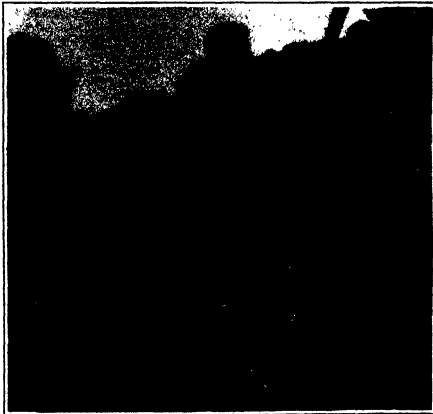
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A pile of German 15-centimeter shells and the wicker casings used in transporting them.



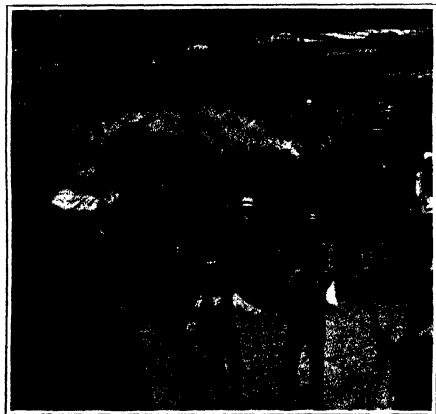
Photograph by Itzinger

A French kite balloon ready to ascend in order to make observations of the effect of artillery fire on the enemy.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

A British Tommy cooking his dinner on a brazier in the trenches.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

Army horses are scarce. Little Icelandic ponies are imported in great numbers.



Copyright by International News Service

The broken-backed "L-3" of Germany's aerial fleet on Sanoe Island

This stricken, a Zepplin, while on a reconnoitering voyage, descended during a storm owing to a defect of its motor. The stricken was lost, but the crew were saved. Immediately after the catastrophe the stricken burst into flames. The captain declares that he set the Zepplin on fire purposely "in order to prevent her from being blown further ashore and imperil its lives and the adjacent buildings." The crew had time to land their ammunition and bombs.

THE NEWEST PICTURES OF THE GREAT WAR

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Founded 1845

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles on subjects of timely interest. If the illustrations are accepted for publication, the contributor will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement

The Battle-cruiser

CONGRESS has adjourned without making provision for the addition of any battle-cruisers to our Navy, an omission for which, in our opinion, the country may have to pay very dearly if hostilities should ever overtake us. The motive which has led the department to recommend the construction of battle ships to the exclusion of battle-cruisers is the realization of the fact that the winning or losing of a campaign, other things being equal, depends upon the relative strength of the first fighting line of dreadnoughts of the two contending navies. It is claimed that what ever temporary advantage may be gained by battle-cruisers in scouting, harassing the enemy's shipping or bombarding seacoast cities, the issues of a war will be determined when battle-ships range up against battle-ships to light it out to the death. The point of view is assumed that the battle-cruiser, because of its lighter armor, will not be able to lie in the front line—an assumption which, in view of the actions which have been already fought between battle-cruisers, seems to us to be rather doubtful. The steep angle of fall of the shell at the great ranges which promise to govern future fighting, has upset the theories of armor protection, for the few facts which have hitherto pointed indicate that a large percentage of the hits are upon the deck and not upon the side armor, and a plunging fire of this character seems to wipe out to a not inconsiderable extent the advantage conferred by the heavier side armor carried by battle-ships. But even if it be granted that the battle-cruiser will not lie in the first line of battle, is the subordinate work for which her combination of high speed and heavy gun power render her so effective of such minor importance that we can afford to dispense with this type altogether? Certainly the developments of the present war do not support this point of view.

Had Great Britain possessed no battle-cruisers, the armored cruisers of Von Spee might be ranging the high seas today sinking merchant shipping and overtaking and crushing its superior gunnery the more lightly armed cruisers of the "Good Hope" and "Monmouth" type. The battle-cruisers of the German home fleet would be free to make dash work and then across the North Sea, raiding coast towns and sinking any British armored and protected cruisers they might encounter. Because of their great gun power and the possession of the speed gun, they would have the complete mastery of any vessels of this type. Possessing seven or eight knots superiority of speed over the British dreadnought fleet, they would be free to avoid or avoid engagement, as the circumstances of the hour and place might dictate. Furthermore, there would always be the possibility of their breaking through into the open bay of the North of Scotland, and carrying out a raid along the main lines of steamship travel, which might easily result in the loss of some of the finest ocean liners of the allied powers.

Should we ever find ourselves at war with Germany (which God forbid), the lack of battle-cruisers would prove to be a veritable handicap. Our scouting force ahead of our main fleet would have but three 23-knot armored cruisers, and we might use a few of our 22-knot armored cruisers; but of what avail would they be to

break through German scouting lines which contain half a dozen 28 to 30-knot battle-cruisers? To send our slow and lightly armored craft against these formidable ships would be not only to fail utterly to ascertain the strength and composition of the enemy, but it would be to offer them for certain destruction. Again, when the main fleet was lined up for battle it would be possible for these fast ships to forge ahead and steam across our line, raking its leading ships with a powerful concentration of heavy gunfire.

The Spanish-American war has not passed so far into history but that many of us will remember the political pressure which was brought upon Congress to send armored ships for the protection of the various important seacoast cities. In the event of such a conflict to-day, we could not spare a single battleship for this purpose; and anything we possess outside of our battle-ships is worse than useless as a protection against the long range of 11- and 12-inch guns of the German battle-cruisers.

Our submarines? No, we could not rely upon them as a protection, for it has been proved over and over again in this war that ships of 28 to 30 knots have very little to fear from the submarine, so long as they make use of the great speed. Such is the ranging power of their guns that these vessels could steam to and fro well outside of the range of our coast fortifications, and, assisted by observation of their accompanying destroyers or of seaplanes carried by the fleet, they could silence our seacoast guns with the same deliberation with which the "Queen Elizabeth" has reduced some of the fortresses of the Philippines.

One of the most important demonstrations of the present war has been the great value of the combination of heavy guns and high speed. If the next Congress will but listen to its technical advisers, it will authorize the construction, in addition to whatever battleships are required, of at least two ships of the battle-cruiser type.

The Small Farm Tractor

BOTH mechanical and economic obstacles have confronted the designer and builder of the ideal small agricultural tractor. The wider range of usefulness demanded made it impossible simply to reproduce the successful large tractors in miniature. Extra speeds, more efficient traction devices, greater flexibility and easier manipulation had to be provided for. The impossibility of reducing the width of the tractor in proportion to its power and the number of plows pulled, created a strong side draft in plowing which utterly doomed many a tractor that did admirably at hauling. For instance, since plowing is the all-important job for the farm tractor.

More frequent use on the road demanded more care in protecting highway surfaces from damage, while still keeping a high tractive efficiency under all conditions. Reduction in size carried with it a natural decrease in acceleration unless persistently guarded against. Reduction in size was also to increase the weight per brake horse-power and cut down the drawbar delivery unless lighter parts of better material were used.

Manufacturing cost was inevitably increased in proportion to power—increased until the small tractor could claim little or no advantage over animals in first cost. Increases in cost of labor and materials nearly offset the rise in price of horses and feedstuffs, effectively maintaining the status quo. Service cost more in proportion. Selling cost the maker less, and he usually reaped the advantage of a larger percentage of cash than on big outfits. But against any possible price in increments rose the increase to the farmer in proportionate labor cost of operating. Moreover a much higher rate of animal power had to be kept for odd jobs, e. g., a farmer with twenty-five horses might easily get along with a tractor and four instead, while he with but six horses might still have to keep two.

The odds seemed all against a tractor of less than 25 to 30 brake horse-power, giving 12 to 15 horse-power at the drawbar and handling four to six ordinary plows. But horses, and their feed cost faster in price than tractors and fuel. (What may be the effect of the war and its enormous drain upon America's horse supply is of course problematical.) Probably it will hasten the adoption of tractors hitherto accepted with some hesitation. The introduction of self-lift plows, which eliminated the plow tender, cut out about a third of the labor cost. Development greatly favoring the small tractor, and one at which inventors of self-contained motor plows had long been aiming.

As a result of these factors, and in response to an incessant demand, we now have our choice of a considerable variety of tractors weighing less than 8,000 pounds (the weight of five or six horses), each designed to do the work of four to ten horses and priced all the way from \$600 to \$1,000 free on board factory. Some are unquestionably ready for the market. Others are far from it and need be considered only as they represent principles that may "arrive" later. Out of the whole lot there is the strong promise of one or more

solutions of this most difficult mechanical problem. For difficult it is.

An automobile has merely to propel itself and carry a load—usually on fairly level, fairly firm surfaces. Lighter and more exacting requirements have been standardized in ten years to the point of duplication by the hundred thousands. The light tractor, however, must go over almost any kind or condition of soil, up maximum grades, through ditches and over the rough places, pulling a heavy dead load behind it. Yet it must damage no road and pack no cultivated soil.

A car builder whose name is almost synonymous with standardization has put in the greater or lesser part of five years experimenting with small tractors and still sticks to automobiles. The designer of one of the largest gas engine power plants in the world tackled the problem and failed. One of the leading educators in America along stationary gas engine lines—a consulting engineer and author of a much-used textbook—sawed the design of a tractor for a large manufacturer, but his work never saw the light of day.

Lost Jack Be a Dull Boy

AN enlightened industrial establishment which provides its employees with ball games and tennis courts, reading rooms and card rooms, is furthering its own interests, not only by making its employees better contented, but also by increasing their efficiency. The downright utility of relaxation and rational amusement demands more general recognition than it has heretofore received. It is the time we hear of narrow-minded public officials in Washington who endeavor to discourage the rank and file of Government employees from taking the thirty days' annual vacation allowed them by law, by giving high "efficiency ratings" to those who refrain from doing so; whereas a more logical plan would be to penalize employees who do not take their vacations.

The English, as a race, are decidedly more inclined to rate amusements at their proper worth in the scheme of the human normal existence than are their clamorous cousins. An illustration of this fact is found in a comparison of "Who's Who" with "Who's Who in America." At the end of each biography in the former work the favorite "recreations" of the subject are generally stated, while the publishers of the corresponding American work have not seen fit to include this feature.

A compilation of the "recreations" enumerated in "Who's Who" would make interesting reading, and we commend this undertaking to some magazine writer who has run short of topics. They range over a wide field. Many English notables prefer strenuous forms of amusement as mountaineering, big game shooting, and exploring. Tennis, golf, cricket, and the like naturally recur at frequent intervals in these enumerations. Madame Adélaïde Crowley, the singer, prefers "riding—the favorite recreation of all true Australians." One Irish gentleman (J. P. Crowley) amuses himself with travel, "and anything else that may turn up." An eminent officer (Sir Frank Crisp) is devoted to "cricket, golf, and wide dais," for his pleasures are "horticulture, microscopy, and—company law." Prof. James Gieskie, who died the other day, admitted that his chief diversion was "lounging in pleasant places with a congenial friend."

Frederick Winslow Taylor

THE late Frederick Winslow Taylor, pioneer among efficiency engineers, injected a new element into industry. He showed that the proper conduct of a business enterprise is a scientific problem to be solved by scientific methods. In that sense he raised manufacturing to the dignity of an applied science. In another sense he supplied political economy with a new principle; for his study of the problem of production has been a distinct aid to students who never thought it part of the economist's business to concern himself with factory methods. Before Frederick W. Taylor made efficiency engineering what it has become, the directors of an industrial enterprise thought that cheap raw materials, most automatic machinery and a good cost accounting system represented the alpha and omega of manufacturing. But he proved that organization, in the strict military sense of the word, was lacking in most factories; that ideals were wanting; that arrangement of machines was as important as the machines themselves; that the men and executives had to be considered from the standpoint of mental pieces of machinery as well as from the standpoint of labor cost; that a workman is to be treated with consideration and regarded as an investment rather than as a source of expenditure. Labor unions in particular have misunderstood the work of Taylor. If they only realized it, he and his whole school have done more to improve the conditions of labor, have done more to make the laborer worthy of his hire and the laborer of the laborer, than all the unions combined. His name will go down not only as a great engineer, not only as a great industrial scientist, but as a great humanitarian.

Electricity

Connecting Nitrogen Lamps in Series.—A writer in the *Zeitschrift für Beleuchtung* suggests the introduction of the series system of connecting nitrogen filled tungsten lamps. A shunt must be provided for each lamp to prevent extinction of the entire series when one lamp fails, and it is proposed that a carbomundum resistor in solid or powdered form be used, for this, when cold, allows but little current to pass, but when the lamp is extinguished more current passes through the carbomundum, heating it, thereby making it a better conductor.

Electric Confectionery Shops are to be found in St. Paul and Minneapolis. The owner of these shops is a great believer in electricity and he has equipped his tables with candle lamps and desk telephone sets. A customer seats himself at the table, looks at a handy table directory or menu, finds the number of the particular dainty he desires and gives his order by telephone. A minute later the order is placed on his table by a waiter. The system saves a great deal of time because the waiters do not have to make a trip to the table to find out what the customer wants, nor do they have to wait while the customer is deliberating over his choice.

A Troublesome's Headlamp.—The troublesomen of the Northern Power Company of Duluth are using a convenient type of acetylene lamp arranged, like a miner's lamp, to be worn on the head. This lamp has proved invaluable on looking for lost tools at night. Only the lamp and reflector are carried on the head, the generator being carried either on a belt or in the pocket. This is connected to the burner by a non-collapse rubber tube. The lamp is provided with a single or double lens to concentrate the light, and the reflector which is of aluminum or silver may be adjusted to throw the light up or down.

Small Tungsten Lamps with Concentrated Filaments.—The distinctive feature of the concentrated filament tungsten lamps of high wattages have proved so popular that similar lamps in the 25, 40 and 60 watt sizes have now been developed. This concentrated filament construction gives greater vertical distribution of light than the regular lamps of corresponding wattages. The new lamps will, therefore, be employed where natural distribution of light downward is required. They can be used in existing sockets and fixtures. These lamps will be made in the same sized bulbs as the corresponding regular tungsten lamps, will have the same spherical watts per candle-power efficiency and will have a rated average life of 800 hours.

Illumination of the New Subway Cars.—After a series of experiments the New York Municipal Railway Corporation has decided upon a new system of illumination for its subway cars. The head lining and walls down to the window sills will be enameled white, so as to provide excellent reflecting surfaces. Bowl-shaped tungsten lights will be used, arranged in a single row along the center line of the ceiling. The cars are 9 feet wide and 65 feet long, and there will be fifteen of these 56-watt tungsten lamps supported in 6-inch oval receptacles. The effect of this illumination is to give a soft and uniformly distributed light. The eyes of the passengers will not be exposed to the glare of the glowing filaments. The power consumption of this illumination will amount to under 1.6 watts per square foot.

The Efficiency of Lightning Rods on farm buildings has recently been the subject of an investigation conducted by Prof. J. Warren Smith, of the Weather Bureau, who reported the results at the last annual meeting of the National Association of Mutual Fire Insurance Companies. Prof. Smith addressed a circular letter to mutual insurance companies throughout the country, especially those in the rural districts, soliciting information as to the damage done to insured farm buildings by lightning in comparison with losses due to other causes, the distribution of such damage between rodded and unrodded buildings, etc. The answers give striking evidence of the value of rods. In 1912 and 1913 about 200 mutual companies doing a business of fully \$300,000,000 had 1,945 buildings struck by lightning. Of this number only 67 were equipped with lightning rods. No far as could be learned about 31 per cent of the buildings insured by these companies were rodded; hence, if the rods had furnished no protection the number of rodded buildings struck should have been 572, instead of 67. Thus the efficiency of the rods in actually preventing lightning strokes appears to have been about 90 per cent. It may be fairly assumed that a large part of the damage done to the rodded buildings occurred in cases where the rods were improperly installed or in poor condition. Five companies, with over 18,000 buildings insured, of which more than 80 per cent were rodded, reported that they had never had a building burned or even materially damaged by lightning that was equipped with a lightning rod; their records covered periods ranging from 13 to 36 years. Another important fact brought out by Prof. Smith's figures is that when a rodded building is struck by lightning and damaged but not burned down, the average damage is much less than in an unrodded building, viz., \$10 in the former case and \$230 in the latter.

Science

The Radium Institute, of London, in its last annual report states that 746 cases were treated during the past year, of which 10 are reported cured, 50 apparently cured, and 328 improved, while in 136 no results had been noted up to the date of writing. Varying results are recorded in cases of cancer, tumors, and other diseases. Certain cases of skin discoloration and warts have been treated with marked success, while the most intractable cases of spring catarrh have been cured.

Drug Addictions in the United States.—According to a recent estimate of the U. S. Public Health Service the number of persons in this country who are victims of the drug habit is about 70,000, and the number of doses of narcotic drugs consumed by them annually is about 820,000,000. This estimate is based on figures collected in the State of Tennessee, where under a recently enacted anti-narcotic law, 1,493 permits were issued in six months to persons petitioning for the privilege of using narcotic drugs, and the consumption of such drugs amounted to 8,498,200 average doses.

The Northeast Passage.—Commander Vilktan, the discoverer of Nicholas II. Land, set out last summer from Vladivostok on his third attempt to make the Northeast Passage from the Pacific to the Atlantic. He proposed to use part of his crew to Sværdrup's ship, in order to economize his supplies, with a view to the possibility of not getting through the ice next summer.

Rainfall Records in Metric Units.—Since May 1st, 1914, the British Meteorological Office has published rainfall values in millimeters in place of inches, in its Daily Weather Report. Beginning January 1st, 1915, the millimeter is also used in the Weekly and Monthly Weather Reports. The director of the Meteorological Office, in commenting on the change, points out that metric measurements are now used almost universally in scientific work, and that the maintenance of a system of non-metric units for practical life causes a disassociation between science and practice which is found to be injurious to both. Moreover, the millimeter is a more convenient unit for recording rainfall than the hundredth of an inch.

Some Interesting Fishery Statistics relating to the sea west of Norway were presented in a recent lecture by Dr. John Hjort, the well-known Norwegian fishery expert. The work of tagging fish, setting them free, and recording the time and place of subsequent capture has now been in progress for a number of years and has given most valuable information as to the migration of fish and as to the ratio of the catch of one year to the total number of fish available. The ratio is about 1 to 10 in the case of the common food fishes. Attention has also been paid to the age and growth of fishes, as indicated by annual rings on their scales, and it has been learned, among other things, that fish make faster growth in some years than in others, regardless of their individual ages.

Sea Moss.—This term is popularly applied to any of the *Polysia*, which are compound marine animals, several of which share a common horny skeleton, or polysium, which is plant-like in form. According to the Bureau of Fisheries, several hundred thousand pounds of these skeletons have been imported annually from Europe, chiefly from France and Germany, for decorative and millinery purposes, and the supply has been practically cut off by the war. It should seem opportune to develop a domestic industry, as sea mosses, probably equal in quality to those heretofore imported, are said to be abundant on our coasts, especially in New England. Those with large bushy fronds are the most valuable.

The Colorado Geographic Board. The Colorado Geographic Society, recently founded in Denver, has organized a small committee known as the Colorado Geographic Board, the duties of which are to supervise and clarify the geographical names of Colorado, to collect and preserve the historical associations of towns, streams, mountains, highways, passes, and other geographical features of the State, and to eliminate duplicate and otherwise undesirable geographical names. The board has announced that it will "take into every man, and is built in France by an Anglo-French company. A new model of this car, just brought out, has four cylinders 85 millimeter bore by 130 millimeter stroke and rated at 16 horse-power, and is said to have given excellent performances over hilly and difficult roads. The cooling water is circulated by a pump, and there is a pump operated automatic lubrication system that is attracting attention on account of the absence of all small by-pass holes that so frequently choke and make trouble.

Automobile

Looking Underneath the Motor Car.—Many a prospective purchaser of a motor car would like to take a peep below the chassis—when he views the car in all its glory in the showroom. A Chicago dealer has solved the problem by hanging one of the show cars 7 feet above the ground, supported by strong steel cables. The height enables both salesman and "prospective" to walk beneath the car and examine it from below.

An Automobile Lock. Thomas J. Kehoe of Toledo, Ohio, has secured patent No. 1,126,781 for an automobile lock which has a swinging arm pivoted at one end to the ordinary slotted guide for the controlling lever of the engine. This arm has at its swinging end a notch which can be swung to receive the controlling lever when the latter is in neutral position and a lock secures the swinging arm in this position.

Elastic Safety Bumper for Motor Cars.—A novel type of automobile bumper has just been brought out by a New York company. It consists of a hollow rubber tube, supported on a steel fender, beyond which it projects about two inches. Should any person or object be in danger of collision with a motor car so equipped, a large part of the shock is absorbed by the rubber tube, while the rest loses itself in the springs which support the steel fender itself.

The Auto Tire of the Future. Many improvements have so perfected the auto tire as even to render racing comparatively safe. It is believed, however, that some radical departures will mark the greatest development in this line. Just where this is to be difficult to say. Inventors have been improving the inner tubes, the tread surfaces of the shoes, the fabrics and the means for holding the shoes to the rims. Possibly the tire to revolutionize the industry will combine the air cushion and spring features in such a way as to overcome the defects and shortcomings of both forms.

Triple Glass Now Greatly Used. Triple glass, which attracted a good deal of comment when it was first announced a year ago, is now appearing on the market in many forms, especially in Great Britain, where it has caught the fancy of motorists. The glass is made into laminous windows, windshields, goggles, etc. It consists, as readers of the *Scientific American* will remember, of two sheets of thin glass with a thin sheet of xylene between them, the whole three sheets being combined by glue and hydraulic pressure into a homogeneous mass. It cannot be shattered into splinters by any agency. It will crack and break under hammer blows, but no splinters will fly, endangering people.

Vulcanizes Tires by Chemical Means.—Although strictly speaking every vulcanization of an automobile tire is a "chemical reaction," the system invented by W. A. Miles deserves this appellation more than any other, because of the application of heat by a new method. Instead of using steam or electricity, Miles takes a small block of a deflagrating substance, as for instance a mixture of charcoal and saltpeter, or chlorate of potassium and wood dust. Placing the tire in the center of a pill or block, on a metal plate in contact with the tire, it is ignited and the heat developed used to vulcanize the tire repair patch. The size of the "pill" can be regulated to give just as much heat as is needed for the vulcanization.

Synthetic Rubber from Crude Oil.—So many disappointments have been recorded following announcements of new methods of making rubber synthetically, that rubber importers and users are now exceedingly wary in accepting statements to that effect. But now has just come from Baku, Russia, which seems valuable enough to deserve a thorough test in the California oil fields. It seems that there are certain fractions in the Baku crude oil (which are also present in the California oil) boiling between 180 and 196 degrees, which yield nearly 20 per cent of their weight in adipic acid. This adipic acid can be converted into butadiene through the action of its own amide, in a commercially practicable process. Butadiene, again, can be converted into routechene by means of another simple and inexpensive process. Experiments are already under way to discover the practical value of this discovery.

An Anglo-French Car.—Among the things that were not talked about much abroad formerly but which the freer feeling created by the military alliance has been bringing to public notice is the close relations that have been sustained in the automobile manufacture between England and France. In this connection note is being made of a popular car, the *Anglo-French*, which is every man, and is built in France by an Anglo-French company. A new model of this car, just brought out, has four cylinders 85 millimeter bore by 130 millimeter stroke and rated at 16 horse-power, and is said to have given excellent performances over hilly and difficult roads. The cooling water is circulated by a pump, and there is a pump operated automatic lubrication system that is attracting attention on account of the absence of all small by-pass holes that so frequently choke and make trouble.

Progress in Small

Farm Tractors

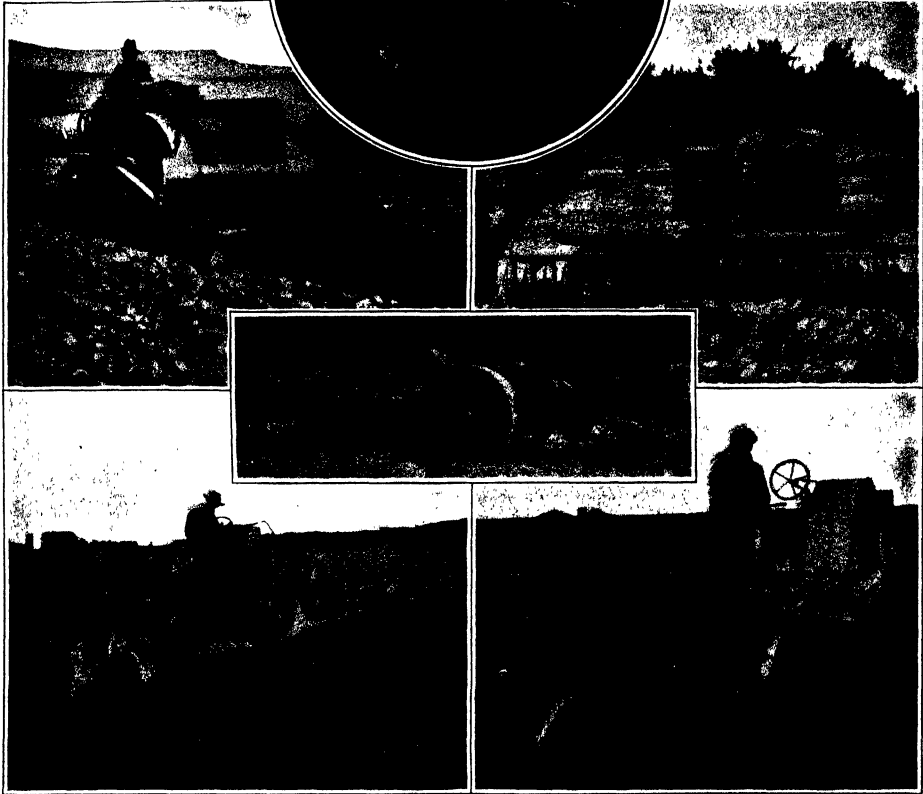
By L. W. Ellis, Vice-President,
American Society of Agricultural
Engineers

A rotary soil cultivator or mulling machine. A drum like arrangement of flexible steel springs each carrying a flexible claw at the end is the interesting feature.



A Real Agricultural Need and
What Engine Builders Are Do-
ing to Meet it

The bulk of tractors are built to draw plows or other implements in the rear. One tractor is arranged to receive a gang of plows attached directly to the rear, lifting it by motor power.



The majority of the manufacturers cling to the conventional round wheel type for their large tractors, but cast tradition to the winds in attacking the small tractor problem. The small tractors with two drive wheels in the rear and smooth tires fitted with some form of float are therefore, in the minority. Width must be kept down in order to avoid side draft in plowing, also to permit the use of the tractor in vineyard cultivation. Height must, therefore, be kept down for the sake of stability, also to permit of orchard cultivation. The four-wheel drive has been tried with indifferent success. The single wheel is later, cheaper, and more promising. One large drive wheel, usually at the right side of the tractor, brings the power directly ahead of the plow, later which is opposite, completing a three-point support.

PROGRESS IN SMALL FARM TRACTORS

THE scrap heaps of large tractor factories of solid reputation are strewn with small tractor failures. The Middle West has seen literally hundreds of minor concerns start, experiment away their capitals of \$5,000 to \$20,000 each, and quit, perhaps having long enough to sell a few engines at an attractive price and include the customers in the final disappointment.

The writer has positive knowledge of five absolutely different small tractors built and discarded by one big firm before it first placed the sixth on the market that after a tractor building experience of a quarter century. Another firm, equally experienced built seven models and spent ~~three~~ years in experimental work before issuing its first catalogue on a small tractor. These facts partially explain why the small tractor has been slow in coming—why the older, more substantial builders are now demanding prices that seem unreasonable

The "average farmer," one operating not over 100 acres of land and keeping probably not over six work horses or milk cows, needs a tractor, one simple enough for him, his son, or the hired man to operate, light enough in weight to spare bridges and culverts; low enough in pressure per unit of ground surface to avoid packing his well-tilled land; powerful enough to replace at least five horses in plowing, thereby handing at least two plows; and price not to exceed the value of the horses which may be sold when the tractor comes to the farm to stay.

How these problems are being attacked Mr. Ellis sets forth in the following article.—Barrow

in view of quotations made by smaller manufacturers.

Building a small tractor is no child's play, but ten times harder than building a big one, even having the experience with the latter to start with. There are few rules and no precedents. Practical experimentation has done the most to develop what we have to-day, and the Middle Western professor of farm engineering was talking very sanely who said last summer that \$1,000 was a minimum price for a reliable small tractor produced in present quantities. Without exception the tractors so far announced at seasonably low figures have either been materially increased in price or disappeared entirely from the market.

As to the final type of tractor for the small farm, the industry is in a too unsettled state to make predictions safe. From steam threshing engines to monster plowing steamers; from steam plowing engines and

mere self-propelling stationary gasoline engines to a fairly standard type of 60 to 75 horse-power gas tractor; then rapidly down the scale to the present wide diversity of small tractors, the range has been covered in fifteen years. The great gas tractor boom of 1911 and 1912 brought its reaction, as much from outside causes as from over-selling the market or disappointment in the product. Since then, the pioneer manufacturers have proceeded along more stable lines. Their offerings of small tractors have been few, but their types are good. Each week, meanwhile, brings out new names and new models, each valuable as a contribution to the sum of tractor experience, if not permanent in itself. The types discussed in the following paragraphs have been selected mainly to illustrate prevailing principles, and are not necessarily recommended in their present state.

The small tractors of note may be classified, for convenience, with respect to (1) power plant, (2) traction device, (3) kind and arrangement of tillage implements (this being the most influential factor affecting the design), and (4) special types. Outside of a few conventional designs, any combination of principle may be expected, and the coming of the ideal type will certainly not be delayed by any lack in this direction.

Motors.

Due largely to the great improvement of the automobile motor and the educational influence of the farmer's motor car, there is a distinct tendency toward the four-cylinder motor in the higher types of small tractor. While formerly considered more complicated and less economical of fuel, its advantages in lightness, flexibility and evenness of torque over the one- and two-cylinder motors are rapidly popularizing the four-cylinder type. One company specializes on small tractor motors and supplies a large number, especially for experimental machines and the newer commercial types. The well-established makers, as a rule, pre-

fer to build their own motors, on account of both price and adaptability. It goes without saying that even small tractor motors are seldom all of a heavy duty type and usually of not over 750 to 900 revolutions per minute.

On the other hand, some of the largest makers retain the two-cylinder motor, twin and opposed types being in about equal favor. This results in a somewhat lower price and a considerable heavier type. The single-cylinder motor is seldom used for tractors as small as those we are considering, though attempts have been made to avoid excessive weight by running a small cylindered motor up to 500 revolutions per minute.

Ingenious Traction Devices.

The majority of manufacturers cling to the conventional round-wheel type for their large tractors, but cast tradition to the winds in attacking the small tractor problem. Small tractors with two drive wheels in the rear, and smooth tires fitted with some form of cleat or grouser, are therefore in the minority. Width must be kept down in order to avoid side draft in plowing, also to permit the use of the tractor in vineyard cultivation. Height must, therefore, be kept down for the sake of stability, also to permit of orchard cultivation. The permissible wheel dimensions are not always adequate for good traction, and variations from the conventional two-wheel drive are the rule.

The four-wheel drive has been tried with indifferent success. The single wheel is later, cheaper and more promising. One large drive wheel, usually at the right side of the tractor, brings the power directly ahead of the plows, tiller wheels opposite completing a three-point support. This type is quite compact and easy to guide. One difficulty lies in the fact that there is no second driver to assist in case the one strikes a soft spot, as in a two-wheel drive having a differential that may be locked. Another lies in the individual design of one tractor, the drive wheel running in the

furrow and undoubtedly creating a hardpan similar to the "share hardpan" formed by one horse's foot and the plowshare. One single-wheel type has the drive on the left side for greater convenience in harvesting with binders. Left hand plows must of course be used with it.

The single driver idea is used in combination with an endless track also in several self-contained motor plows. It is capable of being very cheaply constructed, and has been reported on a large scale within the last year. The majority of makers, abiding at a cheapness which cannot but react against the type, however good it may prove in the end.

A number of builders have accepted the limitation as to size of driver and sought to make it more efficient by improving the skidding arrangement. Tires of open construction are used also in several forms of fixed and dies so arranged as to imitate the course of the horse's hoof as it enters and leaves the ground. The extra expense of construction is probably justified by the advantage in traction efficiency. Spikes and spades arranged about an eccentric appearing and disappearing automatically in some cases, and in others merely capable of being thrust out and withdrawn to give points, have been offered repeatedly, but have been discarded in practically every case because too complicated and too easily jammed.

Endless Track Types.

Another and probably the most important variation from the wheel type is that which substitutes a wheel with movable pedals, adopted in the form most common in the United States, or else an endless open or track, composed of segments, either device affording much greater contact with the ground than the ordinary wheel. This class, frequently referred to as the "caterpillar" type (though the word "caterpillar" is a registered trademark applying to but one manufacturer's product), has come to the front very rapidly, and is especially well adapted to large units, because the seg-

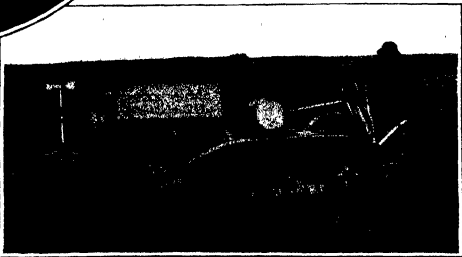


To small tractor which the average farmer needs must eventually do many things the big tractor did not do, that is cultivate, mow, and or handle even corn and potatoes, perhaps, make more frequent trips to town with oilman's tins, and do odd jobs in odd corners about the farm. It must do many things horses seldom do in the way of running, stationary, machinery. And it must do or attempt practically everything expected of farm horse, and gladden the farmer's heart. Above all it must not be a fool or a heavy. It must pay its way, showing a low upkeep cost, reasonably operating cost and sufficient versatility to keep occasional charges distributed over a maximum of working days per annum.

A one-armed man operating a small tractor is shown in illustration on left.



Harvesting is only one of the many tasks which will have to be performed by the small tractor. Indeed, so diverse are the applications of the tractor that one manufacturer calls his machine a steel mule.



The caterpillar type has come to the front very rapidly. Tractors of this type weighing less than six thousand pounds are easily doing the work of eight to ten horses.

PROGRESS IN SMALL FARM TRACTORS

mental track will transmit the power of an extremely large motor without requiring a corresponding increase in weight. It has peculiar advantages in small units as well.

The latest form of track consists essentially of (1) open-ended steel castings which form both shoes and connecting links, (2) steel sleeves and pins forming the joint between units, and (3) chilled track wheels which roll upon the flatter, rail-like surface of the links and carry the tractor's weight. The efficiency of this device in crossing soft ground and in avoiding the packing of the soil has long been recognized, but the multiplication of wearing parts has required careful choice of materials and good workmanship in avoiding an excessive upkeep cost. Although instances are not on record, however, to indicate that a well-constructed track should stand 5,000 to 8,000 miles of wear before renewing, and the matter of upkeep is, therefore, not serious. The higher first cost of this type is, of course, to be balanced against the ability to work under very unfavorable conditions.

The track is neither wide, nor high, but long, hence enormous traction is gained without violating either limitation to ordinary wheel dimensions. There is no slippage under ordinary circumstances, a factor which loses from 6 to 10 per cent of a round-wheel tractor's geared speed under normal conditions. The greater traction efficiency naturally assists in keeping down the fuel consumption, but its particular advantage in the small tractor lies in its cutting out the side draft with out unduly increasing the weight of the machine, and in enabling tractors of this type to climb surprising grades. Tractors of this type, weighing less than 6,000 pounds, are easily doing the work of 8 to 10 horses.

At least a dozen tractors now embody something of this principle, with certain variations as a concession to patent formalities. One maker substitutes two-inch balls for the track wheels carrying the tractor's weight. One newer tractor uses but one endless runner instead of two. Practically all omit the differential gear and turn each wheel by means of separate friction clutches governing either side of the track independent entry. Infringement proceedings may affect the status of some models in this group.

Arrangement of Plovers

The bulk of tractors, large or small are built to crawl plover or other implements in the rear by means of rods or chains. One tractor is arranged, however, to receive a group of plover attached directly to the rear, lifting it by the power of the motor. Others, both one- and two-wheel drive, become self-contained motor plover through gears hung under the frame between front and rear wheels. These outfits have the advantage of being able to back up and turn square corners when plowing, thus fulfilling an corners somewhat more readily and allowing the operator at will to plow round a field as with an ordinary horse plow. The main disadvantages lie in the fact that such an outfit tends toward either excessive height or excessive length to accommodate the plover, in that the distribution of weight if proper for plowing, is less efficient at other work, and that in case of making there is opportunity to disengage the plover quickly and reverse tractor and plover separately. The self-lift plover threatens to lessen the opportunity for this type.

A tractor somewhat upon the order of the most popular type in Germany, but much smaller, consists of a balanced frame supported by two narrow drive wheels of large diameter. The motor forward balance the plover in the rear. Ease in steering, good clearance, and simplicity are the main advantages.

Several years ago the writer was moved to remark upon the possibility of a power plant which might be attached in turn to various ordinary farm machines to make them self-propelling. Such is the purpose of one manufacturer who creates, in many cases, a light, two-wheeled chassis, the operator controlling it from the seat of the implement drawn behind.

A type given considerable prominence about two years ago but apparently so far lacking in some vital mechanical refinement is the motor hoe, or cultivator, similar to the type described here, but carrying light tools attached, while guided by an operator who must walk and hold the handles.

Soil Milling Machines

A final type, not yet commercially important, is a class of rotary soil cultivators or milling machines. One of Swiss invention is now being manufactured in the United States. The interesting feature is the working tool, which consists of a drum-like arrangement of flexible steel springs, each carrying a flexible claw at the end. At a speed of 150 revolutions per minute the work of this tool is surprising, whether in hard, soft, foil or stony ground. Scratching the earth, rather than cutting it pulverizes to a maximum depth of 12 inches and presents a superior seed bed at once. From the economical standpoint the work is most excellent. Mechanically, considering only the tool, and assuming that the tractor and method of driving the tool are good, being con-

ventional, there is only the question of replacements to springs and teeth to consider, as the work is satisfactory. Economically there comes the question of how many will (not should) introduce a tillage method which apparently consumes so much power (three acres a day—10 to 12 inches deep—is the capacity of a 1,400-pound machine similar to the one illustrated). A one trip over the ground is made, however, as against several with ordinary implements preparatory to planting, and it has been found that the working tool—not the drivers—actually propels the outfit while working. Crop increases, after all, should pay well for the extra cost of work. Other rotary machines, larger and less successful, have been made, but none of commercial importance.

The number and variety of small tractors is so great that this article has been able merely to touch briefly upon tendencies, general principles, and something of the present status of the industry. In the face of such evident disagreement as to the eventual type, the safest course in buying is to investigate all claims thoroughly, and insist that the product shall be past the experimental stage, and the firm behind it permanent and substantial.

The Windage of Shot

THE present hostilities in Europe have revived the old discussion as to wind-contusions caused by shot and shell and some strange stories have been told of men dying or seriously injured without external signs of wounds. The question that has been raised is, Can the displacement of the air caused by the passage of a projectile produce serious and even fatal organic lesions when a man is not struck by the shot?

It was customary in former days to attribute to this trauma without contact the most singular derangements and even sudden death. When, however, the French military surgeons of the republic and the empire entertained the question, the problem was solved, which attributed such results to the windage of cannon balls and shells broke down before the analysis of the actual facts.

A physician, discussing the question in the *Paris Temps*, speaks of Larrey, the noted army surgeon of the era of the first Napoleon who "showed, in the face of the facts presented to the Surgeon-General, that what had been related of the phenomenon disappeared into the domain of legend or arose, rather from a wrong interpretation. After the appearance of this memoir the question was considered as finally settled and the troubles on military surgeons during the nineteenth century definitely ignored it."

Nevertheless, the question is as vehemently argued and reargued in this age as it has been brought up anew by the occurrences of the present war. Our author in discussing the problem under its present form says further:

"On one side and another facts are quoted which seem to compel us to acknowledge that disorders caused by the passage or the sudden sharp combustion of a projectile in the neighborhood of a man are perfectly admissible. Lavoisier and Chevreton have named to the French Académie de Médecine soldiers who have been made deaf, probably permanently by the bursting of a shell near them. There are cases where an ordinary ball which only touched the external parts of the ear has caused a perforation of the membrane of the eardrum that, Moutonnet's recent finding it, the question seems more one of analogy than of actual identity. The physician of the *Temps* in presenting this view of the subject says:

"The difference between the projectiles of to-day and those of former times is so great, their speed has increased so remarkably, and, above all, the combustible element has such great power, that the present testimony has seemed to explain the mysteries of past eras. We are obliged today to admit that the bursting of the formidable projectiles used by the armies must produce extraordinary differences of pressure and that

necessarily, at least within a certain radius, these differences can induce lesions serious for the organisms which suffer them. This has now been proved, but in this alone is summed up for the surgery of the present war the problem of windage, the elements of which have varied to a singular degree since the days it was proposed for the first time and ever since the epoch when Larrey totally denied its existence."

Why a Whip "Cracks"

WHY does a whip "crack"? Probably the commonest most adept at the art would not be able to tell you. And no wonder. For the reason is one that has puzzled some of the greatest authorities on dynamics. An explanation was tentatively offered recently by Prof. C. V. Roy in the course of the series of lectures for juveniles at the Royal Institution. Briefly, it has to do with the fact that, owing to the action of centrifugal and other forces, the speed at which the whip travels through the air is greater and greater throughout its length, and so great at the end that it comes up to the velocity of sound.

"Mechanics in the Home" is the alluring title of the series of lectures, and he must have of very interesting experiments the professor showed what are the principles underlying various everyday and, apparently, simple devices. Friction, for instance, is one of the greatest. To the wonderment of his boy and girl audience, Prof. Roy took some "safety" matches out of a "strike only here" box, and set them alight with the greatest ease on a glass tumbler and on a piece of mahogany. They thought it was a miracle, until the lecturer explained that the friction was sufficient to make the match get hotter and hotter until it flamed. But, he added, the surface on which a "safety" match is struck must be perfectly smooth, otherwise the roughness will rub off the substance on the tip. It is friction, too, which prevents a wheel from slipping on a road, or the blow that has driven it into, say, a log of wood.

Approach of "impact considered as a self-adjusting leverage in time," the boys learned why, when a cricket ball is hit too near the end of the bat, the hand is stung. It is because the impact, coming at that particular point, drives the bat up. Just as it did to both ends of a stick which, when the instructor broke it by a sharp blow exactly in the middle, flew away in halves, leaving undisturbed two water-filled glasses on which it was resting.

Motion Pictures in Medical Schools

THE motion picture has invaded the realm of medical school instruction. The specialists in diagnosis have discovered that there is no other way in which they can so vividly present to medical students the differences in diagnosis between similar physical appearances as by means of the motion picture. Dr. J. Ivan Dufur, professor of nervous diseases at the Philadelphia College of Osteopathy, is the originator of this method of teaching which, it is believed, will revolutionize medical instruction. Dr. Dufur has, as the result of a year's labor, succeeded in preparing a set of records, including demonstrations of actual cases of every one of the principal nervous diseases. Harrowing experiences were necessary in the preparation of some of these reels. Dr. Dufur and the photographer were locked for four hours at one time in a room with a dozen insane epileptics waiting for a characteristic fit.

The osteopathic practitioners are greatly interested in this method of diagnosis and these reels are being exhibited at State conventions of that school of practice and are being used in their colleges.

The Current Supplement

THE leading article in the current SUPPLEMENT of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, No. 3946, for April 3rd, 1915, A Record of Achievement, is a discussion of what the chemist has contributed to the industrial development of this country of the utmost importance to every manufacturer and citizen, and its author is an acknowledged authority on the subject. I should have been told of a rapid method of hauling this material from the ship to the railroad. Shorlanding describes a valuable process for rust-proofing metals. The Zeppelin Question gives many timely details relating to the size and capacity of these much-talked-of aircraft. The Influence of Radio-active Earth on Plant Growth describes some most interesting practical experiments on the application of radium waste to agriculture. The Effects of Climate on the Location of Manufacturing Plants discusses an economic question that has not heretofore been properly appreciated by those who control industrial enterprises. The New Knowledge of Coal Tar is a most valuable explanation of scientific methods for the utilization of all the constituents of coal, many of which are now wasted. The article on Photographing Projectiles is condensed, but there are some interesting articles on Gasoline Locomotives and Some Questions of Evolution.

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

National Defense Approved

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN
You are doing a most patriotic work in your advocacy of adequate national defense. The writer, while welcoming any expression of this idea, was a bit surprised to see this most vital matter referred to in no less an organ than the church calendar of one of the most powerful of our city churches. Given in such places is bound to work
II A. FREEMAN
Newark, N. J

Origin of Khaki Uniform

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

In the issue of February 6th, on page 124, the statement is made in the article "The Art of Deception in War," that "the Boer war khaki first came into general use in 1878." This is a mistake. The use of khaki has been in use in the British army on active service for more than forty years. It was in use in the Jowaki Expedition in 1877. Again all troops (British and native) engaged in the Afghanistan war, 1878-79-80, wore khaki. The British army has worn khaki since the sword belts and saber scabbards were tan colored leather, helmets were covered with khaki covers and jinglers. Buttons and buckles were not polished. The pomp of the parade ground was entirely absent in the campaign of that war, 1878, the carrying of colors into the field abandoned, they being lost with the depots at the base.

By the way, khaki is a Hindoostani word meaning brown
W A MAYES
Mt Penn, Pa

Left Hand vs. Right Hand Drive

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I notice in your issue of January 23rd an article by C. C. Blackburne, entitled "Left-hand vs. Right-hand Drive," in which he states that there is not a tendency for the right-hand drive to be superior to the left-hand drive. With all due respect to Mr. Blackburne, I fail to see how he reaches the conclusions he does, unless conditions in Ohio are much different from what they are in and about New York. I have driven both right and left-hand drive cars in Ohio, and I have never observed any such thing. I must say that everything is in favor of the old right-hand drive. The only possible exception to the above is the town car, built exclusively for city use. On such a car left-hand drive is often convenient, but to my mind the difficulties of making a decent landing for the car on the curb, and the extra cost, more than outweigh any possible advantage.

For touring and general pleasure driving the right-hand drive is the safest and most convenient, and, moreover, it is a fact that drivers of left-hand drive cars, do have a tendency to "hog the road" in passing the reason, I think, is obvious to anyone who has driven a left-hand drive car as well as a right-hand drive. The driver of a left-hand drive car can see as far ahead just how much room he has in passing a vehicle moving in the opposite direction, but what he *cannot* see is just how much room he has between his right wheels and the edge of the road, which more than likely is soft, or even unsafe. This *result*, and it is a perfectly natural one, is that he turns out *only* just enough to clear the vehicle he is passing, and he is left with a clearance of from two to three feet of good road on the right, while the clearance on the left is a matter of inches.

The driver of a right-hand drive car can see exactly how much room he has on the right, between his car and the edge of the road, and so he knows just how far he can safely turn out in passing. He cannot see so well how much room he has on the left, but he knows from the width of the road that if he hangs well to his own side there is plenty of room. The result is that he turns out to the right, not as in the case of the left-hand drive, only just enough to clear the approaching vehicle, but as far as he can, and passes the vehicle on his left by a safe margin.

There is probably some psychology involved in this reason, which may be stated as follows: When a driver has to pass two things simultaneously, when an exact position in reference to himself he can see with different degrees of exactitude, he will naturally tend to pass the one he can see the best, by the smallestest margin, in order to allow as much room as possible, and thus be on the safe side, in passing the other obstacle whose position he cannot see so clearly. The same reason may be avoided by conversing the approximate values and positions of the objects, and thus maintain a focus, race, telegraph pole, or may be soft or otherwise dangerous. For this reason, a driver of a right-

hand drive car will avoid the other vehicle, and pass well to the right, while the driver of the left-hand drive car will avoid the edge of the road, and "hog the road."

There are many other things that could be said in favor of the right-hand drive, but the article I refer to in your issue of the 23rd instant only treats of hogging the road as applied to right and left-hand driven cars, and so I will limit this communication to the things mentioned therein. I feel certain that if an investigation were started, based on actual observation and inquiry, the great majority of cases would turn out as I have stated.

O. B. POTTLE.

Oswining, N. Y.

Nature Our Most Available and Reliable Ally

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN
The only life-sustaining element that man cannot use to excess is air. To provide for its purity and make every breath a fresh one, the warmth of the outgoing breath instantly escapes upward, and is Nature's bar to suffocation. Medical inhalation would be impossible apart from its being ingrafted upon the breathing function.

With anesthetics were ingrafted upon the breathing function in 1846 there was no recognition of Nature's protection against asphyxiation in the outgoing breath because of its warmth. In fact, no little thought has been given to this wise provision of Nature, that a vast majority of our most intelligent citizens are unable to tell why every breath we take must be a fresh one. Is it strange, then, that when the inhalation of ether and chloroform was ingrafted upon the breathing function, this natural law should have been entirely ignored? The fact is, that although the medical profession constitutes the most thoughtless misrepresentation of natural law of the century.

In June, 1908, a specialist became impressed with the idea that all drugs used by inhalation should be normally diluted with air, so that the medical effects should be added to the ordinary life-sustaining breathing function, and he made the drawings for a glass device that, by the shape of the bulb and direction of the internal air tubes, should cause a revolving current of air over the medicament within, thus diluting the medication with the natural amount of air

This device was taken to the annual meeting of the Massachusetts Medical Society and exhibited with anesthetics in turn for the first time. They created much interest and surprise that, though open at both ends, there was no escape or ejection of the ether or chloroform, and that the pressure within the apparatus was maintained to 71 mm. Fahr's atmospheric pressure held in check the expansive, evaporative force of these anesthetics. Using this as a basis, it was found that each additional degree of heat increased their expansive, evaporative pressure one pound, which, with the automatic regulating current of air, have proved to us that the muscous membrane, and deaths following anesthetic use, are not due to the pressure of the gas, but to the want of breath as Nature has done in the function of breathing and not, as we supposed, by the anesthetics themselves.

By its producing the conditions of natural sleep, it shows us that the natural action of anesthesia embraces only the functions under mental control, and does not interfere with the automatic action of the striated muscular fibers of the heart and organs that sustain life when we are unconscious. It has also shown that ether bears the same effective relation to chloroform that light wines do to whiskey and brandy, and that the vital effect of anesthesia upon the human system is much the same as intoxication, only the recovery from anesthesia was as complete in as many minutes as it took hours from alcoholics.

The presentation of these facts has changed the medical conviction so long announced by our Government, that "chloroform was a dangerous drug and never should be used save by a physician or in his presence," to allowing its sale at any drug store in America, to anybody without reference to a physician or his order.

No remedy known to man so uniformly and quickly relieves suffering, and it is the *only one* that suspends its own use as soon as relief comes. Its wonderful power of producing muscular relaxation is likely to revolutionize the treatment of spasmodic affections.

Troops to Guard the Coast

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

In the February 6th issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, on page 120, attention is called to the need of "coast guard" troops which will be necessary to guard the approaches to our cities, the coast defense works at and about our harbors, this force being estimated at nineteen divisions or about 380,000 troops, of which 275,000 will be required on the Atlantic coast

The writer would like to call attention to the fact that there is no distinction between the "coast guard" as used in the article referred to and the "mobile

army." Coast-land in this sense is a misnomer, as the term is already in use by the Government in connection with the Life-Saving Service. Its use is applied to a part of the national defense should be discontinued, as it is a misunderstanding and false impression in the public mind. Our coast-guard is not the military service is the mobile army, and the only coast-guard we should have or need is a well-organized mobile army, fully equipped and trained to move at a moment's notice to any threatened point or points. The navy is not the coast-guard, and the coast-guard is not the navy, the mobile army, the coast or harbor army. If the navy be defeated, ended or bottled up, an enemy is free to land anywhere on our shores that it pleases him, except in the fortified harbors. The only defense against such a move is a mobile army. The other coast-guard is the coast or harbor army, the coast or harbor artillery, whose role is strictly limited to water approaches of our fortified harbors.

If one will consult the "Report on the Organization of the Land Forces" published by the War Department in 1912, he will find therein the most perfect plan for organization of our land forces ever promulgated. It is the result of years of conscientious labor and study by the General Staff of our needs for adequate defense, and it is a most satisfactory compromise between the demands of the military ideal on the one hand and our national traditions of a small standing army on the other.

As is well known from the reports in the press, there has been drawn up, by a committee of the General Staff, a measure in form of legislation which puts into practical form the provisions of the "Report on Organization of 1912." It is this measure which Senator Chamberlain gave notice to Congress and the people that he would call for at the next session, and is the first comprehensive measure ever offered to Congress in the line of legislation for the land forces. All branches and arms are considered and provided for—mobile army and coast artillery—and the first step toward putting our defenses in a state of reasonable preparedness should be to enact this General Staff measure into a law.

The greatest defect in our land defense is the lack of organization of the mobile army. The writer of the series of articles now running in the *SOUTHERN AMERICAN* clearly demonstrates that point and the urgent need of a reasonable increase in the numbers of both branches of the land defense. The mobile army, however, is the "coast guard" as he uses the term. We have no other use for a mobile army than just so far as it is to be used against an enemy, certainly not for anything else. If our army or navy have occasion to use it to be used we must of necessity be in such a position, so far as our enemy is concerned, that we shall need no coast protection.

In view of the importance of this question of our preparedness, or lack of it, to meet any reasonable danger which may confront us as a nation it is suggested that a study of the advice of the military experts whose business it is to provide for our defense and to advise us as to the equipment we require, be made. The money will enable the taxpayer to decide for himself what is our most pressing need at this time. For this purpose, it is imperative that the measure proposed by the General Staff for this very contingency be placed before the people in Congress at the earliest possible moment at the coming session. It is the duty of every citizen to make it his business to see that his Representatives in Congress shall put that question before the people and to see that that question is carried into law without delay.

THOMAS BROWN

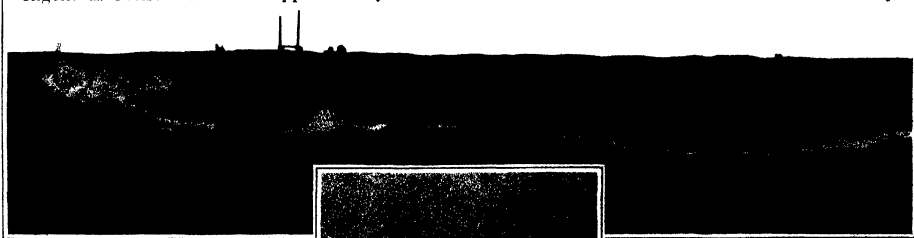
[There is a very distinct line of demarcation between the coast guard troops and the mobile army. The coast guard troops comprise some nineteen divisions when brought to full strength, and will be stationed in the vicinity of cities, naval bases, etc., and are intended as a defense against raiding parties from fleets.

A modern fleet is capable of landing several thousand men. It will be impossible to split up the mobile army (field army) with a view to protecting these many different points, all liable to attack by landing parties from the rear and no portion of the 500,000 men less 40,000 coast artillery (approximately) could be sent to different supports as coast defense troops without serious crippling the field army. If this was attempted more than one of the main lines of the rear would be exposed and it would be required for this duty on the Atlantic coast alone. It will, therefore, be necessary to organize some nineteen coast guard divisions of all arms for this work, if both coasts are to be covered simultaneously.

While coast guard troops are mobile troops, they are not organized into field armies, but are stationed in the force needed at the various points liable to attack. The organization of these troops is not in conflict with the organization of the land forces, but is a force which must be organized in addition to the force of 500,000 therein referred to, if important coast cities, harbors, naval bases, etc., are to be securely held.—Editor.]

The Submarine at Sea

Ingenious Construction and Appliances by Which the Submarine Has Obtained Its Present Efficiency



The United States submarine "G-2"

running full speed at the surface.

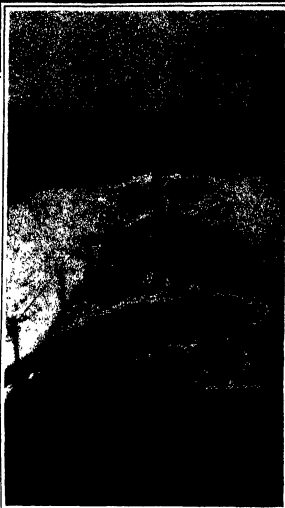
ALTHOUGH there are various well-known types of submarine, they all have certain fundamental features in common. The present description applies broadly to any of the vessels of this type, but more particularly to those which at present compose the majority of the vessels of this class in the United States Navy.

The form of hull is generally described as cigar-shaped. It is built of the very best quality of mild steel and the workmanship is of the highest order, for the reason that every seam and rivet must be perfectly tight, in view of the service which the boat is called upon to perform. Not only do vessels of this type undergo all the stresses of sea and weather which other vessels are subjected to, but, in addition, they are required to navigate at considerable depths below the surface of the water. At these depths the pressure of the water is great, so that the hull must be made sufficiently strong to withstand it.

About five years ago it was considered that the most efficient size for a boat was about 140 feet long and 11 feet in diameter. With such dimensions a boat was built which fulfilled all requirements which the naval authorities of the world demanded from it. That is to say, it could cruise on the surface for long distances at a speed of fourteen knots. At lower speeds its radius of action extended to several thousand miles. Several boats of this class are in service in our Navy. For submerged work large storage batteries are provided, which furnish energy sufficient to drive the boat from ten to eleven knots for a period of over an hour. The same electrical energy will drive her at a lower speed for a much longer time. The later submarines are much larger. The "G-4" type of 1912 are 157 feet long, 17½ feet diameter and carry four 18 inch tubes. The Electric Boat Company have under construction a new type, of which we give an illustration, which is of 265 feet length, 23 feet beam, with a surface speed of 11 to 15 knots and a maximum speed of 20 knots. The radius of action is from 3,500 to 6,000 miles, according to the speed. It will be armed with four torpedo tubes, at the bow, two at the stern, and four on the deck, and it carries fourteen torpedoes.

There are two distinct conditions in which the boat may be used. In the first, commonly known as the surface condition, the boat is prepared for cruising. A considerable portion of her hull is above water, a removable hawthorn bridge is in place, and she is driven by large, powerful, internal-combustion engines. Under these conditions she is managed in about the same way as any vessel built to run upon the surface. As for sea-going qualities, our submarines have been found in practice to be excellent. In ordinary weather they are fully as comfortable as any surface craft of the same dimensions, and even in the heaviest weather they are entirely seaworthy.

The second distinct condition exists when the boat is submerged. To pass from the surface to the submerged condition, certain valves in the interior of the boat are opened. This allows the water from the sea to run into great tanks built within the boat, and thus steadily sink her. These tanks are closely gauged, so that just the required amount of water is taken in. Under normal conditions, when the boat is at rest with the ballast tanks filled, she will have a few hundred pounds reserve buoyancy, which is represented by the top of her conning tower protruding



Driving into a choppy sea.

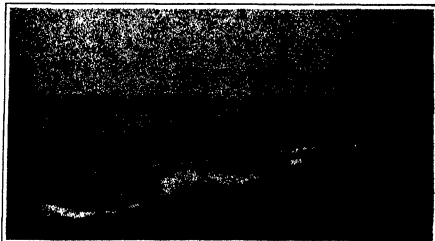
above the water. If desired, this buoyancy may be entirely destroyed by admitting a small additional amount of water, equal in volume to the volume of that part of the conning tower above water. While in the submerged condition, all communication with the outside atmosphere is necessarily cut off. The crew then breathes the air contained in the body of the boat. The amount of air originally contained within the hull is sufficient to support life with comfort at least twenty-four hours. But, in addition to the air thus contained, the boat carries a large supply of compressed air in steel tanks, which, if used for breathing purposes, would be sufficient for a number of days.

After having brought the boat to the submerged condition in the manner above described, powerful electric motors are started by throwing in a switch. These motors derive their energy from storage batteries contained in the boat and drive the propellers. The same storage batteries furnish current for numerous auxiliary motors used for pumping, steering, handling tor-

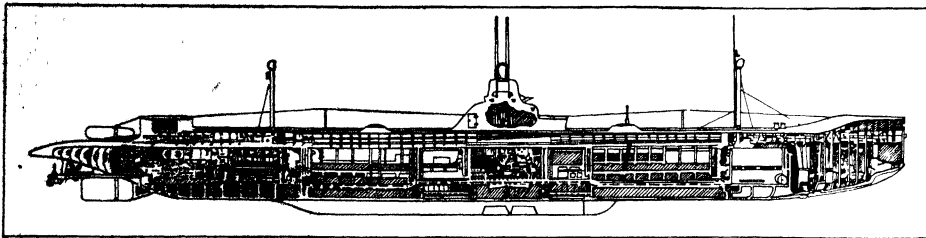
pedoes, etc. The motion of the boat when under way is controlled by two sets of rudders; one of these sets, known as the vertical rudders, directs the boat's course to port or starboard just as does the rudder of an ordinary ship. In addition, there are provided horizontal rudders, which serve to control the motion of the boat in a vertical plane; that is to say, the depth at which she runs is regulated by these rudders. For steering in the horizontal plane, instruments are provided, so that the boat may be navigated with the same degree of accuracy as boats on the surface. The first of these instruments is known as a periscope. This consists of a vertical tube which extends from above the surface of the water to a few feet within the submarine. At the top of the tube is an object glass, at the bottom an eye-piece. Two reflecting mirrors, one at the top, the other at the bottom of the vertical tube, cause the image to be transferred from the object glass to the eye-piece. The operator can turn the periscope so as to sweep the whole horizon. To the writer, who once made a five-hour trip in one of our boats, the view was as clear as though he were at the surface looking through an ordinary field glass. Hence, when running submerged with the top of the periscope just out of the water, the navigator can see by day with perfect ease surrounding objects. If for any reason it should be desired to run at a still greater depth, compasses are provided by which the course may be steered with accuracy. For steering, submerged, in the vertical plane, instruments are provided which in a way take the place of the compass. One of these is a large pressure gauge, which indicates the depth at which the boat is running. Another is a form of spirit level, which indicates the inclination of her axis. By the use of this, the man controlling the horizontal rudder is able to run at a perfectly even depth. While in the submerged condition, the boat is, of course, amply illuminated by electric lights. There are no ports or windows in the boat, and, so far as sensations are concerned, one is unable to determine whether he is running on the surface or submerged.

The arm of the submarine is the automobile torpedo. A number of these may be carried. They are discharged through tubes located in the bow or stern of the boat. Any type of automobile torpedo may be used. In view of the fact that the submarine is enabled to approach, unseen, to within a few yards, if desired, of the most powerful battleship, a long-range torpedo is not required. For this reason the weight devoted to motive power in the ordinary torpedo may be largely used to increase the charge of explosive, so that the destructive power can be made much greater for this particular type. Thus, the weapons used by the German submarines are credited with being the enormous charge of 420 pounds of explosive, and their range is about 1,200 yards.

The present war afforded the submarine its first opportunity to exhibit its powers of offense; and it must be admitted that it has more than vindicated the faith and patience of its inventors. The roll of its victims is formidable. Early in the war a single German submarine, "U-24," sank within the hour three large British 12,000-ton armored cruisers. Later, a British battleship was torpedoed and sank in the English Channel. To this must be added a Turkish battleship and a long list of smaller cruisers and merchantmen.



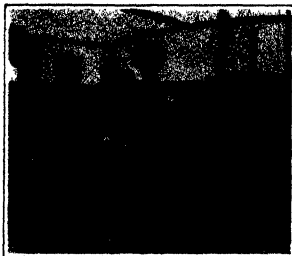
Lifting to sea while running awash.



Longitudinal section through a typical German submarine

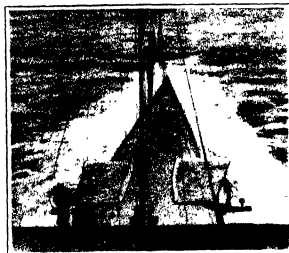
Teak Wood

THE consumption of teak has increased considerably during the last two decades. Besides its extensive employment in ship building in England and the manufacture of railway carriages in India, it is now used in increasing quantities in Europe for building purposes. The recent rapid growth of the European fleets has caused an enormously increased use of teak in spite of the marked tendency to employ as little wood as possible in the construction of warships. About 1,000 tons, or approximately half a million board feet, of the best grades of teak are used in the construction of a modern man-of-war. In order to replace the ships which have thus far been sunk or otherwise destroyed in the European war, hundreds of millions of feet will be required. This increased consumption of teak which is bound to follow the close of the present war, cannot be met by Burma and Siam. Formerly Burma alone supplied all the teak used by the English Admiralty, because it was considered better than that from Siam, but the demand for teak from both sources is likely to be very great, not only in Europe, but also in America, and prices are apt to rule very high.



The bridge of U.S.S. "G-2."

As fitted for surface cruising. This structure is made of portable parts, door, searchlight, rails, steering wheel, compass, chart table, searchlight and ventilator, all of which can be removed in a short time and stowed below decks or in the hollow superstructure, leaving nothing but the bare conning tower, as shown in the photograph.

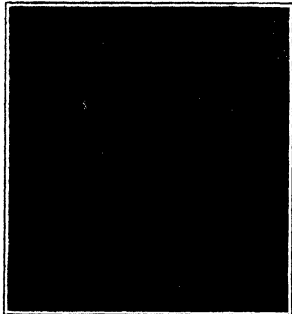


Forward deck of U.S.S. "G-2."

Showing two of the lateral planes of diving rudders folded to the deck for surface running. The photo shows the operating for submerging are folded outward and its built outwards on a shaft which is controlled from either the conning tower or operating room. The wireless mast is portable and when the vessel is in submerging trim is lashed to the deck.

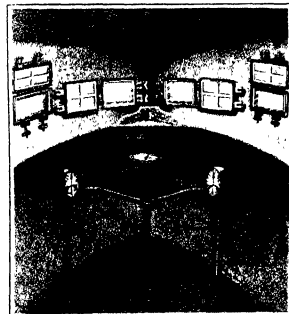
Loco-weed Poisoning in Sheep

AS is well known, great uncertainty has always attached to the nature and precise origin of the so-called loco disease, which is commonly regarded as one of the great scourges of the Western cattle ranges and is attributed to eating certain species of the genus *Lepidoloma* and *Tragacalia* known as loco-weed. A recent contribution to this subject by H. T. Marshall, published in the *Bulletin* of Johns Hopkins Hospital, is based upon experiments in feeding *Tragacalia spicata* to sheep in Montana. The author finds that none of the abnormalities encountered in the sheep could be attributed to the weed, but were due either to insufficient food or to forms of parasitic infection. He is convinced that "there are several diseases of Western live stock masquerading under the general name 'loco disease,'" and says further, "I, therefore, think there is reason to be doubtful as to the existence of pure, bona fide loco-weed poisoning, and I hold that it is perfectly certain that the loco losses attributed to loco-weed disease are at least in large measure due to other causes." These conclusions are not in accord with those of the *Bulletin* on loco-weed disease published a few years ago by the Bureau of Animal Industry, in which it is stated that "there is no longer any question in regard to the poisonous properties of the loco plants," and that the opinions prevailing among stockmen as to the symptoms of loco disease are quite correct. There is much other literature concerning this disease, access to which is most readily obtained through the indexes of the Experiment Station Record.



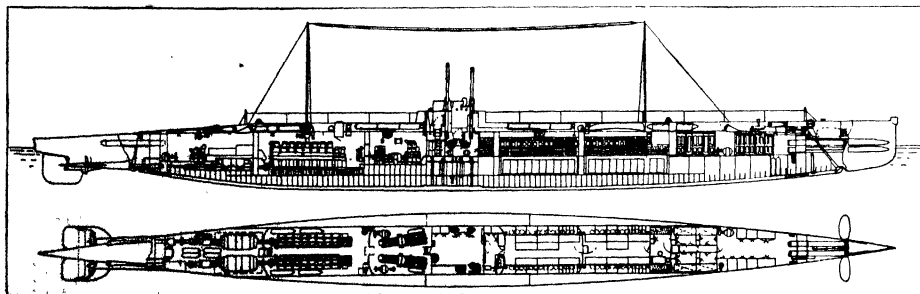
The navigating compartment of U.S.S. "G-2."

In this space all controls of the submarine are located. Our illustration shows the gyroscopic compass, the steering wheel, the rudder indicator, and the indicator showing the roll of the vessel. The door leads into the torpedo room. In a very small amount of room, a remarkable number of instruments must be ingeniously disposed in this manner.



In the conning tower of U.S.S. "G-2."

In this small compartment are displayed, of all angles indicators and operating devices, with full control from the main operating room. In the forward end, as shown, are four wireless which give the navigator when the boat is running, a view of the horizon. When totally submerged these masts are protected by steel shutters which are screwed tight.



Longitudinal and plan views of a submarine of the Laurenti type.

Röntgen Motion Pictures

The Remarkable Dessauer Process

In a magnetic field the secondary discharge acquires a spiral shape.

THE older forms of apparatus for preparing X-ray photographs of parts of the human body made use of a continuous discharge vacuum tube, and a more or less prolonged exposure of the photographic plate.

While this method is satisfactory enough for diagnostic fractures of bones, for example, it has a very obvious drawback when applied to most of the internal organs of the body. Some of these, as the lungs, the heart, and the alimentary canal have a proper motion of their own. Others, like the liver, follow the rhythmic contraction of the diaphragm. In all such cases a "time" exposure can give only a blurred image of the general shape of the organ, and fails to show sharp outlines. This defect is serious enough if all that is wanted is an approximate picture of the particular organ under examination. It is a complete bar to success if the actual motion of an organ, such as the heart, is to be observed. One of the first to point to this defect in the older method of X-ray photography was Dr. P. H. Eijkman of the Hague. Dr. Eijkman was making a radiographic study of the movements of the pharynx in the act of swallowing. With great patience he succeeded, by special devices, in obtaining the required views. But as he pointed out at the time, the whole process would have been immensely simplified if he had had at his disposal means for taking a rapid succession of snapshots.

The matter was taken up by Friedrich Dessauer of Frankfurt a/M., director of one of the largest X-ray tube works in the world, and well known for his valuable contributions especially to the applications of physics in therapeutics and surgery. Our readers may recall that we recently (*SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, July 11th, 1914, p. 30) had occasion to refer to his latest achievement, the production by means of an X-ray tube, of radiation practically identical with the gamma rays of radium.

It is most instructive to follow somewhat in detail the principles involved in the problem of X-ray cinematography and the argument followed by Dessauer in his solution.

It should be explained that, in order to produce the required effect upon a photographic plate, it is necessary that a certain definite amount of energy reach the plate. Now with X-ray tubes as ordinarily employed, it required about one thousand impulses from the machine to furnish the requisite energy. The problem, then, was to increase the energy of the discharge that a single impulse was sufficient to produce the image on the plate.

It is interesting to observe how this is accomplished by Dessauer. In the first place a very powerful induction coil is used. In ordinary practice a coil having an iron core weighing a few pounds is considered large. Dessauer's primary core weighs three hundredweight.

Now a core of this size requires an exceedingly heavy current to energize it, some 250 to 300 amperes. The problem, therefore, arises, how is this current to be drawn from ordinary electric mains? At this and private laboratories 20 to 40 amperes is usually about the limit of current available.

The way out of the difficulty is found by considering the time factor. The iron core requires four one hundredths of a second to be energized. If precautions are taken that the current shut under no circumstances last for longer than four hundredths of a second, it can, without damage to any part of the circuit, be taken from the ordinary electric mains. At the same time it is very essential that the interruption of the current be made as abrupt as possible.

These were the principles upon which the solution of the problem was based, and the Dessauer "lightning cartridge" constructed. The idea is to cause an explosive disruption of the circuit immediately after it is closed. The cartridge consists of a fine metal wire, one third of a millimeter thick, embedded in a plaster of paris matrix. When a heavy current is allowed to

pass through this, the wire does not melt, but is gashed with explosive violence. This cartridge is inserted in series in the primary circuit of the induction coil. Measurements made on an apparatus of this construction showed a current of 400 milliamperes in the secondary. Ordinary X-ray apparatus employ a current of at most 10 milliamperes. The spark from the secondary is exceedingly violent, resembling a flame in appearance. If allowed to pass within the magnetic field of the primary it assumes a spiral twist as shown in our headpiece on the left.

The problem of X-ray snapshot photography being thus solved, it now remained to construct an apparatus for making a number of exposures in rapid succession after the manner of the moving picture process. It was decided to use plates and considerable difficulties were encountered in providing for the rapid intermittent motion of the parts, while yet avoiding all jerks. Finally, a device was evolved, which is shown in our central engraving at the head of this article. The plate is allowed to swing into place with a pendulum motion, and the exposure is made through automatic contacts at the moment when the plate hangs in its vertical position. This arrangement is preferable to one in which the plate moves laterally through the field, for any slight motion which takes place during exposure is in the direction in which the X-rays hit the plate, and, therefore, has practically no disturbing effects upon the definition. After exposure the plate falls down a chute, making way for the next plate to be exposed. Eight plates can thus be exposed in rapid succession in one second.

Some idea of the requirements to be met in photographing physiological subjects can be gained from an example. The heart normally beats about seventy-two times a minute, or in other words, completes one cycle in 0.85 of a second. As a matter of fact the contraction (systole) of the heart is much more rapid than its expansion (diastole), lasting only about one twentieth of a second. Inasmuch as some parts of the heart move through almost an entire inch, it will be seen what rapid exposure is needed to obtain a sharp representation of its action. One of our illustrations shows six exposures of the beating heart made during one cycle by the Dessauer process. Another set of photographs reproduced on the opposite page shows a kinesiographic study of the act of swallowing. The photographs clearly show the motions of the food, of the tongue bone (hyoid bone), and the epiglottis (a cartilaginous lid that covers the larynx in swallowing, to prevent food from "going the wrong way").

It is needless to point out that X-ray pictures thus taken in rapid succession can be combined to reproduce as a moving picture the motion of the organ studied.

Itakolumite, a Flexible Stone

WE are so accustomed to think of stone as something perfectly rigid—"hard as a stone" is a common expression—that it is difficult to conceive of a

The violent secondary discharge is like a long flaming tongue of light.

stone that is as flexible as India rubber. It is generally known, indeed, that thin sheets of mica and threads of asbestos possess some degree of flexibility and elasticity, but a thick stone plate that bends under its own weight is a rare and striking phenomenon, that is exhibited only by certain varieties of Itakolumite. "Itakolumite," says *Prometheus*, "is a yellow or pale red sandstone of slaty structure, containing many little plates of mica, grains of talc and chlorite, and extremely fine particles of felspar, with traces of iron pyrites, magnetite, and pure gold. It is the mother rock of Brazilian diamonds. In Brazil Itakolumite is found in great masses, resting upon gneiss and associated with crystalline slates. Not all Itakolumite is flexible. The flexible variety was first discovered in 1790. In view of the well-known properties of mica it is natural to ascribe the flexibility of Itakolumite to the mica which it contains. Not a trace of flexibility, however, is exhibited by some varieties of Itakolumite that contain very large proportions of mica. When flexible Itakolumite is cut into thin plates and examined with a microscope it is found to be composed almost entirely of the grains of sand of peculiar shape, with indented edges, which interlock like the fingers of the clasped hands. The flexibility of the material results from this interlocking of the grains of sand in which it is chiefly composed.

"A plate of Itakolumite set on edge ways to and fro like a piece of leather. A thick plate supported at both ends bends so that it becomes concave above. If it is supported at its middle it becomes convex above. Smaller plates, an inch or more in thickness and 6 or 8 inches long, can be bent with the hands like strips of India rubber."

More Mysteries of Ultra-violet Light

By Dr. Leonard Keene Hirschberg, A.B., M.A., M.D. (Johns Hopkins)

EVER since Prof. Becquerel showed the wonders of ultra-violet light, the science of physics has made day by day added more and more wonderful knowledge to the subject.

It was until recently thought that the curious chemical action of the ultra-violet radiations were peculiar to it; that negative and films and photographic plates were acted upon solely by the chemical powers of the ultra-violet light. Now, however, it is known that red, blue, infra-red, yellow, green, and the other kinds of light all have chemical powers of more or less strength. These chemical influences will also act upon a film or plate and yield a photograph.

Recently much credence has been given to the proposal of such distinguished savants as Prof. Arrhenius of Stockholm and Dr. Thomas S. Blair of Philadelphia that cosmic dust, shooting stars, meteors, comets, and the like carry life from planet to planet. That the germs of life of minute animals and plants have their origins in some such fashion as that.

Now it is known that the ultra-violet rays when directed for varying periods of time upon an hour or several hours will kill all life. It is also realized and admitted by all physiologists that outer space is permeated by ultra-violet light.

Therefore, any man who jumps quickly, at conclusions, it is manifestly impossible for life to be transmitted from planet to planet and star to star as these noted investigators have claimed.

Yet stop a while! Newer investigations just announced by the illustrious Dr. Alphonse Berget show that Dr. Blair, Prof. Arrhenius, Dr. Becquerel, and others who hold that the specks of life are thus sent by the Creator from star to star are feasible in every way.

Ultra-violet light like gravitation is weaker and weaker the farther you get away from any spot. Therefore, 86,000,000 miles of separation between the sun and the earth weakens the ultra-violet rays very much. More



Friedrich Dessauer.

over, and this is the important point, the ultra-violet rays really act by "rusting," "burning," or "oxidizing" the things acted upon. That is to say they kill and exert a chemical action by virtue of the oxygen in the air.

Since there is no oxygen or atmosphere out in space, since it takes some hours for ultra-violet rays to kill, show also a meteor full of life bursts through the atmospheric curtain or envelope of the earth in a flash. It follows that life could thus be transmitted through space without trouble to the scientific mind.

Further than this, Prof. Roux, another French research student, put living spores in a vacuum—a jar freed of all oxygen and air—and kept these minute living things exposed for six months to ultra-violet light, and they were alive at the end of this time.

All of which goes to show that it is not beyond the bounds of reason, religion, or raving to maintain that life came to the earth through the travels of scurrying " vitality" from world to world on the saddle of comets, cosmic dust, and meteors.

The Same Chemical Element May Have Different Atomic Weights

UNTIL recently it has been assumed that a given chemical element must always possess the same atomic weight no matter from what mineral it is obtained. The inclusion of the radioactive elements in the periodic system, effected by Fajans and also by Soddy about a year ago, shows that we must assume the existence of elements which vary as much as 8 units in atomic weight, with corresponding variations in their radioactive properties (rays emitted, rate of decay, etc.), without any change in their chemical behavior. In reviewing the subject, *Unakatsu* observes that this conception was based on indirectly proved, or inferred, properties of the short-lived radioactive elements. Hence it was important to prove by direct experiment that two elements that appear chemically identical may have different atomic weights. The way to such an experimental demonstration was pointed out by Fajans, who concluded that the atomic weight of the lead formed in uranium ores, in the course of millions of years, as the final product of the disintegration of uranium, probably differs from the atomic weight of lead extracted from common lead ores.

This conclusion has now been confirmed experimentally by very careful determinations of the atomic weights of specimens of lead of diverse origins. The research was suggested by Fajans, and was carried out by his former assistant, Lambert, in the laboratory of Prof. Th. Richards in Harvard University, which is celebrated for its accurate methods of determining atomic weights. The atomic weight of lead obtained from uranium ores was found to be 206.6, while ordinary lead gave the distinctly different value 207.1.

The uncertainty attaching to these results is less than 0.02, and is consequently very much smaller than the observed difference. It is notable that these two varieties of lead appear to be identical, spectroscopically as well as chemically.

Analogous considerations make it appear probable that the lead of thorium ores also differs in atomic weight from common lead, but is atomically heavier than the latter. Possibly common lead is a mixture of uranium and thorium lead.

The question naturally arises whether the observed atomic weights of most elements are not merely mean values of the atomic weights of several elements which are chemically identical, and consequently not separable by chemical methods. The study of atomic weights, therefore, is confronted with a wholly new task—the investigation of the atomic weights of elements as affected by their origin.

Six successive exposures made during one heart beat. Such X-ray snapshots are remarkable for their sharp outlines.

The act of swallowing analyzed by six successive exposures. Here we have the beginning of a new kind of motion picture photography.

LOCATION OF MOTORCYCLE POWER PLANT TROUBLES

A COMPLETE CHART OUTLINING THE COMMON DERANGEMENTS THAT INTERFERE WITH PROPER ACTION OF ENGINE AND AUXILIARY SYSTEMS
Chart Arranged by VICTOR W. PAGE, M. E., Author of "Motorcycles, Side Cars and Cycles," Etc.

MOTOR WILL NOT START OR STARTS HARD

—Defects in Motor Mechanism.
Based Piston, or Dry Piston.
Piston Rings Gummed to Cylinder.
Valve Stuck (Automatic Intake).
Valve Gears Out of Time.
Broken Connecting Rod or Crankpin (Rare).

Broken Exhaust Valve Spring.
Broken Intake Valve Spring.
Broken Valve Push Rod.

—Fuel System Faulty.
No Gasoline in Tank.
No Gasoline in Carburetor float Chamber.

Tank Shut Off Closed.
Clogged Filter Screen.

Fuel Supply Pipe Clogged.
Gasoline Level Too Low.

Gasoline Level Too High (Flooding).
Bent or Stuck Fuel Lever.

Loose or Defective Inlet Manifold.
Auxiliary Air Valve Spring Broken.

Not Enough Gasoline or Jet.
Punctured Metal Plug (Causes Flooding).

Fuel Soaked Rock Plug (Causes Flooding).

Water in Carburetor Spray Nozzle.
Dirt in Float Chamber.

Too Much Primary Air.
Carburetor Frozen (Winter Only).

—Ignition System Troubles.
Loose Terminal.

Magneto Ground Wire Shorted.
Magneto Defective (No Spark at Plug).

Broken Spark Plug Insulation.
Carbon Deposit or Oil Between Plug Points.

Spark Plug Points Too Near Together or Far Apart.

Wrong Cable to Plugs (Two or 4 Cyl. Motors).

Short Grounded Secondary Cable.
Broken Secondary Cable.

Battery Weak.
Poor Contact at Timer.

Timer Points Dirty.
Poor Contact at Switch.

Primary Wires Broken or Short Circuited.
Battery Grounded in Metal Container.

Ignition System.
Battery Connectors Broken.
Timer Points Out of Adjustment.

Defects in Induction Coil.
Ignition Timing Wrong Spark Too Late or Too Early.

Defective Platinum Points in Breaker Box (Magneto).

Points Not Separating.
Broken Contact Maker Spring.

No Contact at Secondary Collector Brush.
Platinum Contact Points Burnt or Pitted.

Contact Breaker Bell Crank Stuck.
Fibre Bushing in Bell Crank Swollen.

Short Circuiting Spring Always in Contact.
Dirt or Water in Magneto Casing.

Oil in Contact Breaker.
Oil Soaked Brush and Collector Ring.

Distributor Filled With Carbon Particles (4 Cylinder Magneto).

MOTOR STOPS WITHOUT WARNING

Broken Plug Wire (Single Cylinder).
Broken Magneto Carbon Brush.

Gasoline Shut Off Valve Jammed Closed.
Gasoline Supply Pipe Clogged.

No Gasoline in Tank.
Spark Nozzle Stopped Up.

Water in Spray Nozzle.
Particle of Carbon Between Spark Plug Points.

Magneto Spark Circuited by Ground Wire.
Air Lock in Gasoline Pipe.

Broken Spark Plug Insulation.
Inlet or Exhaust Valve Stuck Open.

Piston Seized on Account of Defective Oiling.
Bent or Broken Connecting Rod or Crankshaft (Rare).

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE

In preparing this chart, the author assumes that all parts mentioned or illustrated in the sectional drawing of complete motorcycle power plant can be easily identified by the rider on the machine he operates. Obviously, there are many forms of power plants used, all of which differ only in points of minor detail. The arrangement of the parts in accompanying illustration is typical, and is intended only as a guide to make possible the ready location or identification of similar parts on standard machines. A single cylinder motor is shown for simplicity, though twin cylinder motors are the most common.

Motorcycle power plant troubles can be easily identified by readily recognized symptoms, and the same symptoms are often produced by widely differing causes. The defective conditions more apt to be abated are enumerated in tabular form. In most cases the method of repairing the defect is apparent. Those not understanding the motorcycle mechanism sufficiently to be able to use this condensed statement of common troubles or those who do not know how to repair the defects enumerated, will find the explanatory text-book, "Motorcycles, Side Cars and Cycles," which the chart supplements (published by the same publisher) of value in getting complete knowledge of motorcycle construction, maintenance, operation and repair. The novice should attempt to locate any trouble systematically and the logical enumeration of defective conditions should help him as well as the more expert.

For example, if the motor runs irregularly this condition is apparent at once. The points needing inspection are enumerated under that head, and if followed systematically the trouble can be found by elimination, even by the beginner. The common troubles are all classed under easily recognized main symptoms, such as Lost Power, Noisy Operation, etc.

MOTOR STOPS WITHOUT WARNING.—Continued

Broken Roller or Ball Bearing in Motor (Rare).

Seized Main Bearings (Plain Brown Bushings Only).

Water on High Tension Magneto Terminal.
Spark Plug Cable Burnt Through by Hot Exhaust Pipe.

Insufficient Lubrication.
Flywheel Wedged by Foreign Matter in Engine Base.

Magneto Out of Time, Due to Slipping Drive.
Shafted Key in Cam or Valve Operating Mechanism.

Water or Oil in Spark Gap (Four Cyl. Magneto).

MOTOR STOPS GRADUALLY

Fuel Supply Pipe Partially Clogged.
Air Vent in Tank Filter Cap Stopped Up.

Plug Needle Valve Stuck.
Water or Dirt in Spray Nozzle.

Mixture Adjusting Needle Jammed Loose.
Air Valve Stuck Open.

Loose Terminal at Plug.
Valves Rock Open.

Motor Overheating Due to Defective Oiling.
Spark Advance Rod Broken.

Throttle Rod Broken.

MOTOR RACES

Control Wires or Rode Broken.
Auxiliary Air Valve Stuck Open.

Defective Induction Pipe Joint.
Leaky Valve Dam Packing.

Throttle Not Closing.
Magneto Contact Breaker Stuck in Advance Position.

Clutch Slips (Chain or V Belt Drive).
Bell Sprocket (Flat Belt Drive).

Chain or Belt Broken.
Sprocket or Pulley Driving Key Sheared Off.

MOTOR WILL NOT SPEED UP

Auxiliary Air Valve Stuck Closed.
Piston Binding in Cylinder.

Not Enough Oil in Engine Base.
Bent or Binding Valve Stem.

Too Much Play in Valve Operating Levers.
Too Much Space Between Valve Stem and Push Rod.

Valves Timed Late.
Spark Timing Late.

Throttle Stuck Closed.
Magneto Contact Breaker Stuck in Retard Position.

Worn Fibre Block in Magneto Contact Breaker.

Binding Fibre Bushing in Contact Breaker Bell Crank.

Dragging Brakes.
Piston or Rear Hub Bearings Too Tight.

Wheel Bearings Broken.
Driving System Parts Not in Alignment.
Gear Ratio Too High.

MOTOR WILL NOT STOP

Throttle Spring Open.
Spark Interrupting Switch Out of Order.

Incandescent Carbon Deposits Fire Choke.

MOTOR SPEEDS UP SUD- DENLY

Break in Chain or Belt.
Clutch Slipping or Released.

Chain Has Jumped Sprockets.
Flat Belt Slipping.

Throttle Has Jammed Open.

MOTOR RUNS IRREGU- LARLY OR MISFIRES

—Defects in Motor Mechanism.
Carbon Deposits in Combustion Chamber.

Weak or Broken Valve Springs.
Stuck Valve Stem.

Worn Push Rod or Guide.
Worn Push Rod or Guide.

No Clearance Between Valve Stem and Plunger.

Air Leak in Inlet Valve.
Broken Gasket Under Valve Dome.

Air Leak Through Inlet Valve Guide (4 Head).

—Faults in Fuel Supply System.
Carburetor Flies Chamber Getting Dry.

Water or Dirt in Gasoline.
Air Valve Spring Weak or Broken.

Poor Gasoline Adjustment.
Poor Air Valve Adjustment.

Not Enough Gasoline in Float Chamber.
Too Much Gasoline, Carburetor Flooding.

—Ignition System Faults.
Loose Wiring or Terminals.

Broken Spark Plug Insulation.
Spark Plug Points Wetted or Oily.

Wrong Spark Gap at Plug Points.
Leaking Secondary Cable.

Preventor Grounded Primary Wire.
Batteries Running Down (Battery Ignition Only).

Poor Adjustment of Contact Points at Timer.
Wire Broken Inside of Insulation.

Loose Platinum Points in Magneto.
Weak Contact Spring (Battery Timer Only).

Broken Collector Brush.
Dirt in Magneto Casing or Contact Breaker.

Worn Fibre Block or Cam Plate in Magneto.
Worn Cam in Timer (Battery System Only).

MOTOR NOISY IN ACTION

—Mechanical Depreciation Producing Knocking.
Foreign Matter in Engine, Such as Loose Nut in Engine Base.

Carbon Deposits in Combustion Chamber.

MOTOR NOISY IN ACTION.—Continued

Incandescent Spark Plug Pulver or Carbon Particle.

Loose Wrist Pin Bearing.
Loose Connecting Rod Big End Bearing.

Worn Main Bearings.
Piston Worn, Permitting Side Slip.

Cylinder Worn Out of Round.
Cylinder or Head Resection Nuts Loose.

Play in Valve Operating Mechanism.
Timing Gears Worn.

Bent Crank Pin or Wrist Pin.
Loose Flywheel.

Loose Pulley or Sprocket.
Poor Oil or Lack of Oil.

Plasma Ring Tight.

—Mixture Troubles.

Too Much Gasoline, Mixture Rich.
Carburetor Clogged Causing Flooding.

—Ignition Troubles.

Spark Timing Too Early.
Magneto Contact Breaker Stuck Advanced.

Magneto Loose on Engine Base.

—Other Causes of Knocking.

Engine Ground Too High.
Overheating Due to Any Condition.

—Hissing and Squealing Sounds.

Broken Insulation on Spark Plug.
Spark Plug Leaking.

Loose Joint Between Motor and Exhaust Pipe.

Compression Relief Cock Jammed Open.
Valve Damaged in Combustion Chamber.

Valve Chamber Covers Loose (Over and T Head Motors).

Loose Valve Cage Packing (Overhead Valve Motors).

Poor Lubrication (Causes Squealing).
Muffler Leaking or Ruptured.

Broken Piston Rings (Blowing Sound).
Tight Piston Rings (Squeeping Sound).

—Popping or Blowing Back in Carburetor.

Incorrectly Timed Inlet Valve.
Inlet Valve Not Sealing.

Defective Inlet Valve Spring.
Too Much Air.

Not Enough Gasoline (Open Needle Valve).

Spark Retarded Too Much.
Contact Points in Breaker Box or Timer Pressed.

Weak Batteries (Battery Mailed Only).
Wrong Cables to Plugs (2 Cyl. and 4 Cyl. Motors).

—Muffler Explosions.

Mixture Not Exploding Regularly.
Exhaust Valve Sticking.

Dirt Under Exhaust Valve Seat.
Wrong Cables to Plugs (2 Cyl. and 4 Cyl. Motors).

—Grinding Noises.

Worn Timing Gears.
Defective Cylinder Lubrication.

Worn Driving Chains.
Worn Two-Speed Gear.

MOTOR LOSES POWER

—Causes of Poor Compression.

Loose Spark Plug.
Defective Cylinder Head Gasket.

Cracked Piston or Cylinder.
Cracked Piston (Ringless).

Warped Valve Heads.
Piston Ring Joints in Line.

Inlet Valve Dome Loose on Cylinder.
—Other Causes of Lost Power.

Exhaust Valve Lift Insufficient.
Inlet Valve Lift Insufficient.

Choked Muffler.
Carbon Deposits.

Tight Bearings.
Cylinder Dry or Overheated.

Oil Too Light.
Oil Too Heavy.

Oil Carbonates at Too Low Temperature.
Overheating Due to Driving With Retarded Spark.

Overheating Due to Racing Motor on Low Speed Gear.

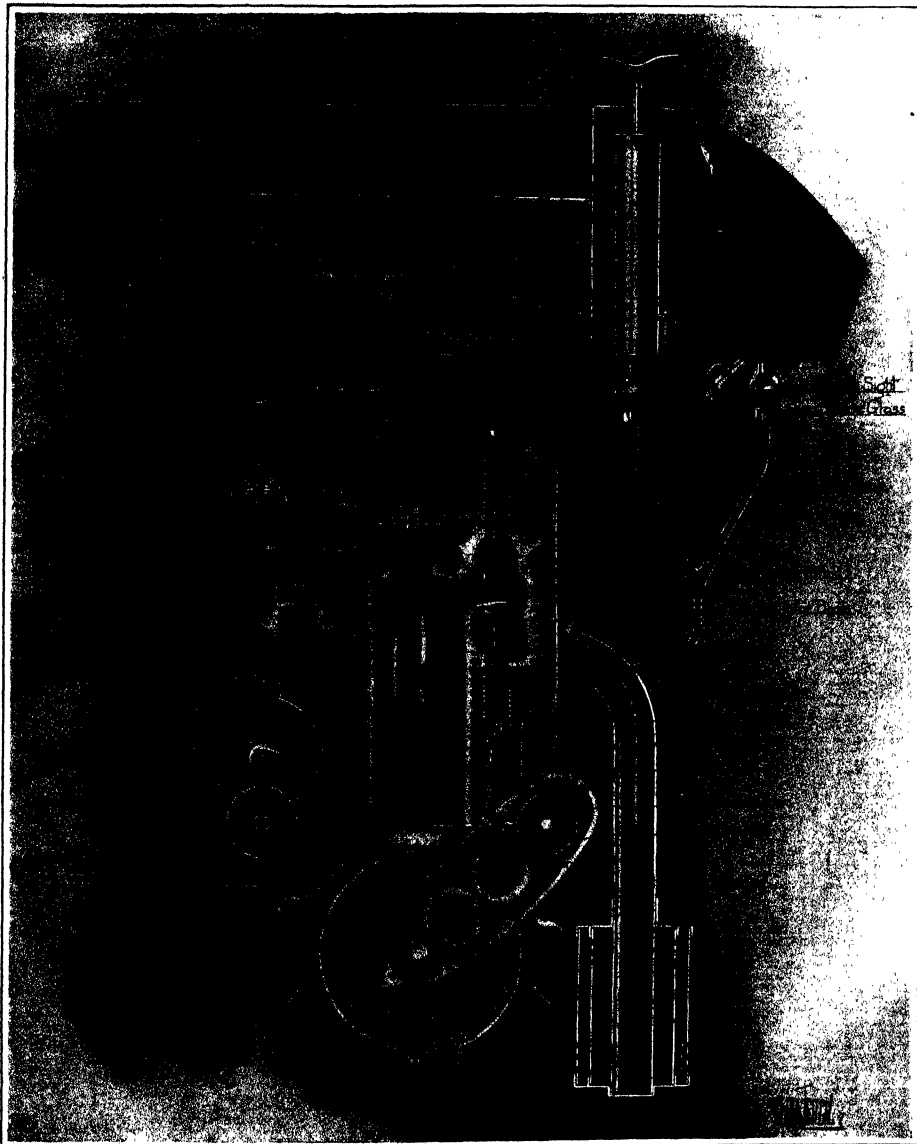
Overheating Due to Too Rich Mixture.
Oil Feed Interrupted.

Defective Oil Pump.

Note.—All causes contributing to irregular motor action also produce lost power.

A TYPICAL SINGLE-CYLINDER ENGINE OF A MOTORCYCLE

TWIN CYLINDER MOTORS ARE THE MOST COMMON, BUT A SINGLE-CYLINDER IS SHOWN FOR THE SAKE OF SIMPLICITY

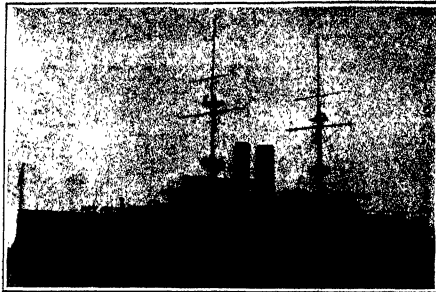


Forcing the Dardanelles

Floating Mines and Gunfire Work Havoc on the Allied Fleet



British battleship "Irresistible," sunk in the Dardanelles.



British battleship "Ocean," sunk in the Dardanelles.

THE certainty of heavy losses when a fleet engages strong shore batteries, particularly if, as in the case of the Dardanelles, it is necessary to come within effective range of the guns and operate in confined waters where maneuvering is difficult, was proved in the engagement which took place between the allied French and British fleets on the 18th of March.

In our last description of the Dardanelles and the operations to take the forts, we outlined the methods by which the reduction of the latter is being attempted, namely, by indirect fire across the Gallipoli Peninsula, assisted by observation from ships properly stationed for the purpose, and by direct fire from ships within the straits after the forts guarding the entrance had been reduced.

When the fire of the 15-inch guns of the "Queen Elizabeth" had silenced the guns of the most heavily armed forts at the Narrows and the shore batteries had also been silenced by the direct fire of ships that had entered the straits, heavy mine-sweeping operations were carried on, much of it under heavy fire from the enemy, with a view to clearing the way for the approach of the fleet, for reducing, in detail, the heavy forts on both sides of the Narrows.

The Admiralty statement covering the great battle of the 18th of March is as follows:

"Mine-sweeping having been in progress during the last ten days inside the straits, a general attack was delivered by the British and French fleets yesterday (Thursday) morning upon the fortresses at the Narrows.

"At 10 45 A. M. the 'Queen Elizabeth,' 'Inflexible,' 'Agamemnon,' and 'Lord Nelson' bombarded Forts J. L. T. 1, and C, while the 'Triumph' and 'Prince George' fired at Batteries F, E, and H. A heavy fire was opened on the ships from the howitzers and field guns.

"At 12 22 o'clock the French squadron, consisting of the 'Suffren,' 'Gaulois,' 'Charlemagne,' and 'Bouvet' advanced upon the Dardanelles and engaged the forts at closer range. Forts J, L, E, and H replied strongly. Their fire was silenced by the ten battleships inside the straits, all the ships being hit several times during this part of the action.

"By 1 25 P. M. all the forts had ceased firing. The 'Vengeance,' 'Irresistible,' 'Albatros,' 'Ocean,' 'Swiftsure,'

and 'Majestic' then advanced to relieve the six old battleships inside the straits.

"Bouvet" Sunk, then Two British.

"As the French squadron, which had engaged the forts in a most brilliant fashion, was passing out the 'Bouvet' was blown up by a drifting mine. She sank in 30 fathoms north of Erekeut village in less than three minutes.

"At 2 36 P. M. the relief battleships renewed the attack on the forts, which again opened fire. The attack on the forts was maintained while the operations of the mine sweepers continued.

"At 4 00 P. M. the 'Irresistible' quitted the line, listing heavily, and at 5 50 o'clock sank, having probably struck a drifting mine. At 6 05 o'clock the 'Ocean,' also having struck a mine, sank.

"Both vessels sank in deep water, practically the whole of their crews having been removed safely under a hot fire.

"The 'Gaulois' was damaged by gunfire. The 'Inflexible' had the forward control position hit by a heavy shell and required repair.

"The bombardment of the forts and the mine-sweeping operations terminated when darkness fell. The damage to the forts, effected by the prolonged direct fire of the very powerful forces employed, cannot yet be estimated, and a further report will follow.

Mines Brought by Current.

"The losses of the ships was caused by mines drifting with the current which were encountered in areas hitherto swept clear, and this danger will require special treatment.

"The British casualties in the personnel were not heavy, considering the scale of the operations, but practically the whole of the crew of the 'Bouvet' were lost with the ship, an internal explosion having apparently superseded on the explosion of the mine.

"The 'Queen' and the 'Impincible,' which have been dispatched from England to replace the ships' casualties, in anticipation of this operation, are due to arrive immediately, thus bringing the British fleet up to its original strength. The operations are continuing with the naval and military forces available on the spot.

Admiral De Robeck Now Commands.

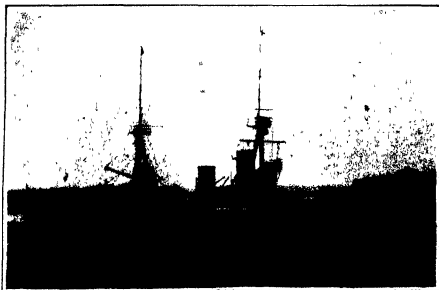
"On the 16th instant, Vice Admiral Carden, who had

been incapacitated by illness, was succeeded in the chief command by Rear Admiral John Michael de Robeck, with the acting rank of Vice Admiral."

Subsequent observation by aeroplanes flying at a low altitude proved that the tremendous bombardment by the fleet had been very effective, some of the forts being described as being knocked entirely to pieces. On the other hand, it must be admitted that the fleet paid a heavy toll for its daring to attempt the supposedly impossible. The British lost three battleships and the French one, while the battle-cruiser "Inflexible" and the battleship "Gaulois" were damaged by shells from the Turkish forts. The four battleships which went down were all old vessels, the "Irresistible" having been completed in 1902, the "Ocean" in 1900, and the French "Bouvet" in 1906. The flagship "Inflexible," a battle-cruiser completed in 1908, was struck by a heavy shell in the forward control station, and the old French battleship "Gaulois," completed in 1906, was also badly damaged, both this ship and the "Inflexible" being put out of action until repairs can be effected.

The loss of these ships was due to the setting afloat by the Turks of a large number of floating mines, which, carried down through the straits by a current which, at certain states of the tide, runs sometimes as fast as five knots, are a constant menace to the attacking fleet. These mines are not to be confused with those which are anchored and are removed by mine-sweeping. Against the floating mines the only defense is carefully to watch for them, and, when they are detected, destroy them at once by shell fire, or else tow them by small boats to the side of the channel out of the way of the ships.

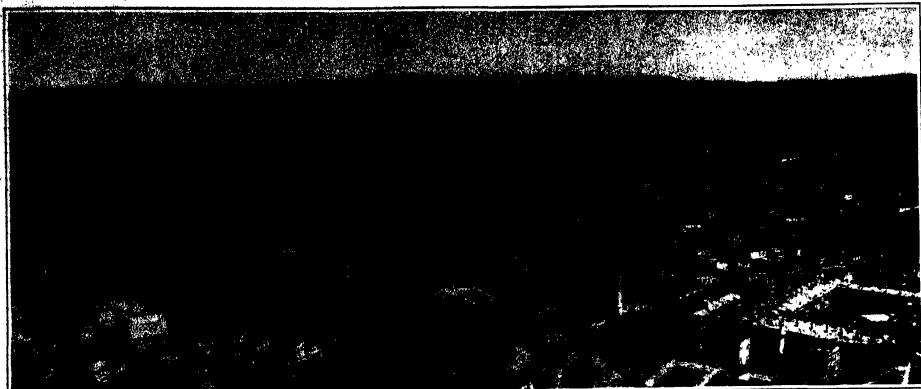
The claim of the Allies that they have inflicted heavy damage on the forts is flatly contradicted by dispatches from Turkish and German quarters in Constantinople. These state that the fire of the fleet, powerful and long-continued though it was, failed to do any serious damage to the batteries. The claim is made that the shells exploded, for the most part, harmlessly in the earth-works, and that much of the fire, because of the smoke and dust, was inaccurate. One interesting development has been the re-enforcement of the defenses by field guns and howitzers, mounted on shore railways.



Battle-cruiser "Inflexible," disabled in the Dardanelles attack.

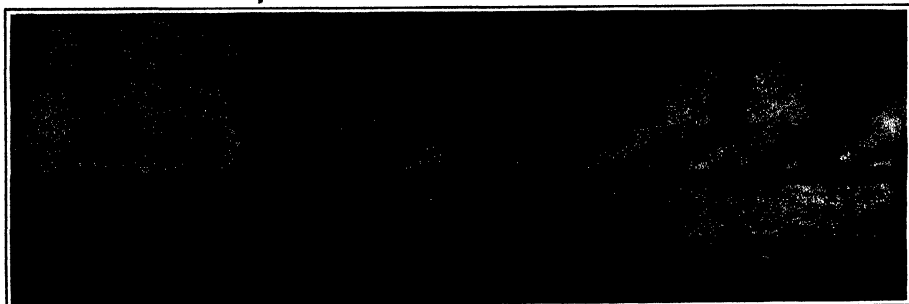


French battleship "Bouvet," sunk in the Dardanelles.



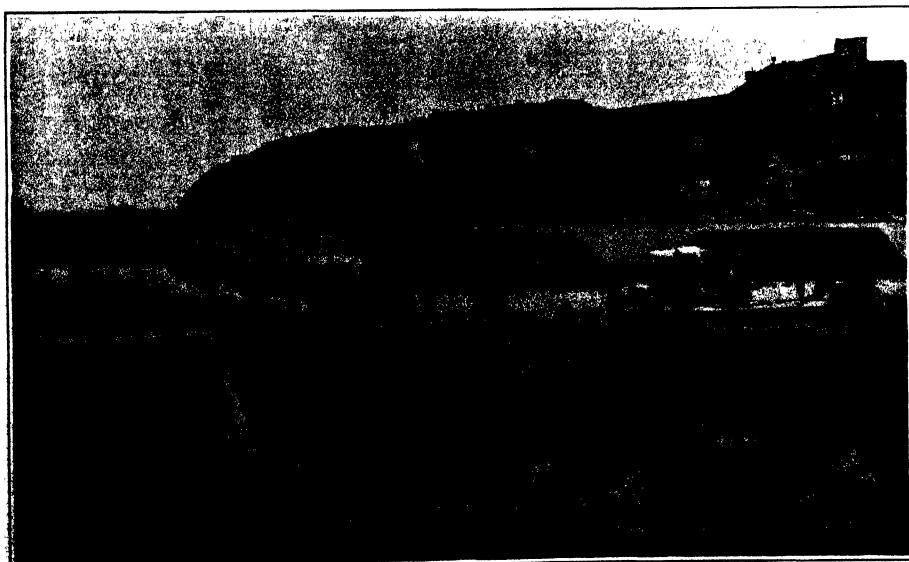
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A panoramic view of Constantinople, the objective of the fleets now engaged in the Dardanelles.



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The Allied fleet operating against the Dardanelles. Photograph taken from the French battleship "Bouvet."



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An obsolete battery in one of the older Dardanelles forts.

The Heavens in April

Nebulae; Their Nature, Dimensions and Distances from Us

By Henry Norris Russell, Ph.D.

AMONG the most difficult of the yet unsolved problems of astronomy is that of the distances, dimensions and nature of the nebulae. Thousands of these hazy patches of light are visible with telescopes of no exceptional power, and the number which could be photographed with great telescopes if time was available, to take the whole heavens with long exposures must be fully 150,000, as was found in these columns a year ago.

It has been known since the dawn of spectroscopic investigation that the nebulae when studied in this powerful method of research fall sharply into two classes—the "green nebulae" (as Prof. Young called them), whose spectrum shows that their light comes almost entirely from ionized gases, and the "white nebulae," which for many years refused to yield any clear evidence of their nature to the visual observations of even the keenest observers.

Half a dozen years ago photography solved theiddle by showing that spectra of these white nebulae were essentially similar to that of the Sun or of other stars. This left two theories of their nature open, either they were single stars, enveloped in a dense fog of some sort which concealed the central body but reflected its light, or they were vast clusters of stars, too remote too faint, and too close together in the sky to be seen separately even in great telescopes, just as the clouds in the Milky Way look to the naked eye like continuous masses of light.

But though we have thus known for some time a little of the probable constitution of the nebulae we have been told within little more than a year or so, entirely in the dark concerning their distances and real dimensions. Since they are practically fixed in the heavens, showing far less "proper motion" than the nearest stars we could be fairly sure that they were farther off than these our nearest cosmic neighbors but beyond this there was little to say.

Toward the close of 1911, however, the Slipher of the Lowell Observatory announced that he had secured spectrograms of the Great Nebula in Andromeda which showed that it was approaching us at the unprecedentedly great radial velocity of 300 kilometers per second, and in a later communication, recently published, he reports measures on other white nebulae, of spiral form, which are even more remarkable. One nebula in Virgo is receding at the tremendous rate of 1,100 kilometers, or nearly 700 miles per second, and the average velocity in the line of sight, of the fifteen objects so far observed, is fully 300 kilometers per second, which is about twenty-five times the average rate of motion of the thousand or more individual stars which have been observed spectroscopically in similar fashion.

Other observers have confirmed Slipher's results regarding the motion of the Andromeda nebula, and there remains no doubt that these great luminous clouds are in motion far more rapidly than any other known bodies.

Still more recently, Prof. Campbell has summarized the results of similar observations made at the Lick Observatory on a number of gaseous nebulae, mostly of the small and sharply defined sort which from their appearance are called "planetary." These are also in rapid motion, their velocities in the line of sight averaging nearly 50 kilometers per second, which is three times the average for the stars, though far less than for the spiral nebulae.

We are now in a position, if not to determine the average distances of these nebulae, at least to extend our estimate of their minimum average distance to a very marked degree. There is not one nebula in the sky whose apparent proper motion in the heavens is as rapid as one-tenth of a second of an arc per year, though one out of four of the stars visible to the naked eye exceeds this limit. Indeed, the apparent motions of the nebulae are so slow, and they are usually such ill-defined objects to set upon, that it is usually impossible to say whether they are moving at all. Recent studies, both photographic and visual, make it clear that the average apparent motion of these objects cannot be greater than one-twentieth of a second of an arc annually, and is probably much less. But the actual velocities of

the nebular motions which appear to us in the sky to be so slow are probably as great as those revealed by the spectroscopes. Indeed, they should average greater, for it is easy to show that, in the case of a large number of bodies moving at random in all directions, there is a greater chance that the motion will be mainly at right angles to our line of sight than that it will be directed straight toward or from us.

In this way we may estimate that the actual motion of a gaseous planetary nebula in the sky corresponds to an annual shift of fully fifteen times the distance of the Earth from the Sun, and that of a white spiral nebula to no less than 120 of these astronomical units.

Even with the exaggerated estimate of the nebular proper motions made above, this would indicate that the planetary nebulae were, on the average, at least 1,000 light-years distant, and the spiral nebulae eight times as remote. But these are minimum limits, and probably much too small. It would seem more in accord with the data available at the moment to say that the average distance of the planetary nebula is

clouds prove practicable and show that they are moving at a similar rate, there will be very good reason for thinking that the white nebulae, which show just the same spectrum which the star-clouds would exhibit, and are moving with comparable velocities, are really of the same nature, but too far off to be "resolved" telescopically. This brings us back to the old conception, held two generations ago, but almost abandoned, that the nebulae are other "universes" of stars like our own.

Hutsprung's estimate that the smaller Magellanic Cloud is 30,000 light-years distant gives us some idea how far away this hypothesis would put the irresolvable spirals. It is doubtful whether light itself could traverse such stupendous distances without serious losses; but there is no demonstrative evidence that such is the case, and it well may be that we are on the brink of an expansion of our conception of the extent of the universe almost comparable to that which resulted from the first measurements of the distances of the nearer stars.

The Heavens.

If one holds the accompanying map right over his head, he will see the heavens as they would appear to a man lying on his back and looking upward. The Great Bear is nearly overhead, extending to the northward. The curving line of its tail, the handle of the "Dipper," points toward Arcturus, the principal star of Bootes, and the brightest now visible.

Below, and farther to the west, is the white star Spica, in Virgo, and in the southwest is Regulus, in Leo. The twin stars Castor and Pollux, in Gemini, are conspicuous in the west, with Procyon on the left and Capella on the right, well down in the northwest. The bright object, not shown on the map, below Castor and Pollux, is the planet Saturn.

Below the pole we see the zigzag line of Cassiopeia, and in the northeast, still near the horizon, is the great white star Vega.

With these as sky-marks, it will take only a few moments' study for even the novice to complete his acquaintance with the visible constellations.

The Planets.

Mercury is a morning star all through April, but is on the far side of the Sun, and gets more and more nearly in line behind him, so that he is hard to see, even at the beginning of the month, when he rises about 5 A. M., and is invisible by the 15th.

Venus is also a morning star, in Aquarius and Pisces, rising at 4.20 A. M. on the 1st, and 3.50 on the 20th, as she comes farther north during the month. She seems still about six times as bright as Sirius, though she has lost fully half her light since the first of January.

On the morning of the 15th she passes very close to Jupiter, the nearest approach, which occurs after sunrise in the United States, being within 9 minutes of arc. These two planets, the brightest in the sky, will, however, appear on this morning to be distant from one another by less than the Moon's diameter, and the sight will be well worth rising to look at.

Mars is a rising star, too, near the others in the sky, and rises at 4.20 A. M. on the 10th. On the 3rd he is in conjunction with Mercury, being 1½ degrees north of him. Mercury will appear five or six times brighter than Mars, but the sky will be so bright by the time they have fairly risen that it will be hard to see them at all.

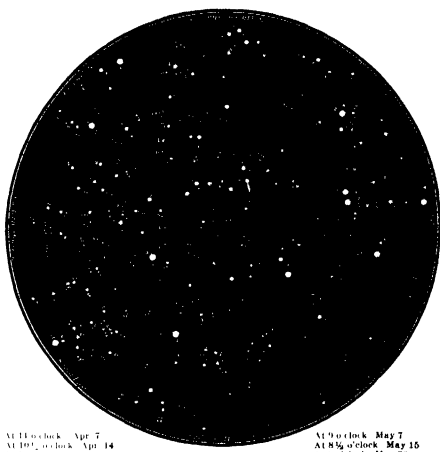
Jupiter again is a morning star, rising about 4 A. M., and fairly well observable before daybreak.

Saturn is evening star, between Taurus and Gemini, and remains in sight till 11.30 P. M. in the middle of the month.

Uranus is in Capricornus and rises between 2 and 3 A. M. Neptune is in the very opposite quarter of the sky, in Gemini, and is in quadrature with the Sun on the 18th, when he crosses the meridian at 6 P. M., but on account of his high northern declination, does not set till after 1 A. M.

The Moon is in her last quarter at 5 P. M. on the 8th, new at 7 A. M. on the 14th, in her last quarter at 11 A. M. on the 22nd, and full at 9 A. M. on the 29th. She is nearest us on the 1st and 30th, and farthest,

(Continued on page 824.)



NIGHT SKY. APRIL AND MAY

At 11 o'clock Apr. 7.
At 10 o'clock Apr. 14.
At 10 o'clock Apr. 22.

At 9 o'clock April 30.

At 9 o'clock May 7.
At 8½ o'clock May 15.
At 8 o'clock May 22.

probably at least two or three thousand light-years, and that of the spiral nebulae twenty thousand or more, and it seems probable that fuller knowledge is fully as likely to increase as to diminish these figures.

The dimensions which the nebulae must have, to appear as big as they do at such distances, are astounding. Even the planetary nebulae, at the smallest estimate of their distances, must be hundreds of times the diameter of our whole solar system, and the size of the spirals can only be measurable in light-years, perhaps in tens or even hundreds of them.

This dispels altogether of the idea that they can be masses of cosmic fog, lit up by single stars, and leaves us shut up to the belief that they are star-clusters.

A further support to this theory is afforded by the latest observations of all, announced but a few days ago.

The Magellanic Clouds, those curious outlying patches of light in the southern heavens to which we referred last month, contain, in addition to innumerable faint stars, many nebulae, which from their positions and grouping seem almost certainly to be themselves a part of the clouds. Prof. Wilson, measuring the radial velocities of these nebulae from Lick Observatory photographs, finds that four of them, in the larger of the two clouds, have very large and nearly equal velocities of recession, averaging 375 kilometers per second—far greater than that of any other gaseous nebula so far observed—while one in the smaller cloud is also receding, but at 100 kilometers a second.

This suggests very strongly that these great clouds of stars and nebulae are themselves in motion at these velocities. If observations of the individual stars in the



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The biggest new thing, the most important photographic development in film photography in two decades, is the Autographic Kodak. It makes the record authentic; answers the questions: *When did I make this? Where was this taken?* Every negative that is worth taking is worth such date and title, and with the Autographic Kodak you make the record, almost instantly, on the film.

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Kodak models, we have now arranged to take care of our old customers by supplying Autographic Backs for all Kodaks of these models.

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No. 1	Kodak Junior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$2.50
No. 1A	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	3.00
No. 1A	Folding Pocket Kodak—R. R. Type	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.50
No. 3	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	3.50
No. 3A	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	3.75
No. 4	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	4.00
No. 4A	Folding Kodak	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.50
No. 1A	Special Kodak	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.00
No. 3	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	4.00
No. 3A	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	4.25

Ask your dealer or write us for Autographic Booklet

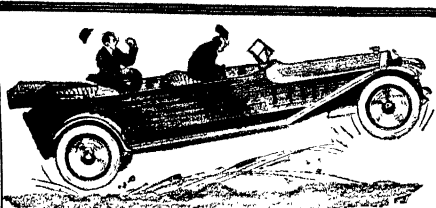
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Impossible? Yes, but this is what springs Try to do!

There is nothing gentle about a spring. When a jolt compresses it, a spring's only impulse is to whip every one out of the car as quickly as possible. A spring saves you from actual bumps, but not from being thrown about and not from vibrations—and vibrations are harder on your body even than bumps.

*Hartford SHOCK ABSORBER Soothes the Angry Spring

Stretch a rubber band. Let it snap back. That's the way an uncontrolled spring works. Stretch it again and ease it back gently—that's the way a Hartford Shock Absorber makes a spring work.

The Hartford reduces spring-acting to long undulating waves of motion—free from recoil, shock or vibration—even on the roughest roads.

It makes motoring really comfortable. It prevents accidents by keeping the wheels on the road. It adds years to the life of machinery and cuts down repair and tire bills.

Let us send you a book which will tell you why the Hartford Shock Absorber is standard equipment on so many prominent cars and why 96% of the racing drivers use it. The book is free.

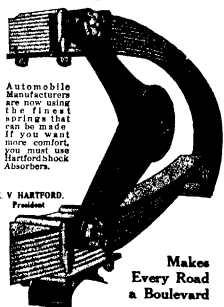
Hartford Suspension Co.

175 Morgan St., Jersey City, N. J.

BRANCHES:

New York Newark
Boston Chicago
Philadelphia Pittsburg
Kansas City Indianapolis

*Patented in all countries



Makes
Every Road
a Boulevard

Automobile
Manufacturers
are now using
the Hartford
Shock Absorbers.

E. V. HARTFORD,
President

Legal Notes

"Means" and "Mechanism."—The U. S. Circuit Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit in Davis Sewing Machine Company v. New Department Manufacturing Company, has held that a claim of a patent is not functional and invalid merely because one of its specified elements is "means" or "mechanism," this depending upon whether such term is used with reference to the element or sub-combination which is the real point and gist of the invention, or to elements or parts already known and designed to co-operate with the new element in order to complete the claim.

An Application for Patent Cannot be Enjoined.—In a recent case in which it was sought to enjoin the filing of an application for patent, Chief Justice Shepherd of the District of Columbia Court of Appeals in affirming the decision of the District Supreme Court decided that the court had no jurisdiction in such cases as the Patent Office procedure is sufficient to determine the real inventorship, with the usual appeals on such question.

Supreme Court Decisions as to Profits.—The Supreme Court of the United States decided by Mr. Justice Van Devanter in Dowagiac Manufacturing Company v. Minnesota Moline Plow Company et al., Dowagiac Manufacturing Company v. Smith and Zimmer, has held that where a patent is infringed by the sale of machines which include improvements covered by the patent and the value of the machine is attributable in part to the patented features and in part to unpatented features, the profits arising from the infringing sales belong to the owner of the patent in so far as they are attributable to the patented improvements, and belong to the seller in so far as they are due to the other parts or features.

A Complex Interference Case.—In the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, Justice Van Orsdal in Wilson v. Harris v. Ellis in a patent removing case involved in interference held that where the applicant discloses two compositions, one containing wax but not benzol and the other benzol but not wax, such application does not disclose the use of both benzol and wax in the same composition, and while it was argued that to add benzol or wax did not constitute invention, such question was not before the court.

Trade-mark Notes

Trade-mark Similarity.—In Underwood Typewriter Company v. The Universal Stenotype Company, the Commissioner of Patents in reversing the decision of the Examiner of Interferences which sustained a demurrer by the Stenotype Company to the oppositor of the Underwood Company, held that the U. and T. in the Stenotype Company's mark resembled the form of such letters as used in the Underwood Company's monogram mark T U & R and that the difference does not sufficiently distinguish the marks to avoid confusion. A number of cases are cited in the decision including the Summit City Soap Works v. the Standard Soap Company, in which the Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia said:

"This court has adopted a strict rule in refusing registration in all cases where the apparent similarity would probably lead to confusion in trade holding that the field of selection for marks is so broad that no proximity exists for the invasion of one trader upon even the apparent rights of another and that the broadest protection will be afforded the purchasing, consuming public by the courts."

Trade-mark Registrations in South America.—The importance of trade-mark registration in South American countries has been repeatedly emphasized in these columns. It has never before had the importance it has today. Director Barvetti of the Pan-American Union is reported as asserting that South America is a purchaser annually of nearly \$700,000,000 worth of manufactured products from Europe. He urges that American manufacturers and financiers make an effort at this time to meet the demand, predicting that a magnanimous treatment of the South American countries in the predicament resulting from the European war

and cutting off of supplies from such quarter should operate to our trade advantage throughout the future.

Notes for Inventors

Why Not Button It On?—A woman makes this suggestion. She asks: Why cannot the shoe covers or "spats" be secured to the low shoes on which they are commonly used by snap buttons like glove fasteners? The problem will be so to locate the buttons as to exclude them from view when the shoes are used without the "spats" and also to secure such arrangement as will not be uncomfortable to the wearer.

No Safety Razor.—Safety razor blades will never be safe now that the women folks can use them for ripping. A patent, No. 1,129,681, has been issued to Guy L. Huyett of Minneapolis, Kansas, for a ripping device in which a safety razor blade is held in a flanged holder so formed as to protect the cutting edge except at one side of one end which is exposed for use in ripping.

Reshaping the Tongue Side of Dental Plates.—George A. Critchfield, of Los Angeles, Cal., claiming that dental plates molded with smooth lateral side result in imperfect articulation of speech and imperfect management of food in mastication, has in patents Nos. 1,129,335 and 1,129,336 provided a dental plate and mold therefor by which the plate is formed on the side next to the tongue in the similitude of the natural human mouth, in order to overcome the objections referred to above.

This Dairyman Collects His "Empties."—The failure of consumers to return empty milk bottles is a frequent cause of complaint by the milkman and is a source of expense which the consumer must ultimately pay. D. H. Bunkley, of Vienna, Ohio, in a patent, No. 1,129,068, has sought to overcome this by a bottle locker operated without special keys which consume time in manipulation, and in which it is impossible to remove a filled bottle without first placing an empty one in the proper compartment of the device, thereby operating as a check upon bottles to be returned and forcing the customer to put an empty in the locker before the bottle of milk can be removed for use.

Damage by Metallurgical Smoke.—Suits have originated in many States, including Utah, Tennessee, Montana, and California because of damages claimed to have resulted from the fumes from smelters commonly referred to as smelter-smoke. Various processes of overcoming or decreasing the evil have been devised, including absorption in water, refrigeration, the use of finely ground slag or slag wool, dilution of the sulphur dioxide by air, as well as bringing the gases containing sulphur dioxide into intimate contact with lime in the presence of water. Considerable friction is still caused by smelter-smoke between the metallurgical and agricultural industries in certain parts of the country, which indicates the opportunity of high-class technical invention directed to the subject. A few years ago a committee consisting of Dr. Holmes, director of the Federal Bureau of Mines, E. C. Franklin of Stanford University and Ralph A. Gould, a chemical engineer of San Francisco, was appointed to investigate and decide future questions of annoyance and nuisance resulting from the escape of smelter-fumes and its report, submitted November, 1914, is to be published as soon as practicable.

The Death of Ross S. Turner.—Ross S. Turner, the well-known artist and art instructor of Boston, died recently in the Bahamas Islands. Early in his career he was a draftsman in the United States Patent Office at Washington.

Why Not a Collapsible Cigar Case?—It may not be new, but the writer has never seen it in use or for sale; that is to say, a compartment cigar case to put in the pocket whose middle compartment or compartments may be collapsed without impairing the protection offered to the cigar or cigars contained in the filled compartment. Possibly some inventor can produce such a case.

Choose a man to paint your house who will use

zinc

in his paint. If he uses Zinc, it means that he is wide-awake and up-to-date in his trade. If he uses Zinc, it means that your house will get painted so that it will stay painted.

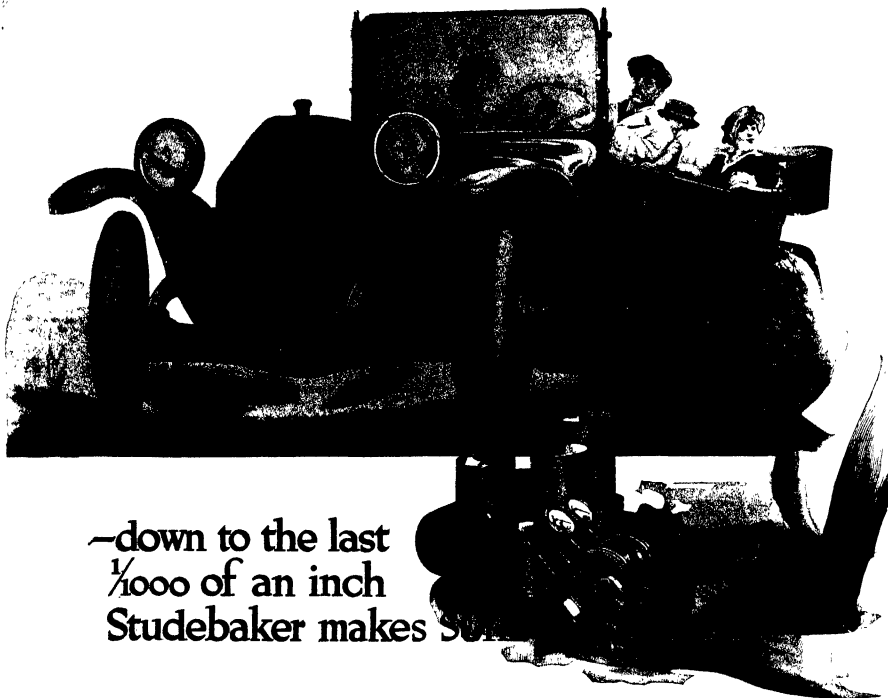
We have three books discussing Zinc from the three viewpoints of the parties most concerned

For House Owners "Zinc Means"
For Architects "One of Your Problems"
For Painters "Zinc That Made a Painter Rich"

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The New Jersey Zinc Company
Room 421, 55 Wall Street, New York

For big contract jobs consult our Research Bureau



—down to the last 1/1000 of an inch Studebaker makes SURE

With the keenest eyes you couldn't see the difference between the pistons that this man accepts and those that he rejects because they measure one-thousandth of one inch more or less than the Studebaker design calls for.

And yet that little difference of one-thousandth of one inch is so important to Studebaker that not only are hundreds of the most attentive and skillful inspectors kept busy every minute of the day making just such minute inspections—but the whole manufacturing organization is keyed up to that "thousandth-inch" ideal of manufacture.

For "—because it's a Studebaker"—because this car carries a name that for more than 63 years has stood for the highest achievements in manufacturing, a name that rep-

resents millions of dollars invested and millions of friends in every country on the globe, Studebaker MAKES SURE down to the last one-thousandth of the inch.

And this piston test is only typical. For this insistence on accuracy to the thousandth of the inch applies to every little detail of the car—the gears, crankshafts, camshafts, even to the bolt-holes in the fly-wheels.

For it is only in this way—by manufacturing Studebaker cars COMPLETE in Studebaker plants, and manufacturing them to this "thousandth-inch" ideal, that Studebaker can be SURE of getting the quality, the CERTAINTY, the harmony of operation that a man EXPECTS in this car

—because it's a

Studebaker

LIGHT SIX—\$1385

Studebaker Features
Electric Lighting and Starting—Full Floating
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Studebaker ROADSTER . . . \$985 \$1280
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Studebaker LIGHT SIX . . . 1265 1790
Studebaker SIX (Four-door) . . . 1490 1825
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But you can only begin to appreciate fully what this Studebaker accuracy means when you ride in the and KNOW from your own experience on the roads the silence, the riding comfort, the ease of driving and the smooth running qualities that Studebaker has built into it. And when you study the balance, the alignment of the chassis, and how the Studebaker engineers, cutting down the weight of the car, also cut down its upkeep cost, you will appreciate what it means to buy a car built in the Studebaker way to live up to Studebaker ideals of giving the buyer FULL money's worth for every dollar of the price. See this SIX—and ride in it—drive it yourself. Your local Studebaker dealer will be delighted to put it thru its paces for you—anytime you say. And if you will write us, we will mail you "The Story of Studebaker"—a handsomely illustrated book of 72 pages telling in detail how Studebaker lives up to the meaning of its name.

STUDEBAKER—DETROIT, Canadian Plants, Walkerville, Ont.



The Brakes won't hold!

Did you ever get sucked into rapid in a canoe?

You feel the same way when your brakes suddenly fail you on a bad hill. Remember—your brakes are not infallible. THEIR EFFICIENCY DEPENDS ENTIRELY ON THE BRAKE LINING. If the brake lining suddenly goes bad—becomes friction slip—you have no more control over the car than you would have on a barrel shooting Niagara.

Thermoid HYDRAULIC COMPRESSED Brake Lining—100%

Thermoid is Brake Lining all through—out merely on the surface. It is a substance which has been hammered by hydraulic compression to a uniform density—it is not a stringy, loosely woven fabric with only friction surfaces.

Thermoid will still hold even though worn paper thin. It is 100% brake lining.

Watch your brakes. Guard your safety with Thermoid.

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Thermoid will increase good or we will.

Complete detail and our ability to sell. Write for literature. Thermoid, N. J.

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Made in 17 degrees of softness to fit hand of every variety, uniformly and quality, also 1 cent. Write on indelible for free trial sample.

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Register, recording, automatic or portable. Various designs to fit machines in almost every line of business. Probably there is one just suited to your needs. Rocklee free.

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Specially for
PERGOLAS
Provide and install. Use them in the construction of Pergolas and other structures. Write for literature. HARTMANN-SANDERS CO., CHICAGO, ILL.

patentee, so far as his absolute right of exclusion of all others from the practice of his invention is concerned, can be modified, without materially affecting that promotion of the useful arts and sciences contemplated by our Constitution and upon which is founded that wonderful commercial progress to which our present civilization is indebted.

In other words, if we give a man a patent at all, it can only be a patent which will give him the absolute right to say on what terms others may be permitted to manufacture, use, and sell his invention.

Detroit's Trade-mark Contest
"Made in U. S. A." Trade-mark Which Was Awarded \$500 Prize by Detroit Board of Commerce Feature of "Made in U. S. A." Exposition

A NOTABLE feature of the "Made in U. S. A." Industrial Exposition at the Grand Central Palace was the "Made in U. S. A." trade-mark which was awarded the \$500 prize offered by the Detroit Board of Commerce. It was chosen from 119,000 submitted by citizens of the United States, and is the joint effort of James Harley Nash, a designer, and of Clowry Chapman, a trade-mark specialist, both of New York.

A condition of the contest was that this design was to become the property of the people of the United States, and not merely of Detroit business men. In appreciation of this broad patriotic attitude of the Detroit Board of Commerce, the El Paso, Texas, Chamber of Commerce, came to the front with a further prize of \$50.

The award of the prize was given a further national appeal by judges having been chosen from other cities. These judges were: James Kealey, editor and publisher of the Chicago Herald; Charles Daniel Freg, a well-known designer of Chicago; Edward Froehel, president of the Holoprop Hosiery Company of Milwaukee; Orson D. Munn, patent and trade mark lawyer of the firm of Munn & Co., New York; and Charles B. Warren, president of the Board of Commerce of Detroit.

The winning design was in color and in black. It shows an eagle in silhouette on whose outspread wings appear the words "Made in" Below the eagle is the word "Detroit", surmounting the letters U. S. A. In the colored design the eagle is blue and the words "Made in" are white, while "Detroit" and "U. S. A." are in red.

In making the award, the judges said: "The design is simple, strong, and mechanically perfect; it can be easily woven in textile fabrics, and is so open that it will reproduce perfectly down to a quarter of an inch; its use as a stencil, stamp or metal die presents no difficulties, and its character is such that it will print satisfactorily in any medium or by any process. The design is plastic in that the name of the city can be omitted or widened, or contracted, without destroying or impairing the composition. The design, also, is thoroughly American in atmosphere, composition, and color scheme. Its merit is simplicity, and legibility will be a strong argument for its adoption and use on American merchandise in foreign trade."

The Use of Patented Pavements by Cities

MANY laws, city charters and city ordinances have been enacted forbidding the use of patented materials or machines in municipal work, according to the Engineering News. These laws have had their origin partly in some notable cases in the past where patented devices have been used at exorbitant cost to the taxpayers as a result of dishonest collusion with city officials, and partly in cases where suits for very heavy damages have been brought against cities because of some use of a patented device without consent of the owner of the patent. Such laws, however, have proved impracticable of complete enforcement. The progress of the art is largely retarded by the issue of patents, and to wholly prevent a city from using any patented device until the patent had expired, 17 years from the date of its



Tarvia
Preserves Roads
Prevents Dust—

Tarvia Road in front of War College, Washington, D. C.

Better Roads and Lower Taxes—

THE automobile has radically changed the problem of the road builder. What is required now is a form of road construction which will not only give a good surface the whole year round, but which will be able to withstand motor traffic.

Tarvia furnishes the solution

Tarvia is a dense, vacoid coal tar product. It is made in several grades to meet varying road conditions. Used in road construction it forms a matrix about the stone, making a Tarvia-concrete which is waterproof and automobile-proof.

Special Service Department

In order to bring the facts before taxpayers as well as road builders, the Barrett Manufacturing Company has organized a Special Service Department, which brings up to the minute on all road problems. If you will write to central office regarding road conditions or problems in your municipality, we will have the present situation of experienced engineers. The service is free for the asking. If you want better roads and lower taxes the Department can greatly assist you.

BARRETT MANUFACTURING COMPANY
New York Chicago Philadelphia Boston St. Louis Cleveland Cincinnati
Pittsburgh Detroit Birmingham Kansas City Minneapolis Salt Lake City Seattle
THE PATENTRON MFG. CO. LIMITED Montreal Toronto Winnipeg
Vancouver St. John, N. B. Halifax, N. S. Sydney, N. S.

A Locomotive Runs on a Track



—Why Not a Tractor?

THE Caterpillar Tractor is locomotive and track in one. There's an endless track, with steel plates to act as ties, and heavy steel rails on which the small truck wheels run smoothly along however soft or rough the ground.

The Caterpillar 45—the no-front-wheel type—is well fitted for an all-purpose, small farm tractor. It turns in its own length.

With its 38-inch-long track's grip on the ground it doesn't slip or mire—whether on bad roads or on roads.

Its big bearing surface prevents packing the soil in plowing soft land.

It does not injure roads or bridges, and you can seldom sink it in mud. Its powerful 4-cylinder motor furnishes power for all belt work.

The Tractor that 6 European armies are using in increasing demand for engineering and road construction work—the only real Caterpillar trademarked and patented.

Built to stand up under the hardest usage, with lowest upkeep cost.

Write for Bulletin G-11 247 and tell us what your work is.

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(Incorporated)
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Stockton, Cal. Spokane, Wash. Peoria, Ill.



Carbon trouble is a Piston Ring Trouble

It's not the fault of the oil at all—it's due to defective piston rings.

❶ All good lubricating oil must contain carbon, but carbonization only occurs when the oil is allowed to get where it has no business to be—in the combustion chamber. It's the duty of piston rings to keep it down in the crank-case where it rightfully belongs.

❷ Don't blame the oil. Put in

LEAK-PROOF PISTON RINGS

MADE BY MCQUAY-NORRIS MFG. CO.

and you'll reduce carbon trouble to a minimum. You'll get more power, too, for **Leak-Proof** Piston Rings are gas-tight as well as oil-tight—resulting in perfect compression, less friction loss and less motor wear. They will save both oil and fuel!

❸ Put a punch in your motor by installing **Leak-Proof** Piston Rings. They are perfect-fitting, equal-bearing, enduringly-elastic rings. They are made with mechanical exactness to overcome the inefficiency of other rings. Neither gas nor oil can get by them or through them.

❹ Over 300,000 Motors are equipped with **Leak-Proof** Piston Rings to replace inefficient rings.

"Ask the user"



Send for Free Book—

"To Save and to Hold Power". It explains the theory and function of piston rings and shows why you should equip your engine with **Leak-Proof** Rings.

Built by all up-to-date designers, engineers and repair shops.

Manufactured by

MCQUAY-NORRIS MFG. CO.

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Canadian Factory—W. H. Bayfield & Sons, 120 Adelaide St. West, Toronto

BRANCH OFFICES—

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Pittsburgh—922 Second Nat. Bank Bldg.

Chicago—111 Michigan Bldg.

San Francisco—140 Market Bldg.

Los Angeles—224 Central Bldg.

Dallas—109 Commerce St.

The Heavens in April

(Continued from page 218.)

away on the 17th. She is in conjunction with Uranus on the 8th, Venus on the 10th, Jupiter on the 11th, Mars and Mercury on the 12th, Saturn on the 10th, and Neptune on the 22nd. The conjunction with Venus, which occurs at 10 A. M. on the 10th, will afford a very good opportunity to pick the planet up with the naked eye in the daytime about 2 degrees to the southward of the Moon.

Mellish's Comet.

Later elements of this comet indicate that its perihelion passage will occur in the latter part of July, at a distance slightly exceeding that of the Earth. The comet should then be pretty bright, but will be too far south to be well observable in this country. No exact ephemeris of its position is at hand, but it appears that on April 1st it will be in about 18 hours 2 minutes right ascension and a little more than 1 degree south of the celestial equator, and moving slowly eastward and southward. It is already a conspicuous telescopic object.

Princeton University Observatory.

Freeing Condensed Steam From Oil

CONDENSED steam furnishes water which is in some particulars especially adapted for boiler supply. Since it is, of course, a distillate, it has been freed from the mineral matter which forms the troublesome deposit in boilers known as scale. Furthermore, it retains a considerable degree of heat. But unfortunately such re-use is rendered difficult in spite of these advantages by the fact that the steam in passing through the engine carries with it a certain amount of lubricating oil which subsequently fouls the condensate. When water thus contaminated is used to feed boilers, the oil adheres to the walls and gradually accumulates until it is present in sufficient quantity to retard the passage of heat to such an extent that there arises the danger of its causing superheating of the hot surfaces.

Obviously, therefore, this oil must be extracted from the water before its re-use in boilers. Much extraction is difficult because the oil is present not in drops, but largely in the form of tiny particles so intimately mixed with the water as to form an emulsion. In such form even a long period of rest is not sufficient to separate it entirely. Likewise filtration through coke, sponge, cloths, etc., is only partially successful.

Better results are obtained by chemical means. In this process soda and sulphur containing clay are added to the water. This method, however, is open to the objection that it requires elaborate and costly apparatus which demands careful attention, which obviously makes its practical application difficult.

A third method seeks to free the steam from oil before condensation. Various forms of apparatus have been constructed for this purpose, but the condensate always contains some trace of oil, so the trouble is at best deferred. Recently, however, a new method has been advertised, which claims to render the water entirely free from oil without great expense or trouble. This is known as the **Halvors-Breda-A-G** patent process. It is described in a recent number of the *Technische Monatshefte* by Dr. Hauns Glühner. According to him, it utilizes the fact that an electric current conducted through water containing oil causes the oil to collect in foamy flakes, which can easily be removed by mechanical means.

The apparatus consists of a large wooden container in which numerous flat plates are placed as electrodes. The oily water coming from the condensers flows slowly past these plates. The electrodes beneath the stream of water draw the clay particles of oil to them and form a sort of oily slime out of them. When the current is reversed this slime is loosened and rises in flakes to the surface of the water. Here it can be skimmed off completely. If the water, after being thus de-oiled, be passed through a gravel filter, the product is crystal clear and entirely



Wouldn't You Like to Be With Them?

ANYWHERE along the byways and highways, far out into the open country which invites the red-blooded, freedom-seeking man, you will find the invigorating, joy-giving 1915

Indian Motorcycle

Once you own an Indian, the spirit of life thrills in your veins—the exhilaration of power thrills you—the world lies before you to explore—the joys of touring are yours.

Beyond the hills is the long, sloping valley, the broad plains, the mountain retreats, the winding ribbon of the challenging road. The rhythmic purr of the Indian engine bespeaks unlimited power.

One, Two, and Three-Speed Models

2,800 Indian dealers—everywhere assure over-night service anywhere

Send for Beautiful Indian Catalog showing Nine Big 1915 Indian Innovations

HENDEE MANUFACTURING COMPANY, 725 State St., Springfield, Mass.

Largest Motorcycle Manufacturers in the World!

Branches and Service Stations: Chicago, Minneapolis, Kansas City, St. Francisco, Atlanta, Dallas, Toronto, London, Melbourne



A Big Help in Time of Need

ONE man in seven is accidentally killed or injured each year. You may be the one.

Would your wife then be able to write a letter like this?

This man took out a policy for \$5,000 a little over two years ago. Because it was an **Aetna Accumulative Accident** policy, it increased \$200 a year in value and his premium stayed the same. He was killed in a railroad accident, so both policy and increase doubled, making the payment \$12,000.

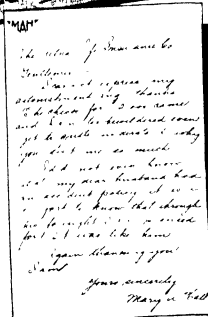
For \$25 a year, in "Preferred" occupations this policy brings—

\$5,000 to \$10,000 for accidental death or loss of two limbs or eyes. Add \$500 to \$1,000 a year for every year you renew the insurance up to 5 years.

Half the above for loss of one hand, foot or eye.

\$60 a week as long as you live if you are disabled from salaried, stenographic or farming business.

accident. \$25 a week for any other accident.



AETNA-IZE

Do you think you are safe from accident? Last year one man in seven was killed or injured by an accident. Take any seven men you know. Any one of them may die or be injured by accident. Send this coupon. It is the most important thing you have to do. Your wife asks you to do it. Your children ask you to do it. Send it today.

Important thing you have to do. Your wife asks you to do it. Your children ask you to do it. Send it today.

AETNA LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

Drawing 1441 HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT

The largest company in the world writing Life, Accident, Health and Liability Insurance.

Agency opportunities for all Canada and leading lines

Send this coupon to the nearest Aetna Life Insurance Company office. It is the most important thing you have to do. Your wife asks you to do it. Your children ask you to do it. Send it today.

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Through all these many years Regal Cars have been distinguished for sturdy and enduring construction.

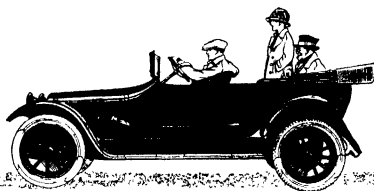
To-day, these qualities are more than ever embodied in each model—in every car that leaves our Factory.

Surely among these Three Regals is one suited to your needs.

A Light "Four" at..... \$ 650
A Standard "Four" at..... 1085
A "V" Type "Eight" at..... 1250

All are simply powered—moderately priced—completely equipped—electric starting and lighting included.
All models comfortably roomy—with full stream-line bodies and strong features.

REGAL MOTOR CAR COMPANY
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RANERE The True Everbearing RASPBERRY

Bears the first year's crop in Northern New York. Produces enormous quantities of large, firm, juicy berries every day all summer and fall. Rich, sugar, with crisp, firm texture. Grows in good condition long after the season. Stagnant constitution. Grows everywhere. Yields as high as 5000 per acre. Small patch bears 5000 berries. Supply of fruit nearly constant. Get 25¢ 1913, produce shipping in Chicago from getting 75¢ per box. Our 1913 Catalog includes Nut Culture, Prunus, Nuts, Shrubs, etc. FREE 6250 2000, Inc., Cleverland, Tenn., 174 Main St., Rochester, N. Y.

Make your Push Button an Office Telephone for \$8.75

Use the same wires, the same bell or buzzer, the same batteries. Just get these two simple little Western Electric Inter-phones, and hook them onto the buzzer wire—one at your desk, the other near the buzzer.

You can then telephone for what you want and get your answer on the instant, without having the office boy or clerk waste his time in coming for your message. This simple arrangement saves time at both ends of the line. Most convenient, and stops the confusion of running back and forth.

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We will ship you these Inter-phones by parcel post, all ready to connect on receipt of \$8.75. Your money back if not satisfied. For full particulars and directions for attaching these Inter-phones, write for Booklet No. 47-A.G.

secondary standards of length, and in the latter it is employed for pendulum rods, compensating devices for torsion pendulums and balance wheels correcting the secondary error of temperature in chronometers. Dr. Guillaume has done a large amount of research work in connection with iron-nickel alloys, in the course of which he also discovered platinum.

Producing the Effective Temperature of the Sun

By Our Berlin Correspondent

WHILE enormous strides have been made lately in the production of extremely low temperatures, resulting in some most valuable discoveries in the field of science and engineering, high temperature work has been relatively less successful. In spite of the very important results likely to be derived in this connection. In fact, until very recent times, the temperatures of many of our usual sources of light, such as carbon filaments and arc lamp craters, could not be gaged with even a fair degree of approximation.

In an address delivered before the Society of National Culture not long ago, Dr. Otto Lummer, the well-known physicist of Breslau University, drew attention to the fact that the temperature of the positive crater of arc lamps, as determined by himself, viz., about 4500 deg. cent., is the highest terrestrial temperature so far realized. Whereas in the case of terrestrial illuminants the actual temperature can be gaged, we must be satisfied with determining the effective temperatures of celestial bodies. Supposing the sun to radiate like a "black" body, that is, a body perfectly absorbing any incident radiation of any wave-length whatsoever, its "effective" or "black" temperature can be determined from the sum total of radiation sent to the earth (solar constant), the figure thus found being about 5500 deg. Cent.

Now, Dr. Lummer, in the course of his recent work, has succeeded not only in reaching, but in considerably exceeding this effective sun temperature. In this connection he was guided by the fact brought out by his previous experiments, that the temperature of the two craters of an arc lamp burning in the open atmosphere cannot be driven beyond a maximum figure (4500 deg. Cent.), this temperature thus being constant within wide limits of current intensity and arc length. The constancy of this temperature could be due to the carbon's reaching either its melting or its boiling point. Dr. Lummer having yet then been unable to melt the carbon of arc lamps, and the melting of carbon at ordinary pressures being considered unfeasible, he could not but conclude that the temperature observed was the boiling point. Experiments made to ascertain this, however, brought out the fact that the carbon was actually reduced to a liquid condition, and after separating the liquid from the solid phase and investigating at several degrees of vacuum the solid part of the evaporating crater, a regular drop in the temperature of the crater was observed with decreasing pressures. Dr. Lummer then proceeded to undertake a series of tests at increased pressures, when pure carbon arc lamps were found to form nothing like stationary arcs with large craters corresponding to the current intensity. Special measures, of which details cannot yet be published, had therefore to be devised in order to produce a true, stationary arc with crater temperatures corresponding to the increase in pressure. In fact, Dr. Lummer succeeded in ascertaining a regular increase in temperature, with special measures, a surface brightness about eighteen times the normal figure being reached at about 20 atmospheres, corresponding with a temperature of about 7800 deg. Cent.

Temperatures exceeding by about 3000 deg. Cent. the so far highest terrestrial temperature (4500 deg. Cent.), were thus for the first time produced in the laboratory. Whether still higher temperatures can be obtained in this way obviously depends on the possibility of producing true arc at even greater pressures.

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feine is extracted by volatile solvents, such
as alcohol and benzol, after the cellular
tissue of the coffee bean has been softened
by steaming and the coffee salts have
been decomposed by means of acids or
alkalis. This process is applicable only to
raw coffee. Analyses of the product show
that at least one sixth part of the ingredi-
ents which give coffee its flavor and aroma
are removed with the caffeine. Dr. R.
Dittmar states, in *Die Kaffeebohne*, that L.
Klohn has patented a new process by
which the caffeine can be almost com-
pletely extracted with little loss of the
flavoring and aromatic ingredients. Raw
coffee is mixed and stirred, under pres-
sure, with slaked lime and soda. The stir-
ring is continued while the mass is gradu-
ally heated to 200 deg. Cent. (392 deg.
Fahr.) and kept at that temperature until
the coffee beans begin to swell. The coffee
is then transferred to an apparatus in
which it is first dried and then heated to
about 100 deg. Cent. (208 deg. Fahr.), so
that it is partially roasted.

Engineering Openings in Russia

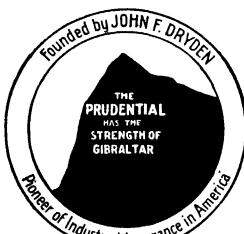
THE British Consul-General at Moscow
has forwarded a report received from a
reliable source in regard to the machinery
import trade of Russia, which contains a
list of various classes of machinery which
have hitherto been imported from vari-
ous Continental countries, but which it is
considered might now be replaced by
British manufactures. It is stated that
about fifteen years ago German machin-
ery makers sent to Russia representatives
who noted what had been supplied by
English firms, copied some of the advan-
tages, and proceeded to remedy defects
which were pointed out by users, with
the result that in a short time machinery
was delivered from Germany which met
users' requirements, and was delivered at
Moscow at lower prices than English ma-
chines. All classes of machinery enter-
ing Russia have to pay duty by weight,
and while English makers, with few ex-
ceptions, have practically ignored the rule
that weight pays when duty is imposed
upon it, the Germans have attached im-
portance to it. In many machines there
are heavy rough cast-iron and other parts
which could be made in Russia at a price
which would considerably reduce the total
cost of the machine to the purchaser de-
livered at his mill or works. This is a
phase in the machinery trade worthy of
consideration by English producers of
heavy, rough machinery who are desir-
ous of entering the Russian market. With
the development of municipal institutions
in Russia it is asserted that there is a
great field for contractors capable of in-
stalling water works, gas works, electric
light and tramway plant, etc., but recent-
ly German firms have invariably obtained
such contracts. One of the causes con-
tributing to their success in this direction
has been the ready way in which the
German business houses have met pur-
chasers in regard to terms of payment,
etc.; this has been possible owing to the
fact that the interests of various Ger-
man makers have been so interwoven that
they could obtain financial support where
an isolated English supplier would fail.
Moreover, whenever a big scheme has
been under consideration, the German
cognates have had their representatives
constantly in touch with those who have
had the placing of the orders, and by con-
stantly assisting them, free of charge, to
draw up specifications, these representa-
tives have succeeded in getting specified
just those classes, designs, models, and
size which could only be obtained from
German firms. British machinery man-
ufacturers, who wish to obtain a share of
the Russian orders hitherto placed in Ger-
many, are urged to commence the neces-
sary propaganda at once, and not to wait
until the war has terminated. They
should prepare their circulars in the Rus-
sian language, and cause them to be dis-
tributed to likely customers through re-
liable agents. The distribution of circulars
in a haphazard way will do little
good; they should be sent out by firms
or individuals on the spot who know
exactly who are the users of the machines
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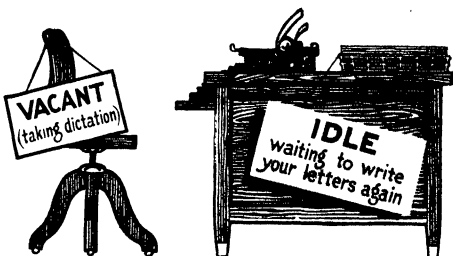
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The Zeppelin Raid on Paris

By C. Dionisbach

FOR the first time the reason of a Zeppelin attack is known with certainty. It was officially announced that the recent aerial night raid on Paris was made in retaliation for what is claimed to have been an unjustified attack on the non-military city of Schlettstadt by a French aeroplane. Illegitimate Zeppelin raids seemed to have no very clear object in view beyond more or less indiscriminate bombing-dropping. If the published accounts may at all be trusted

If these attacks were really aimed, as many believe, at private property and non-combatants, they would be far more senseless and inefficient than we have a right to expect of the highly efficient German army and its General Staff. The obvious difficulty of aiming dropped missiles from a mammoth aircraft, instead on dodging hostile fire, would play no part, as the target offered even by a small town would be immense, and about half of this area would be roofs. But to drop a few heavy, shattering high-explosive bombs on a town would be literally beside the mark. One half of them should more or less harmlessly drop into streets or yards; the remaining two or three might be expected to smash two or three houses. What does the destruction of two or three houses amount to compared with the devastation demanded in the legitimate bombardment of a village used as a stronghold? If a Zeppelin intended anything like making a businesslike job of a savage attack on civilians it would surely drop at least one hundred twenty-pound bombs, suspended under its length, at the rate of three a second, by electrical release, possibly the machine guns fired from howitzers. (Each Zeppelin carries a fair-sized dynamo for searchlight and wireless.) Some fifty of the bombs would be most likely to hit houses, but it is hardly the nature of an air attack to copy the plan of a bombardment on land. To turn aerial carrying capacity, limited even with a Zeppelin, into smashing force seems wasteful. The air fighter, on the contrary, depends on starting an avalanche rolling-on furnishing only the salient point, or rather an endless multitude of such points, for spontaneous destruction.

The process is like an epidemic starting from a thousand germs, partly perishing, partly resisted. This banishes high explosives, which scatter too much for efficient ignition. Ancient Greek fire, which, unlike gasoline could not be extinguished by sand let alone water, and merrily blazed away on the waves, is the weapon for aircraft. But with the drop seven or eight rather inferior modern incendiary bombs, as stated of the recent Zeppelin raid, which started a few fires. The Zeppelin becomes a mechanical Attila, the true scourge of God, the moment it scatters over a town (on the windward side) one thousand two-pound torches made of an adequate modern imitation of unextinguishable Greek fire. In other words, an extremely slow, hot-burning explosive. The technical problem of lighting a slow match safely by electric circuit in most rapid succession inside each torch as it drops is easily solved. The steel shell of a torch or "fire arrow" must also be strong enough to allow of its piercing roofs after dropping from a great elevation. If these missiles lodge invisibly at night (burning at first only inside) they are all the more irresistible. Now, such a Zeppelin attack would not be more savage than those first mentioned, but directed mainly against property only, no much less so that it might under certain conditions be intentionally resorted to, it is quite conceivable that Germany would answer the actual starving to death of her women and children. If that were possible, by a modern repetition of the great fire of London. The "attack on London," as it is popularly fancied at present, would engender worse than useless hate.

But a modern "London conflagration," hopelessly beyond control from the outset, perfectly feasible because Zeppelins found their way irresistibly and unobtrusively to other darkened British cities in night and

fog, offers a different aspect—an aspect which tends to greatly reduce the advisability of keeping retaliatory, even in this horrible war, to the wisely established restraints of international law, whether they affect blockades or bomb-dropping.

In the light of such considerations, "Zeppelin raids" to decide upon rather as what they probably were—moral and cautious first trials of actual war conditions for moral effect without intent of true fighting; or, in the most recent case, an intentionally limited and chiefly moral punishing action. Dropping missiles for "legitimate" military tasks on the other hand, seems already largely discredited as too erratic in the face of defending artillery.

Our Neglected Aquatic Foods

ASIDE from its well-known activity in conserving the resources of the country in food fishes and other aquatic animals belonging to our habitual dietary, the United States Bureau of Fisheries has long been conducting inquiries into the potential value and possibility of using various aquatic products which are wholly neglected or but inadequately utilized in this country. An example is the sea mussel, a cheap, abundant, and excellent food, but one rarely seen on American tables. The bureau issued several reports calling attention to this food, but without accomplishing the desired result. Finally, early in 1914, a most energetic campaign was inaugurated in Boston, where one of the leading hotels was induced to add the sea mussel to its bill-of-fare. At the same time the matter was given publicity in the newspapers, with the result that in a few months mussels were being served and given a conspicuous place on the menus of over seventy of the principal hotels, restaurants, and clubs of the city. Having thus become familiar to the public, mussels were placed on sale by retail dealers and vendors, who were furnished with large placards giving the product the endorsement of the bureau, and wide distribution was made of a circular explaining the merits of mussels, and giving a number of recipes for cooking them. Finally, the members of the police force were supplied with mussels and circulars, in order that the policemen's homes in all parts of the city might serve as foci of information on the subject. This propaganda is to be extended to other parts of the seaboard. As the mussel is suitable for canning, its use will probably spread to all parts of the country. Preliminary steps have been taken toward a similar campaign in behalf of the oyster, and the product is not only not utilized to any extent for food, but is a serious scourge to the established fisheries on account of its rapacious habits.

Hypnotism

HYPNOTISM is associated in the minds of many persons with the vaudeville stage; they think of it as a sort of psychological charlatanry in which the performer, sometimes through the assistance of confederates in the audience, who volunteer as subjects, amuses, and deceives, the spectators.

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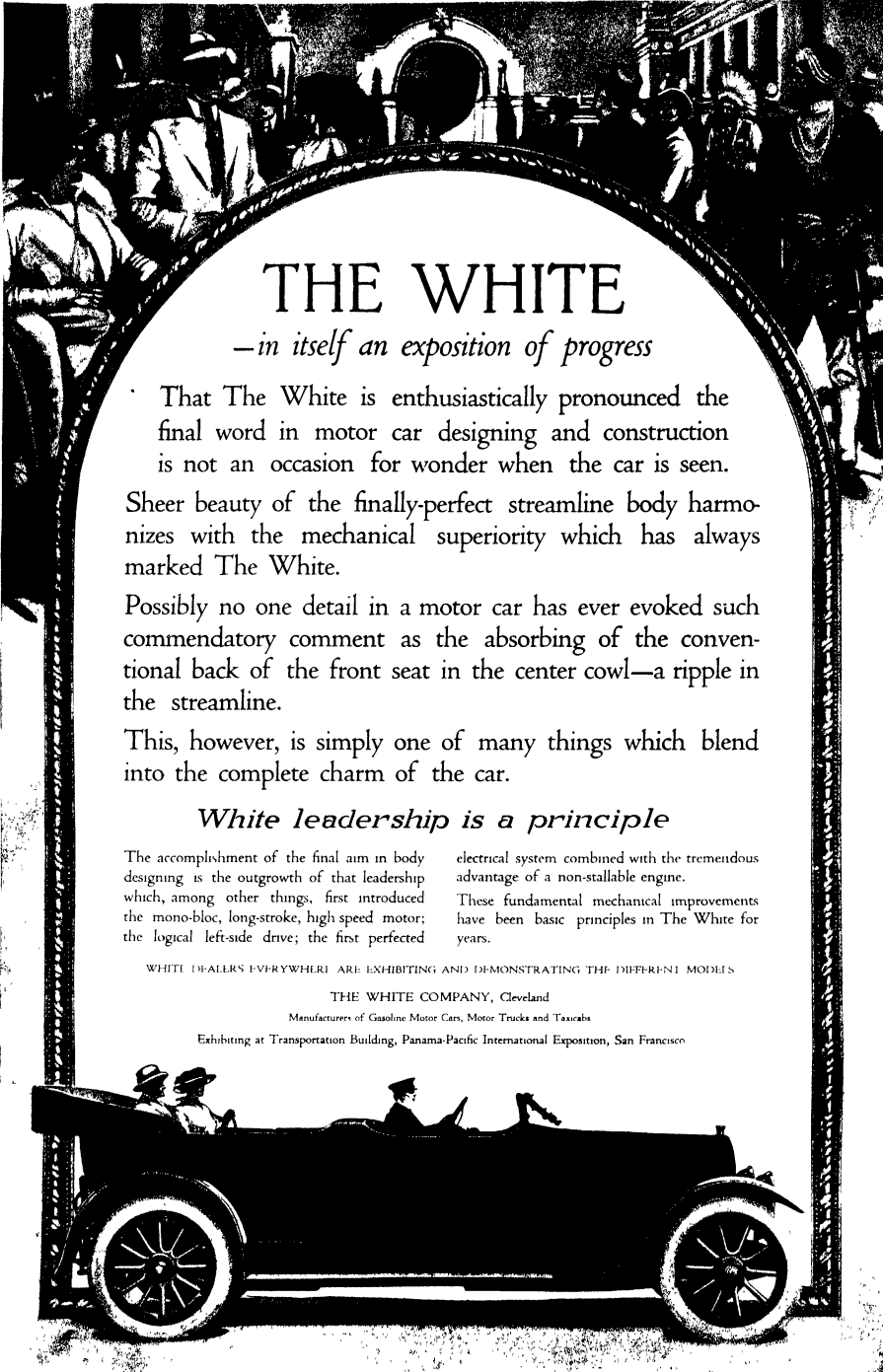
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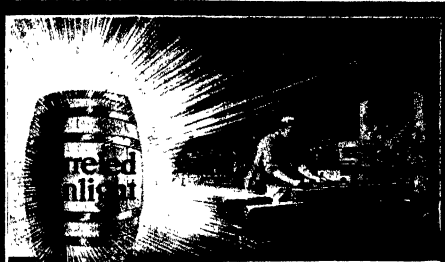
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WE GUARANTEE that if Rice's does not remain white longer than any other gloss paint, applied at the same time and under the same conditions, *we will give free, enough Rice's to repaint the job with one coat.* We also guarantee that, properly applied, Rice's will not flake or scale. You cannot lose under this guarantee.

Sold direct
from factory

Sold direct from
our factory in
barrels containing
sufficient paint to
cover 20,000
square feet one
coat

Write for booklet,
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U. S. Gutta
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surfaces

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pense than lead
and oil paint.
Rice's Granolith



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If Goodyear S-V's Fail to Meet This
Test—All Money Back

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Do this for your own sake. Learn the maximum in Truck Tires. It will save you many a dollar in years to come, without risking a penny on Goodyears.

Fortunes at Stake

We are staking fortunes on this offer, but not rashly. We have already worn out 5000 S-V's in recorded tests and comparisons. Barring accidents, we know that Goodyear S-V's will win out in that test.

8th-Year Tires

This S-V is the final result of eight years spent on Truck Tires. We have had scores of experts at work on them. We have had a department of Research and Experiment which costs \$100,000 per year.

We built 20 types before this one. We built 74 models of this S-V before we reached the limit. Now we have what seems to be the utmost in a Truck Tire.

Troubles Ended

These are pressed-on tires, without a single auxiliary fastening. That saves much cost, much weight. The minimum pressure is 50,000 pounds, so that creeping is impossible.

The shape ends bulging, breaking or excessive grinding. The compound minimizes friction-tax, both on tire and power.

The tread, the backing and the rim are, by a secret process, made inseparable in use.

And the tread offers 20 per cent extra wear in available rubber.

Consult our local branch—or us—as to where to get S-V Truck Tires under this amazing warrant.

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S-V Truck Tires

THE GOODYEAR TIRE & RUBBER CO., Desk 132, Akron, O.

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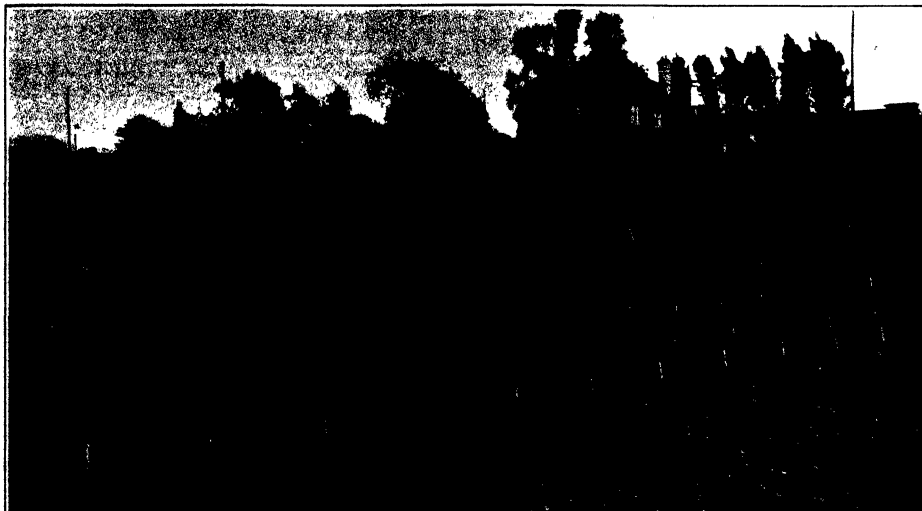
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Experiments to discover the effect of radio-active ores on plant life.

Radio-Active Ores and Plant Life

By Harold Bastin

A SERIES of experiments, designed to show the effects of radioactive materials on plant life, has been conducted by Mr. Martin H. F. Sutton, a member of a well-known firm of English seedsmen. Mr. Sutton's interest in the question was stimulated by the following story. A certain artisan had a heap of soil on his premises and, finding it an obstruction, distributed it over a small patch of garden land, the soil of which had previously been remarkably poor and unproductive. It so happened that the material composing the heap had originally come from one of the "dumps," or refuse mounds, at the French Radium Mine, near Truro, in Cornwall, England. Its application to the garden land led, so it is alleged, to a remarkable improvement in the crops which were grown there during the following summer.

With the object of securing definite information bearing upon this subject, and in the interest of scientific research, Mr. Sutton procured several hundredweight of ore containing radium, as well as certain residues, and with this material carried out an elaborate series of trials with peas, radishes, lettuce, tomatoes, nasturtiums, rapeseed, clovers, and various flowering annuals. The whole series of experiments comprising some six hundred pots and boxes. In the case of each subject, the dates of sowing, planting and watering, as well as the number of plants treated, were identical; while, except in the case of the rapeseed and clovers, the trials were conducted in the open without special precautions. The proportion of ore or residue mixed with the soil varied from 1 part in 12 to 1 part in 2,240; and in every experiment the ore or residue was in one box or pot well mixed with the soil, and in another box placed in a layer beneath the soil. The results of every experiment were also compared with "control" batches of plants grown in plain soil only, also with other batches grown in soils with which manures and fertilizers of various kinds had been mixed.

The results of these experiments have been far less uniform than one might have felt inclined to predict, that is to say, some kinds of plants appear to benefit greatly from the presence of radium or allied sub-

stances in the soil, while other kinds are scarcely affected. In the case of lettuce, for example, the tabulated results show that seven out of the ten boxes containing radio-active material gave heavier results than the "control" box, but none was so heavy as the product of the box dressed with a complete fertilizer. This, as Mr. Sutton remarks, seems to show that the radio-active ores increased the weight of the lettuce, though not so effectively as the fertilizer referred to. On the other hand, the response of radishes to radio-treatment was very marked. All the boxes containing radio-active materials gave greater weights than the "control" box, while six of them were heavier than those dressed with manures and fertilizers. Scarcely any difference can be seen in peas grown under radio-active conditions, while the same remark applies to carnations.

The experiments conducted with rapeseed and red clover were designed to show the effect of radio-active substances on germination. The boxes of rapeseed received no artificial heat, but those containing the clovers were placed in a greenhouse of moderate temperature. In all other respects the conditions were identical. The results were extremely interesting. The seeds were sown on July 20th. With one exception, which was a trifle later than the others, all the rapeseed sown in soil dressed with ore or residue germinated first and equally on July 27th the "residue" boxes held first place, being followed by "ore," "control," "Clay's fertilizer," "farm yard manure," and "guano" in the order given. In the case of red clover, sown on the same date, all the lots germinated evenly and together, with the exception of "Clay's fertilizer" and "guano," which were a little delayed. As with the rapeseed, however, all the lots of red clover dressed with "residue" were distinctly strongest on July 27th, the positions occupied by the other lots being also approximately the same, with "guano" last.

So far as these experiments have been carried, they seem to show that whereas radio-active materials benefit, in greater or less degree, rapeseed, clovers, radishes, and lettuce, they have little or no effect upon peas, tomatoes, nasturtiums and other flowering annuals. Soil treated with black oxide of uranium in the proportion of 1 part in 2,240 appeared generally to make the plants more sturdy; but in these cases it was noticeable that the inflorescence was retarded.

Belgian Bridge in Reinforced Concrete

THE bridge upon the Meuse River in Belgium, at Boulogne, is a recent example of reinforced concrete work. Lying as it does in the region of the war, it is not unreasonable to suppose that like other bridges in Belgium it was exposed to more or less damage. The present bridge has a total length between abutments of 393 feet, being made up of a midriver span 110 feet long and two end spans each of about 140 feet. Reinforced concrete on the French Henricque system is used here. Outside width of the bridge is 13 feet, including wagon way and two footways, and the former is paved with compressed asphalt laid directly on the reinforced concrete bridge planking. This makes the roadway very elastic and is found to be an excellent method. Some points about the building of the two piers in the river may be of interest. This work was carried out by means of caissons built of reinforced concrete and further stiffened by webs of the same. After the cement had set, the caisson was sunk upon the prepared rock surface. Two layers of cement sacks had been put in place upon the rock by a squad of divers so as to form a good level base for receiving the caisson. After lowering upon this prepared surface, a diver went down to inspect the inside and see that all was in place, after which concrete was run into the caisson so as to fill up to about 8 feet on the bottom. When this layer had set the caisson was pumped out by turbine pump on the scaffolding, and when empty the filling of the caisson was then carried on by 8-inch layers of concrete, each layer being well pounded in place, thus reaching the top of the caisson. Height above the foundation is about 20 feet, and the top projects 3 feet out of the water. The foundations for abutments are of interest as having been laid by the use of the "compressed" concrete well system, using a pointed ram of the pile-driver kind to sink a deep hole and compress the soil around it, the well then being filled with rock pounded in, and then with rock and cement layers. This gave a solid foundation for the abutments, these being of reinforced concrete, and the true work is consolidated with the concrete of the ground wells so as to make a monolith construction. The North Belgian Railroad runs along one bank of the river.

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles on subjects of technical interest. If the photographs are sharp the articles short, and the facts accurate, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular space rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement

The Submarine Disaster

THE shocking disaster, at Honolulu, to "F-4," one of our later destroyers, involving the loss of the boat and the whole of its crew, has brought home to the people of the United States a realization of the ever present perils which attend the operation of submarines.

In the earlier years of the development of this type of craft accidents of the kind which has now happened to "F-4" were alarmingly frequent. During the past decade death has taken heavy toll of the men who go down into the sea on underwater craft, and particularly among those countries, France, Great Britain, and Germany, which have been active in the construction and trying out of the submarine.

Bearing this in mind, and remembering that we have at the present time built and under construction in the United States Navy over half a hundred submarines, and that our officers and crew have been engaged in handling these vessels for the past fifteen years, there is a mournful satisfaction in knowing that the disaster to "F-4" is the first fatal accident that has occurred in our submarine service. There have been accidents, of course. More than once our boats have sunk to the bottom and remained there much longer than their commanders intended, causing serious little casualties. But in every case the crew of the trouble was saved, and the boat brought safely back to the surface.

The cause of the loss of "F-4" remains at the present writing a mystery. Doubtless, by the time this issue appears the wreck will have been brought ashore and the cause of the disaster ascertained. It would be a misfortune if the loss of this boat shook the confidence of the public in the new form of naval warfare. In the service it is understood that foundering is only one among several forms of accident to which the submarine is liable, and the fact that something went wrong on this boat will not serve to shake the confidence of men or officers. Indeed, it only takes a few minutes' conversation with them to realize that, in the service, the submarine is a craft with great and varied possibilities. No professional man ventures to set a limit to its potentialities when it shall have achieved its maximum development in size, speed, ranging qualities, and extended radius of action.

The great length of time required to bring "F-4" to the surface after it had been located suggests that, since we have a submarine fleet of such considerable proportions, the Navy should build at least two of these powerful floating submarine-salvage ships with which the foreign navies are equipped. More than once we have given illustrated descriptions of these vessels, and we understand that they have done very efficient work in emergencies. The United States Navy ought to have one of these craft in the Pacific and another in the Atlantic, centrally located with regard to our submarine bases.

Although the submarine, because of the success of the Germans in sinking some of the slower warships and many of the slower merchant vessels of the enemy, has given the public an exaggerated estimate of its present military value, its most important service has been made upon the officers and men of our own service. The submarine, it is admitted, has done excellent work

within the limits of its capacity; but it is realized that its speed and cruising radius, especially in the submerged condition, must be greatly increased before it can exercise a controlling influence upon naval operations as a whole.

Battleships With Battle-cruiser Speed

THE principal objection on the part of our Navy Department to the construction of battle-cruisers is that their side armor is too light to enable them to stand in the line with battleships, with any hope of keeping out the heavy armor-piercing shells of the enemy's battleships. The great strategical and tactical value of high speed is admitted, but the sacrifice of armor involved has been looked upon as an insuperable objection, at least until our battleship line has been brought up to the standard of strength called for by the General Board of the Navy.

That objection, however, has been met in those five remarkable ships known as the "Queen Elizabeth" class. Here we have dreadnoughts carrying the heaviest guns afloat, protected by 13 or 14 inches of armor on the water line and turrets, and nevertheless able to steam at 20 knots or over in service. Twenty-five knots was the speed called for, but, as usual, the Parsons turbines have pulled an extra knot or two out of these ships, and the whole of the group will be capable of doing from 20 to 27 knots when called upon. The succeeding ships of the "Royal Sovereign" class, it is true, have dropped back to the 21-knot standard speed for dreadnought battleships. Evidently it was the design of the British Admiralty to provide the commander-in-chief of the fleet with a division whose combination of power, protection, and speed would render it of the highest strategical and tactical value in the operations of a great war. It can accept or refuse battle at will, and, by virtue of its speed, it can attack the rearmost ships of a fleeing enemy and delay him, until the main fleet can come up and engage.

Forts vs. Battleships

THERE seems to be little doubt that something has gone wrong with the attack of the Allies upon the forts which line both sides of the Straits of the Dardanelles. Since the grand attack in force, when three battle-ships were sunk and several severely disabled, there has been a complete lull in the operations. We hear less talk about forcing the Dardanelles and crushing the fortifications by overwhelming gunfire, and more about the necessity for capturing the positions from the land side.

Of course, the situation of the straits is a peculiarly difficult one for an attacking force, especially if the endeavor to force the straits is made from the westward. This is due to the fact that a very swift current sets from the Sea of Marmora to the Mediterranean, and that this renders it possible for the Turks to transfer the floating mine into a mobile engine of destruction. It will be remembered that the British Admiralty advised the loss of the three battle-ships to the fact that the Turks let loose, at the eastern end of the straits, a large number of mines, which, coming down with the current, in due course found their quarry.

It would be an interesting disavowal of the naval operations of the Dardanelles, if the forts should be taken in the rear and their guns destroyed by field armies. It shows the Dardanelles forts are better protected than our own coast forts against being taken in reverse, or from the rear, the chances of their speedy reduction are very good indeed; but in view of the fact that the fortifications, at least on the European side, can readily be approached by landing parties from ships, it is fairly certain that the landward approaches are capable of offering strong resistance to attack. In which case it is certain that the Turks, who have proved themselves to be very formidable, when, as at Plevna, they are fighting behind field works and in open trenches, will put up a strong defense. It is likely that the most interesting phase, and certainly the most elaborate, in this attempt to force the straits is yet to come.

Wanted—A Polyglot Scientific Dictionary

OF dictionaries of a strictly lexical character there are two principal types, viz., the dictionary which consists of words with their definitions, and the dictionary which consists of words belonging to one language with their equivalents in one or more other languages. In our supererogation we have reference primarily to a work of the second type, though the inclusion of a certain number of definitions, for the purpose of identifying positively such terms as might be ambiguous without them, would certainly be a desirable, and would probably be an essential, feature. The Italian proverb has it that translators are traitors ("Traduttori traditori"). Reasonably faithful translations are certainly far from common, while perfect

translations hardly exist. An unscientific translator does not, of course, necessarily argue either incompetence or negligence on the part of the translator. There are certain insuperable difficulties inherent in his task. Thus, it is impossible to render faithfully into English the turns of expression in other languages for which the English language offers no precise equivalents—and their name is legion. Again, the faithful rendering of a foreign phrase often makes intolerable reading in English and must therefore be avoided.

In contradiction to those incurable difficulties in the way of good translating, the translator is confronted by one which is not incurable, viz., inadequate dictionaries. Even for the vocabulary of general literature there are very few good interlingual word-books. There is, for example, no good large French-English dictionary, though there are (at last!) some excellent small ones. The average French-English, or anything else-English, dictionary is notoriously crude and out of date. As to the latter defect, it may be noted that up to ten years ago most "new" and "revised" works of this class failed to recognize the existence of the submarine, while even contemporary publications ignore the existence of a number of every-day expressions (we do not refer to technical terms) connected with that familiar institution.

The situation with respect to the scientific vocabulary presents the anomaly that while, on the one hand, we have some admirable bilingual and multilingual word-books of technological scope, we have nothing of the sort for pure science. A certain recent web-book in six languages, of which about a dozen volumes have been issued, each devoted to a particular branch of technology, is an almost ideal work in both plan and contents, and there are several other good technological dictionaries in two or more languages.

A polyglot dictionary of non-technological scientific terms is an urgent desideratum, not only for the use of translators, but for everybody who has occasion to read scientific literature in foreign languages. What institution or society or individual philanthropist will undertake to supply this need?

War and the Newspapers

AFTER a time one gets used to the vagaries of the newspaperman in handling war news. The old tiresome picture of the body of bluejeans labeled "Marine," with never a marine in sight, hardly provokes a smile, so old and so time-worn is it. We grin faintly instead of emitting howls of unbelly joy when we see a picture of 3-inch field guns labeled "Marine guns in action." Even the picture of the assortment, printed now and then every month, which we refer to the photograph of a parked battery with the runners lolling comfortably about under the trails and labeled "French (or German or British or Russian) artillery in action"—hardly provokes more than a tickled chuckle or so. But we claim that even the most blasé of the nation's paper, *Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung*, has not yet contorted his visage over this extract from an inspired Seneca: "The German troops fire spit balls with a velocity of 2,000 feet per second." All of which makes us wonder whether we had under-estimated the efficiency of the missiles prepared in our youthful days, or whether the German bullet is as mercurial as the German disposition is alleged to be. The dum-dum controversy, too, has raged in the pages of the journals. Sometimes in-afraid editors commented thereon, with results that increased the sale of their papers, and decreased the sale of the intentionally comic weeklies.

A Co-operative Health Board

SEVEN Massachusetts towns co-operate to get an efficient public health service that no one of them could afford to pay for by itself. They abandoned all or part (as they desired) of their other public health resources, and put their medical inspection work in the hands of a central organization under Prof. Phelps of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

This seven-town organization (Wellesley, Framingham, Weston, Needham Heights, Winchester, and Canton) engaged an administrative officer, a chemist and bacteriologist, a physician and sanitary engineer, and a corps of assistants. And these men have all been worth their salaries, many times over. They have regular office hours, which they keep in each of the towns; and they maintain stations at strategic points, from which they distribute such things as antitoxin for diphtheria patients and virus for vaccination. They make diagnoses of diphtheria, typhoid fever, and other infectious diseases by telephone, and then the doctors can go ahead intelligently and treat the patients. That is the way the health of 55,000 people is safeguarded. These seven enterprising towns have as good a health service as is given by many a large city health department, and many a large city is not so well served.

Papers in every branch, village, and town, including Portland, Me. to Boston, Mass., and New York, N. Y., and Augusta, Fla., to Portland, O., please copy.

Searching for Contraband With X-Rays

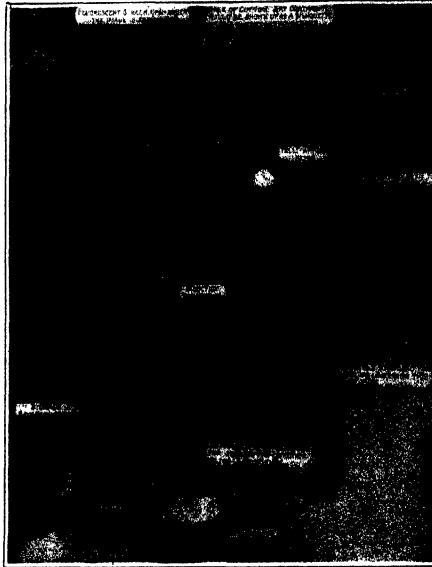
WHEN mention is made of Roentgen rays in connection with the present war, we are apt to think first of their use in hospitals to locate bullets, fractures, dislocations, etc., and this is quite natural because there is no doubt that many lives have been saved and much suffering has been avoided by the use of these penetrating rays. But it is not only in the hospital that we find this discovery of Prof. Roentgen put to practical service. The fighting nations are very particular to keep from entering the territory of the enemy any goods that might be used in military service. This entails the endless task of examining all shipments, and the value of any means of seeing through a parcel or bulky package instead of opening it up and examining it in detail is clearly evident. Even in times of peace X-rays were used to examine packages which might contain dutiable goods. Naturally in time of war this method of examination has proved even more important. One of the most difficult of shipments to examine is that of the cotton bale, which obviously cannot be opened and thoroughly inspected and then restored to its original proportions without special baling machinery. What more simple, then, to pass Roentgen rays through it, and by means of a fluorescence note whether the bale contains any foreign substances? Anything more direct than cotton would be shown up as a silhouette on the fluorescent screen. The accompanying photograph, reproduced by courtesy of the *Illustrated London News*, shows the type of apparatus used in France and in Russia. Even in this country cargoes are X-rayed before being accepted on British ships. Not long ago we illustrated the apparatus used in New York by representatives of the British government. The value of such a search was demonstrated in one case by the discovery of four pounds of rubber sheeting in each of 175 bales of cotton waste. Needless to say the consignment was refused.

Wireless Telegraphy and Railroadroading

By H. D. Schedler

THE Lackawanna Railroad Company undoubtedly is the first railroad company to employ wireless telegraphy successfully. This company first made experiments with the wireless telegraph and telephone in 1900, but the apparatus at that time was crude and not sufficiently developed to be of practical use. Mr. L. B. Foley, who has charge of that part of the railroad, experimented further. During the early part of 1913 towers were erected and wireless telegraph stations installed at Scranton and Binghamton, and it was found that the service between these points was equally as satisfactory as the Morse telegraph, and could be relied upon when the telegraph and telephone service was impaired.

The first passenger train was equipped with wireless telegraphy, and messages transmitted to and from the train and the fixed stations at Scranton and Binghamton on



Searching for contraband in a cotton bale rendered transparent by means of X-rays.

November 21st, 1914. At the present time the company has the following fixed stations:

Location	Call	Wave Length in Meters	Height of Towers in Feet	Capacity of Station in Kw
Hoboken	WBU	1,000	402	5
Scranton	WBT	1,000	175	2
Binghamton	WBT	1,800	165	2
Buffalo	WBS	1,800	150	2

These stations are all equipped with Marconi apparatus.

Besides these fixed stations several of the limited

trains are equipped with sets. The apparatus aboard the train are similar in principle to that of the fixed stations. The motor generator on the train is operated on 30 volts direct current from the car lighting generator, which carries on its line a set of storage cells. This motor generator draws about 40 amperes and supplies 500 cycle alternating current at 250 volts for the radio transmitter, including a 10-unit quenching gap, three glass jar condensers of suitable capacity each, and the usual radio transformers.

From a moving train to a fixed station a distance of 150 miles can be covered. Owing to the low antennae on the passenger cars, a greater distance than this has not been covered, but messages have been received from a fixed station over a distance of 200 miles. The aerials on the trains must be low on account of bridges and other overhead interferences. The speed of the train, or its change of direction while en route, does not have any effect upon the transmission and reception of signals, and it is queer that communication to and from the train is not impaired while the train is passing through tunnels.

The train radio service has been used for various purposes, such as reporting the number of passengers on board destined to connecting lines, for providing additional, or cutting out cars at divisional points, in ordering an ambulance at next train stop for persons taken ill on a train, and handling commercial telegrams for passengers. In one instance a telegram was filed by a passenger on the train for a resident in the city of Scranton, the message transmitted to its destination, delivered, and the reply received by the sender in twenty minutes.

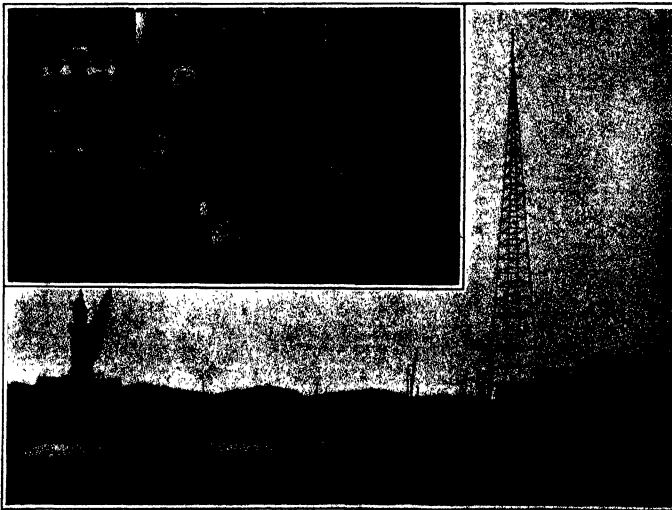
On April 1st last year a special train equipped with wireless telegraph, ran from Ithaca to Hoboken, carrying 600 Cornell students. The train operator handled 128 radio-grams from the train to fixed stations at Binghamton, Scranton, and Hoboken, for students who were on their way to their homes for Easter.

The wireless telegraph can be depended on between fixed stations and between moving trains and fixed stations. There are many uses for the wireless telegraph in railroad train operation. It enables the dispatcher to communicate direct with the train, and train orders can be transmitted as accurately and reliably as by telegraph or telephone.

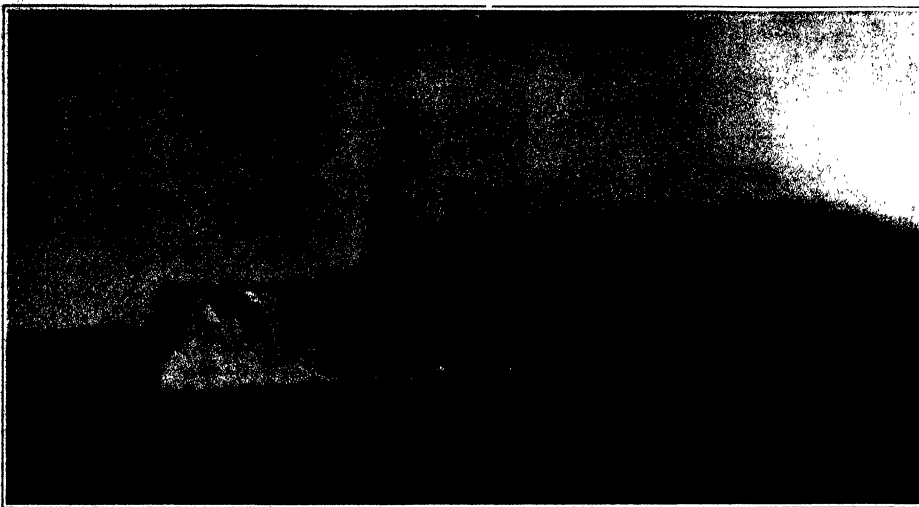
The wireless telegraph serves as an auxiliary method of communication, in addition to the telegraph and telephone, in the event of interruption to wire facilities, and has already proved its practicability and efficiency under such conditions, not only between fixed stations, but also between moving train and fixed stations, and the results obtained by the Lackawanna Railroad during the past year have been valuable in many ways. It is the intention of the company to extend the service over the entire system.

Each station (wireless) at each divisional point is located within a few feet of the dispatcher's office; and in event of total wire failure on any part of the road, the wireless station is immediately resorted to. Operators at divisional

(Continued on page 389)



Running a railroad by wireless. The wireless equipment of the Lackawanna Railroad.



Copyright by E. Meier, Jr.

Date, 1911. Tonn. 21,825 Speed, 21 knots. Guns, Two 12-inch, sixteen 6-inch Torpedo tubes, 2 Bats, 11 inch
U. S. S. "Utah" driving into a heavy head sea in the North Atlantic.

An Analysis of Our Naval Standing—I

Strength of United States Fleet has been Determined by Temporary Emergencies

By George von L. Meyer, Former Secretary of the Navy

FRANCE, fourth as a naval power last year, has taken the place of the United States, the French government having expedited work on all ships which were in process of construction at the time the war began. The Naval Intelligence Office announced, last July, that if all vessels then building were completed French tonnage would be greater than that of the United States.

On our part, we are not even following a programme of new construction intended to replace those vessels which have been, or will soon be, condemned because unfit for service on account of age. A feeble attempt has been made to convince the public that the Panama Canal doubles the fleet, but this is an absurdity. It has also been said that by the time the present war is concluded the United States Navy will be the first, the losses of the belligerents relegating them to lower rank in tonnage. Yet experts of the Navy Department refuse to consider this decrease by attrition as indicating a relative increase for the United States, because what counts is not the number of ships lost, but the number of those being added to the outstanding fleets. There is no hope, therefore, that we can increase our tonnage by a corresponding decrease in the tonnage of the other naval powers. Furthermore, these losses may remain relatively insignificant, if viewed in the light of the naval strength of the belligerents. Up to the time of writing the engagements of the battle cruisers in the North Sea and off the Falkland Islands have been the only naval encounters of any consequence, but yet inconsequential in mere tonnage.

The most serious thing about our interests in the Navy is that the advocates of the "biggest" navy and the advocates of "no navy" are not defeating each other in the legislative debates on the naval appropriation bill, but they are defeating all attempts to discuss intelligently the topic of national defense.

Personally, I am not committed to a great navy. I am, however, in favor of a strong fleet with all necessary auxiliaries. The situation in the United States to-day, when even neutral American shipping is in danger, should warn us that preparedness is a wise thing, and that we can never hope to expand our foreign commerce without an adequate navy to protect it.

Our fleet, as it exists to-day, is the growth of an immediately expressed public opinion, and that growth has followed the laws of expediency to meet temporary emergencies and has had little or no relation to the true meaning of naval power, or to our need of naval power. The naval policy of the United States should be to possess a fleet powerful enough to prevent or

answer any challenge to the country's well-established national policies. It is obvious that the absolute strength necessary to accomplish this is a question that depends upon the national policies of possible challengers and the force that they can bring against us. This force is relative and varies with their naval policies and building programmes. Briefly, our fleet should be the equal or superior to that of any possible enemy, and in order to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion on this debatable point, we must base our calculations upon the careful estimates and forecasts of the General Board as to what would be the naval development of those foreign countries with which conflict might be probable.

In 1908 the General Board formulated its opinion as to what our naval development should be, and its forecast was that a fleet of 48 battleships, with the attendant lesser units and auxiliaries, ready for action by 1920, would accomplish this result. This forecast has proved, after many years, remarkably accurate. Meanwhile the absence of any definite naval policy, which means congressional opposition to the recommendations of several administrations, has lost us second and then third place, and if continued will make of us an inferior naval power.

During my incumbency as Secretary of the Navy in the Taft Administration, congressional opposition to the Navy Department's recommendations was generally based on the theory that the United States will never have a war. But history shows that wars come at times with little or no warning. The European war was an actuality overnight and in ten days as many nations were allies or enemies in what will be the most titanic struggle known to man.

A force of circumstances, over which the United States has no control, is beginning to involve the safety of the lives of American citizens as well as the protection of our interests. Yet we must not forget in this instance that our Navy is the arm and measure of strength of our foreign policy and diplomacy, and a deficient navy will weaken both this diplomacy and policy.

The war has shown us that, commercially, financially and industrially, we are not isolated from Europe, to say nothing of the rest of the world, and the opening of the Panama Canal lessens this isolation because it brings so much foreign shipping almost at our door.

In estimating upon a fleet of forty-eight battleships of the line, with the appropriate number of lesser units and auxiliaries to complete and maintain a fighting whole, and a personnel of officers and enlisted men that

shall grow and keep pace with the material fleet, the General Board tentatively figured that this full strength be attained by 1920. But although Italy's naval programme extends to 1918 France's to 1920, Germany's to 1917, and England's existing law is to develop a supremacy of 60 per cent in vessels of the dreadnought type over Germany, the American procedure has been to reduce and disregard to a great extent the recommendations of the General Board and those of the Navy Department when in sympathy with the General Board and thus fail to meet the needs and requirements of the Navy. It will be impossible for the board's plans to be realized by 1920, because the estimates and recommendations for 1916 have already been submitted and judging by present indications the United States will gain little in the next four years.

The building programme recommended this year differs little from the recommendations of last year. Secretary Daniels follows the policy recommended by the General Board, but reduces the number of vessels asked for. His estimates include two dreadnoughts, six destroyers, eight submarines (one sea-going and seven coast-defense), one gunboat and one oiler. The General Board recommended to the Secretary of the Navy four battleships, sixteen destroyers, three fleet submarines, sixteen coast submarines, four scouts, four gunboats, two oil-fuel ships, one destroyer tender, one submarine tender, one navy transport, one hospital ship, one supply ship, and aerial service to the extent of \$5,000,000.

Granting that this programme be repeated for the next four years, the United States would in 1920 have forty-eight battleships, if replacements be not considered or no age limit be placed on such vessels. But a navy must be renewed every year, unit by unit, because warships become obsolete after twenty years. A new warship substituting an old one does not increase naval strength, though it may add a few hundred tons to the total, but merely enables a nation to retain her normal naval strength with modern equipment.

Nor can it be for a moment conceded that the Panama Canal will double the fleet, as it has often been stated. The canal will increase the efficiency of the fleet somewhat because it will reduce the time necessary to move a given number of ships from one coast to another, but this rapidity of movement is not the equivalent of a numerical increase of units. The actual advantage of the canal and its value to our Navy is something that can be deduced only in theory, for it involves problems of strategy and warfare with which this article has nothing to do. The Panama Canal will, in effect be a

An Important Development in Color Photography

The Kodachrome Process of Color Portraiture

In addition to one or two processes which are only of laboratory interest, all methods of color photography consist of applications of the three-color theory of vision, depending on the fact that any color can be matched by a combination in the proper proportions of the three primary colors—red, green, and blue-violet. There are two main methods by which the combination of these colors can be achieved and a color picture produced, these being termed, respectively, the additive and subtractive methods.

The original process used by Clerk Maxwell in his famous lecture at the Royal Institution in 1861 was an additive process, for he projected on a screen three lantern slides made from three negatives taken of a colored ribbon, by means of three lanterns in front of which were glass troughs, these containing, respectively, sulphocyanide of iron, which is red, chloride of copper, which is green; and ammonio-copper sulphate, which is blue-violet in color. The three negatives from which the lantern slides were made had already been taken through the same three solutions. The lantern slide taken by red light was projected by red light, that the negative taken by green light was projected by green light, and that taken by blue light was projected by blue light, the three pictures being superposed one on another, so that a colored image was seen on the screen, of which the report says: "If the red and green images had been as fully photographed as the blue, it would have been a true color photograph of a ribbon." The imperfection of Maxwell's result was undoubtedly due to his lack of photographic material appreciably sensitive to any colors other than blue-violet.

Since this first experiment the additive process of three-color projection has been used by many workers, the best known being even in his famous "Kromskop," which he modified so that the three colors could be used both for projection on a screen and also as a view instrument to be used by an individual observer.

One of the latest applications has been the Gaumont three-color process, where three cinematograph pictures are taken on film of the usual width, one over the other, through three lenses, the pictures being somewhat reduced in height so that the processes of color photography which have since been realized in practice. The principle of the screen plate process is to divide the surface of the plate into a number of microscopic filter units—red, green, and blue-violet—and then to take the picture through these units upon an emulsion from which a positive is made either by reversal or by the ordinary photographic methods, this positive being registered with the green, so that where the emulsion was blackened by exposure through one of the filter units, light is transmitted through that unit in the finished picture. Suppose, for example, that a red object is photographed on a screen plate. Then, where the image of the red object falls, light will pass through the red filter units and will affect the emulsion beneath so that it will be blackened. In the development, while the emulsion was protected from the red light by the green and blue units which absorb it, no effect will be produced. Now, if the developed negative be converted into a positive, the portions of it under the red filter units will be transparent, while those under the green and blue filter units will be opaque, so that in viewing the picture the red object will be represented only by the red filter units, the other units being blocked out, and will consequently appear red. The Lumière plate represents this process in its simplest form, the filter screen being coated upon glass and the emulsion on top of the screen, while the negative itself is reversed and converted into a positive, so that it remains always registered with regard to the screen.

These additive methods of color photography, however, have some disadvantages. The projection screen, while admirable for the illustration of lectures, is inconvenient for any other purpose, while the screen plate by virtue of the presence of the filter screen is necessarily dark, and the introduction of the filter screen into the process is subject to definition and quality which are not altogether desirable, so that the subtractive process, although on the whole they are more difficult to work than the additive, have always been considered as offering many attractions.

The subtractive processes depend upon the generation of colors by the superposition of the three complementary colors—blue-green, magenta, and yellow. Where magenta is superposed by yellow, we get primary red, the yellow absorbing the blue and the magenta the green light, so that only the red constituent of white light is left. Where blue-green is superposed upon yellow we get green, the blue constituent being absorbed by the yellow and the red by the blue-green, and where magenta is superposed upon blue-green we get blue-violet, the red being absorbed by the blue-green and the green by the magenta. Consequently, by superposing the three in the requisite proportions, all colors can be reproduced. The method adopted in practice is to make three negatives through the three color filters just as in the additive process, and then to print positives from these negatives in such a way that the image consists of colored dye, the color of the dye being determined by the negative in bleached gelatine.

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Obviously, one step in simplification would be the substitution of two colors for three. This has already been done in the Kinemacolor additive process of color cinematography, where two negatives are used—a red and a green—and positives from these are projected alternately upon the screen, through red and green filters. The color rendering in this process is quite pleasing, although the correctness is much inferior to that of the three-color process, but the results obtained are sufficiently encouraging to justify the belief that a slight improvement in color rendering over the results obtained by this two-color additive process would be highly satisfactory for many purposes. Now, an investigation of the colors produced by the addition by superposition in projection of two nearly complementary colors has shown that a serious limitation to the range of color which can be produced is imposed by the necessity that the two colors used in the additive process should be nearly complementary to one another, because colors can consequently be used which are not exactly complementary, and under these conditions a very much better range of colors can be obtained than is possible with the additive process, so that a two-color subtractive process should theoretically give a color rendering which, while not so good as the three-color process, should be better than the two-color additive process, and would probably be sufficiently pleasing for most

purposes. Clearly, the simplest possible subtractive process will be one in which the original negatives themselves are directly transformed into color positives; therefore, the simplest possible color process will be one in which two negatives taken under two filters were directly transformed into the partial pictures for the two-color process, the red negative being turned into a green positive and the green negative into a red positive, and the two then superposed face to face to make the completed picture. Such a process would employ no loose films and only the minimum number of glass plates, while there would be no transferring of pictures from one glass to another. The final difficulty of registering also is reduced to a minimum. Moreover, if the original negatives can be actually transformed into a color positive, we may expect to retain in the positive all the gradation in the original negatives. The gradation by this process should consequently be as good as can possibly be obtained. Also, since there is no screen and the high-lights are represented by clear, unstained gelatine, the transparency of the picture should be equal to that of a black and white subject.

It will be noticed, however, that this proposed method of working involved one very big step which had never yet been solved, namely, the direct transformation of a negative in black silver into a positive in which the silver of the negative was represented by clear gelatine and the pieces that were lightest in the negative by the darkest in the positive. This is a great deal more than the transformation being correct throughout, so that all the gradation of the original negative was reproduced in the resulting positive. It was this specific problem of transforming a silver negative into a dye positive, the working out of which made the new two-color process possible. Although the solution now appears simple, it involved a great deal of experiment, and changes in the procedure having much influence on the result, so that a satisfactory process was only achieved by continual experiments and changes in working.

The method adopted is to make the negatives on specially prepared panchromatic plates and through the correct filters, and then develop them as usual. They are then chemically treated so as to develop magenta, silver and leave the plate looking just like a colorless sheet of gelatine, showing no sign of an image. When this plate is put into the specially prepared dye bath the dye goes into the gelatine most easily where the silver was absent in the negative, that is, where there was least light in the original photograph or in the part represented in deep shadow in the parts corresponding to the high-lights, where there was most light in the negative, the dye penetrates more slowly, so that as the dye slowly enters the film the original negative is transformed into a positive produced in a colored dye. While the one color is made in this way, the companion picture is also dyed in the other color, and the two, when placed together, make the finished picture. The process is thus seen to be straightforward, the novel point of it being the method which has been worked out for transforming a black and white negative image into a colored dye positive. Since only two colors are used in the process, it is obvious that all colors cannot be correctly rendered and the colors for which the process fails are the blues, violets, magentas, and purples. Light blues appear blue-green, and violet, black, magentas appear pink, and purples dark brown. On the other hand, flesh tints of all kinds and all shades of red, orange or green, grays and blacks are well rendered. As these are predominant in portraits, the results are very satisfying for this class of work. Many of the pictures appear to show blues very well, but this is because, even when a neutral blue-green blue, and especially by artificial light, the eye is accustomed not to expect very much of blues. The failure in color rendering is more obvious in daylight, and because of the importance of greens and blues in landscape, the process is not suitable for landscape work. The pictures appear at their best when placed in a special illuminator giving a neutral electric lighting system for working the process has been designed. A camera may be used by which one of the negatives is reversed in position compared with the other, so that when the two plates are put face to face, they will register. Or the pictures may be made in an ordinary camera to which a repeating back has been

(Continued on page 280.)

A Submarine to Salvage a Submarine

How One Underwater Craft Could Aid Another in an Emergency

By Robert G. Skerrett

THE foundering of the "F-4," harrowing as it is, shows how lucky we have been in the past compared with other nations with flotillas of submarines. This catastrophe likewise emphasizes how useful it is that adequate salvage facilities be provided for just such emergencies. Fortunately, this is not a hopeless task, and the object of the present article is to call attention to one of the most promising of these life-saving equipments and, without, one of the simplest.

The men responsible for the invention, Messrs. Sloan Dunhambroer and W. W. Wotherspoon, have had between them years of familiarity with submarine service and notable salvage operations. Their aim is to rescue the men imprisoned in sunken submarines, and, as they put it, "if life is present in a disabled submarine, that life can be saved and saved quickly. In any weather short of a gale by means of our equipment. The apparatus is simple, light, compact, and instantly available. It consists of a combination of devices which separately have been in successful use in submarines of various types for years. In addition to these, other devices have been invented and supplied, which render the combination capable of easy and sure operation."

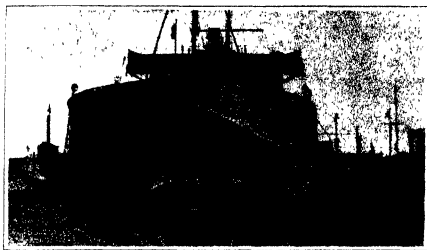
In short, the object is to make the position of the sunken craft known to vessels on the surface, to facilitate immediate life protecting aid, and then to provide means to which the damaged craft can be salvaged through the agency of another submarine equipped with similar apparatus. Essentially, the outfit consists of a detachable marker buoy provided with an air hose connection to the sunken boat and means for coupling that line with the air service of another submarine at the surface, the buoy carrying also an electric signal light and a telephone installation by which communication can be established with the foundered vessel.

In rising to the surface, the marker buoy carries with it two messenger lines of light bronze cable, which, in turn, are secured to the heavy lifting pendants which are equal to sustaining the load represented by the sunken submarine. These lifting pendants would average 125 feet long with eyes at their upper ends and detachable shackles and pads at their lower ends. The salvaging submarine would have a like installation, and the method of operation for the relieving craft would be as follows:

The rescuing boat would lift the buoy aboard and open telephonic communication by means of the telephone, *T*, in the central drawing, and, if necessary, would force down compressed air through the hose. Having anchored at a suitable point immediately above the injured submarine, the relieving boat would loosen her own lifting pendants and drop them down through the salvage wells and draw the pads on deck over the side. The forward and after messenger lines would then be secured to the shackles, with the pads removed and pulled up through the salvage wells and properly attached to buoys, *B*, *D*.

Suppose the sunken submarine is 250 feet down, her deck 15 feet above the bottom, and her lifting pendants capable of reaching upward thus to within 110 feet of the surface. These pendants would be held vertically taut by the messenger lines. A diver could easily descend on a suitably constructed,

weighted boatswain's chair 110 feet, and there join the pendants of the foundered vessel with those of the salvaging submarine at the points *C*, *C'*. Then, the rescuing boat would take in water ballast until she was just afloat, and her cable clamps, operated from within the submarine, would grip the lifting pendants. By blowing out this water ballast and rising to the surface she would know that the injured boat was lifted free



The German salvage vessel "Vulkan." Can lift 500 tons 80 feet in an hour.

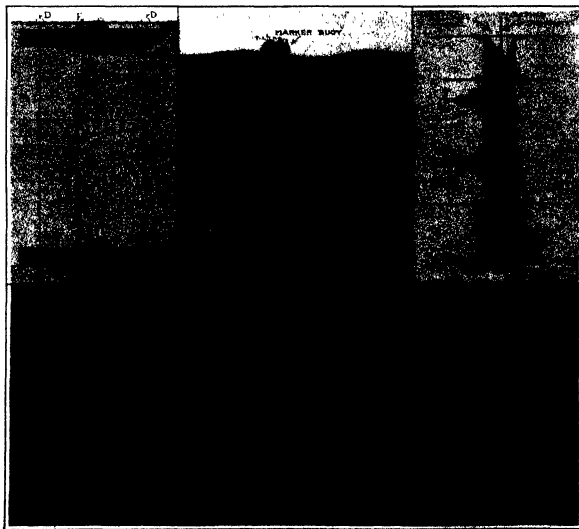
of the bottom. Finding that the damaged craft could thus be raised, the relieving submarine would give herself negative buoyancy of a few pounds and sink gently down on the guiding lifting pendants until she was 100 feet below the surface. Again, gripping the pendants by means of the cable clamps and once more expelling her water ballast, the salvage boat would rise to the surface and lift to that extent the damaged submarine lying beneath her. The rescuing submarine, under her own power, could carry her load to shallower water, where she would repeat the first operation and gradually get her injured sister into moderate depths, permitting the escape of her imprisoned crew through the medium of the usual facilities provided for the purpose. The wounded submarine then, by means of compressed air, could be raised to the surface.

To this latter end, the air line is extended to embrace every separate compartment with individual valves in

each one of these spaces. By a suitable arrangement, when moderate depths are reached, this air could be set free so as to drive out any invading water to the level of the upper edge of the injury admitting it. Before this, however, the relief air would be designed to sustain life only and would not be of a pressure corresponding to the hydrostatic pressure without. Should the messenger lines not be long enough to permit the marker buoy to reach the surface, still that buoy could be swept for carefully just as mines lying below the surface are now detected. Once found, the messenger lines could be secured to others lowered for the purpose. By following the latter down, provided the depth was not too great, a diver could reach the lifting pendants of the injured boat and join with them suitable salvage cables. The main point is that submarines today generally practice in groups just as they would be expected to operate in time of war, so that vessels of this sort provided with the installation here described would, without delay, be able to help one another if anything went wrong. The prime necessity is immediate assistance, for otherwise life might be sacrificed.

It was long ago realized by foreign nations that, notwithstanding the rapid and remarkable improvement that was constantly being made in the construction of submarines, accidents of just the kind that has happened to our "F-4" were certain to occur, they began to make provision against these emergencies. One of our illustrations shows the "Vulkan," the specially designed vessel that was built by Germany a number of years ago, and which has demonstrated its value and utility in actual salvage operations. France soon followed Germany's example and built a still more powerful ship that is capable of lifting 1,000 tons from a considerable depth, while England and Italy made plans in the same direction. The vessels built by France and Germany have double hulls, after the catamaran style, so that the salvaged craft can be pulled up between them by means of strong tackles lowered directly downward, and operated by powerful winches carried on the framework that joins the two hulls. Both of these vessels are self-propelled, but the German boat has a tunnel that extends its whole length, while in the French design the twin hulls merge into a single bow, making a more seaworthy construction. In one of the German submarine accidents twenty-seven of the crew were passed out through the torpedo tubes, and rising to the surface were rescued. No incident of the kind is noted in the Honolulu disaster.

Precautions Against Plague at Hongkong. According to a report from the American Consul-General at that place, represent a heavy item of expense in the trade of the port, which is ultimately borne by the American or other foreign consumer. All goods likely to carry the disease are disinfected before being offered for shipment, and all vessels carrying them are disinfected at least once every six months. An especially difficult problem is the disinfection and control of the lighters which are necessary for loading goods in the harbor. The number of plague cases registered in Hongkong last year was 2,164, but as 2,024 deaths from this disease were reported, the number of cases was doubtless much larger than the number registered.



A, salvaging submarine; A', lifting position; B, salvaging submarine; C, C', lifting pendants connected; D, D', wrecking buoy; E, air hose; F, marker buoy; G, telephone connection; L, electric signal light. Lifting pendants lying on deck, but attached to messenger lines by the Dunhambroer-Wotherspoon method.

Salvaging submarines.



As the orchestra played, lights of changing hue illumined the screen.

Color Music—A New Art Created With the Aid of Science

The Color Organ Used in Scriabine's Symphony "Prometheus"

By Harry Chapin Plummer

NEW YORK concert-goers, on Saturday evening, March 20, witnessed a novel departure from the conventional symphonic programme when the Russian Symphony Orchestra presented the tone-poem "Prometheus," of the Russian composer Alexander Scriabine, with the employment for the first time, as an "orchestral unit," of an instrument for producing colors, designated by the composer the "tastiera per luce" or "clavier lumière" (color-light keyboard).

The colors appeared, simultaneously with the rendition of the music, filtering through a mesh of fine gauze within a square framework at the back of the stage, above the orchestra, and were controlled from a keyboard, not unlike that of an ordinary piano. The player, or operator, sat at the keyboard in the body of the orchestra and, of course, facing the conductor. He was so located that he saw both conductor and screens. He followed the conductor's beat and the "music" which in appearance differed little from that of the "orchestral voices." As in the conductor's score, which had the part for the "tastiera per luce" at the top of the page in the position usually accorded the part for the first violin, the "music" for the color-light keyboard expressed the color requirements not in color terms, as "red" or "blue" or "green," but in musical notations, as "C," "F-sharp," "A," etc.

An arbitrary color-scale was employed by the composer of "Prometheus," corresponding with a musical scale upon which the tone-poem was built and which is equally arbitrary in the "new" tonal standards which it implies. His tonal-scale, with its color equivalents, follows.

C.....	Red
D.....	Yellow
E.....	Pearly Blue
F-sharp.....	Blue
A.....	Green
B-flat.....	Steely Gray

Harmonic combinations of these tones naturally demanded corresponding combinations of the various hues in the mesh upon which the gaze of the audience was centered, and, so, many variations of the primary hues and many tints were effected. With the drift of the music, the colors changed and dissolved by superposition, by juxtaposition and otherwise.

It is here that the peculiar nature of the composition which was the medium for the experiment should be pointed out. "Prometheus" is styled by Scriabine the embodiment of the creative energy of the universe—the creative principle of light,

heat, life energy, conflict, and physical and mental activity. Musically, it is what is known as a "programmatic" work, in that it affects to suggest more or less definite subject matter. It belongs in the category of what a sister art would term "futurist" music, principally because of the arbitrary tonal scale established and the striving of the author after a sequence of dissonance and cacophony, rather than the more absolute harmonies of earlier and "orthodox" composers.

In marked contrast to the complexity of the tonal scheme, the color scheme, as finally evolved, proved to be somewhat simple in its operation and in its results. The disadvantage of a fixed location for the colors was quickly discerned, as the illusory and mystic effect so much to be desired in such a case was lacking.

The splendid resources of the Electrical Testing Laboratories of New York were placed at the disposal of Jacob Altschuler, conductor of the Russian Symphony

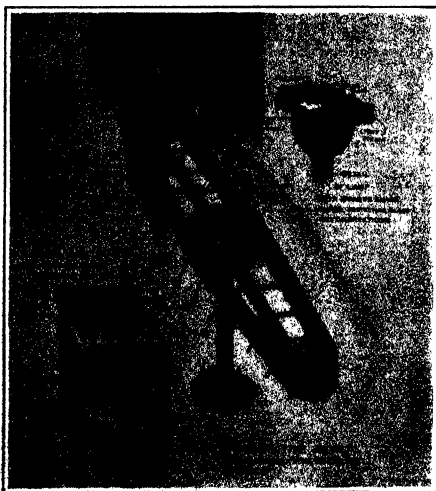
Orchestra, for the preparations for the music-and-light concert. Preston S. Miller, general manager and secretary of the Laboratories, and past president of the Illuminating Engineering Society, personally supervised the building and installation of the apparatus, and he was assisted in the planning and construction by W. F. Little and in the production of color filters by William McKay, and others of the Laboratories staff.

To operate the color apparatus the player presses a key and that makes contact in the direct-current circuit, which actuates a relay, closing the alternating current circuit on the lamp or lamps, which are connected. There is one relay for each line of light called for by the composer; the number of lamps varies from one to six.

The light of tungsten lamps is so largely yellow that one lamp suffices to produce the yellow hue, but little of this light having to be suppressed. On the other hand, when deep red or violet light is desired, it is necessary to suppress a large part of the light, leaving so little of the desired hue that a number of these lamps is necessary to give the requisite intensity. The lamps range in size from 100-watt vacuum tungsten to 100-watt gas-filled tungsten, and all were specially made for this purpose in unusually small bulbs, and supplied by courtesy of the General Electric Company.

The required regulation of the lamps to vary the intensity of the hues is obtained by employing the reactance in the common circuit feeding all of the lamps. This is operated by pedals, just as intensity of sound is controlled in a pianoforte or organ, the reactance being mounted directly beneath the keyboard and directly connected with the pedals. Whereas, in a piano the hammer is brought into immediate contact with the string, in this instrument the hammer is replaced by a carbon contact, depression of the key brings this contact into abrupt connection with a corresponding fixed contact, closing the circuit and actuating the relay.

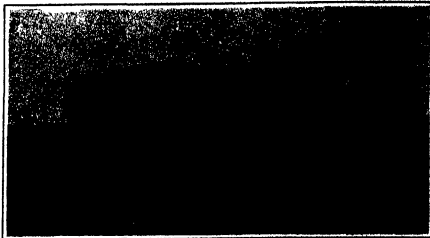
Each lamp is inclosed in an opaque, concentrating reflector, which gathers a large part of the light and projects it upward and over the mouth of which are placed color filters. These consist usually of three or four glass plates. The first is of crystal glass and is separated by about three eighths inch from the others for ventilation purposes, it being obvious that a great amount of heat is generated and



The mechanism of the color piano.

(Continued on page 350)

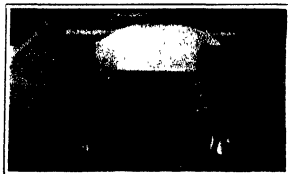
The 14-inch Guns of the United States Navy
 THE accompanying photograph shows one of the 14-inch guns of the new dreadnought "Pennsylvania." In order to give some conception of the size of this gun, twenty-four members of the crew of the President's yacht "Mayflower" lined up on the gun to have their photographs taken with the big engine of destruction. This gun was built at the Washington Navy Yard. It has a total length of 54 feet, and weighs 632 tons. It throws a shell of 1,400 pounds weight to an extreme distance of 21,000 yards, in other words about twelve miles. This range could be increased materially did the ship mountings allow for a greater angle of elevation. To secure the gun is entirely out-classed by the 15-inch guns of the British navy, which fire a projectile weighing 1,950 pounds with a muzzle velocity of 2,500 feet-per-second as compared to 2,600 foot-seconds of our 14-inch guns. This gives the British gun, with its higher maximum elevation an extreme range of about 24,000 yards. At the same time the 14-inch gun is not to be scorned. The powder charge it requires weighs 370 pounds, and at 10,000 yards its shell will penetrate 159 inches of Krupp armor.



One of the big guns of the new dreadnought "Pennsylvania."

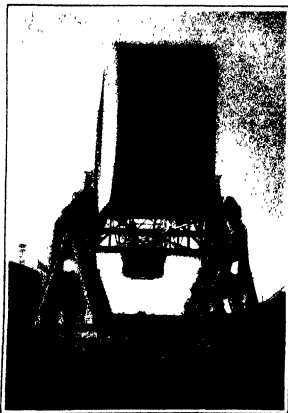
Joy Riding in the Sky

ONE of the prominent features of the "Zone" amusement section of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, at San Francisco, is a device designed by a Chicago bridge builder which is called an aéroscop, and which will enable sensation seekers to experience some of the pleasures of an aeroplane ride with perfect safety. This contrivance consists really of a bascule bridge 250 feet long which carries an inclosed pas-



The passenger car on the aéroscop is provided with two water ballast tanks which provide an even balance for the lifting arm on each trip.

The weight scheduled to be carried in the car is 15,000 pounds and the filling device adds enough weight in water each trip to make up the scheduled weight. If there is too much ballast, automatic emptying valves permit water to escape to the required amount. The pumping device is shown here filling the tanks.



A view of the towers which support the lifting arm of the aéroscop.

They are built in two portions to permit the counter balance weight to swing between the upper portion of the lifting arm assume a vertical position. The towers are 40 feet tall and each merges at the top in a trunnion bearing on which the lifting arm pivots.

senger car at its free end. While the bridge arm is gradually raised, carrying with it the observation car, the entire apparatus is slowly rotated on a turntable, which results in a gentle spiral course being given to the car, simulating the gliding flight of an aeroplane and

giving the passengers views in every direction over the surrounding country.

The entire structure is of steel, and the mechanism is operated by electric power, a heavy concrete platform forming the foundation for the device. On this foundation is a double circular track of railroad rails 61 feet in outside diameter. Eight four-wheel trucks on the rails carry the entire structure, which revolves about a vertical axis set in the center of the platform. Power for this purpose is furnished by four electric motors mounted on, and geared to, alternate trucks. Upon the framework supported by the trucks stand two pyramidal towers that carry the trunnions upon which the elevating arm turns when lifting the observation car. This arm is about 215 feet long, while the over-hanging counter-balance lever is about 30 feet long, and carries an immense block of concrete, weighing in the neighborhood of 90,000 pounds, which balances the lifting arm, car and its load of passengers so nicely that the only power necessary to raise the car is just sufficient to overcome the friction of the trunnions. Hence two electric motors of eleven horse-power each move the mass.

The observation car is a two-story structure, attached to the lifting arm by trunnions and links so designed as to keep the car vertical no matter in what position the lifting arm may be. The load for which the car is designed is 15,000 pounds, or one hundred people of an average weight of 150 pounds, but there is actually room to accommodate comfortably about 120 passengers, provided they do not exceed the prescribed weight. In order to ascertain this fact quickly and accurately, and also to enable a suitable adjustment of weight to be made when the full number of passengers is not carried, an ingenious construction has been devised. Two ballast tanks are hung below the floor of the car, and when it is in its depressed position these tanks dip into a reservoir of water below the landing platform, and the depth to which they sink constantly weighs and indicates the load. If this load is below the normal an automatic switch is closed, and an electric motor operates a rotary pump to run water into the ballast tanks until the proper balance is attained. If on the other hand the weight indicated is too great, another automatic device opens an escape valve that lets the required weight of water run out of the tanks.

To carry out the idea of flying two electrically driven aeroplane propellers are located on the lifting arm, just under the observation car; but these do not furnish enough power to be of any assistance in lifting, and their effect is purely psychological. They probably mislead the passengers in a harmless way, and as an advertising feature serve to attract attention.

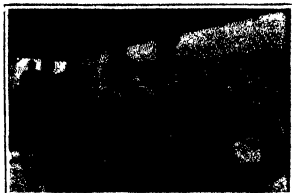
It is impossible to start the lifting or turning motors until the doors have been properly closed and locked. Then the cut-outs are closed, and the operating switches put into connection with the current. First the long arm carrying the car rises vertically, but as soon as it is high enough so that the car will clear the surrounding structures, the motors connected with the turntable trunks start, and the structure begins to revolve. As the arm rises it also swings around. In its ascent the car describes a great spiral. It requires about four minutes to lift the car to its extreme height, and the turntable makes one complete revolution in the same time, and in descending the same operations are repeated. It is possible, however, to vary these movements, for the arm can be stopped before it has reached a vertical position, and then swung around either in complete circles or back and forth through a portion of a revolution, while the passengers enjoy the panoramic view through the plate glass windows which entirely inclose the car.

Effect of Tarring Roads upon Trees

A PARIS engineer, M. Hicard, gives the following report about the effects of tarring of roads upon trees and shrubs which border the roads. Trees which stand on the west of the road, where it falls suddenly upon the leaves of plants, is often seen to cause lesions and burned places, starting from a simple spot and spreading farther, even to a perforation of the leaf, according to Griffon and Minard's observations. Vapors produced at the stem of the tree on the tar on the road have also a bad effect, though it is less. Damage is seen to depend also on the amount of traffic on the road and, too, upon the sunlight, and this latter favors the production of lesions. Ornamental plants, such as the begonia, are found to suffer much from the tar dust in these cases. Besides the lesions seen in leaves of trees, such leaves do not grow to full size, but are dwarfed, and in general the tree tends to perish. Different varieties of trees suffer less than others, for instance the *apocynum* is noticed to suffer less damage. Perishing of trees occurs only after several years. Tarring of roads is usually done because

of automobile traffic, and the author recommends the following precautions so as to conciliate the two opposing interests:

Instead of a surface tarring, it is preferable to relay the road with the use of tar combined with the road material, so as to avoid frequent tarring operation and formation of dust. Where plants are found to suffer greatly from the effects of tar, another material should be used instead, and tests are now being carried on which give promise of finding what is needed in the case of bituminous and asphaltic substances. A radical solution would be the use of concrete roads.



Looking out from the passenger car of the aéroscop at a height of 250 feet above ground.

The capacity of the car is 120 passengers. Plate glass windows are used on all sides so as to give an uninterrupted view. It is possible to look out over the Exposition, the bay and a large portion of San Francisco as the structure is revolved.



The lifting arm of the aéroscop is here at an angle of about 15 degrees.

The car is lifted vertically from the landing station until clear of the surrounding structures. Then the structure is revolved in a circle. Aeroplane propellers located on the arm just below the car give an impression of flying.

Two Groups in the American Museum of Natural History

Wonderfully Realistic Reproductions of Animal Life in Natural Surroundings

By Joseph William Griggs

EVERY resource of science and art is employed at the American Museum of Natural History to reproduce nature faithfully. The stiff, unnatural display of other years has given way to the effective "group" form of exhibition. Of the many groups completed in recent months, two stand out conspicuously—the Wharf Pile Group and the Orizaba Group.

As a reproduction of nature and as an artistic piece of work, the Wharf Pile Group has never been surpassed. It was constructed under the supervision of Roy W. Miner. The handling of color and illumination has been so skilfully done as to produce distance in the scene above water and depth below. The group is based on actual observations by Mr. Miner and his assistants at Woods Hole, Mass., and shows the animal life of the abandoned wharf piles.

A field model had to be made in the nature of a sketch. Living specimens of the creatures of the wharf piles had to be taken to the laboratory and kept alive in sea water. Studies were made of them with and without the microscope; dozens of sketches and photographs were made.

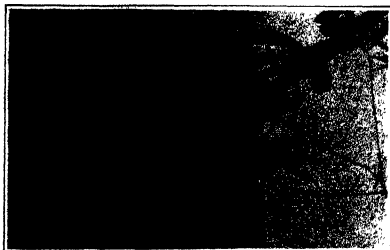
Hundreds of tentacles of the sea anemones, cleft for the sunflower, and even some of the seaweed, are the work of the glass blower. The finest work in this line are the jellyfish and the squid. The former is considered a masterpiece of the glass blower's art, while the peculiar translucency of the squid's body could be attained by no other medium. The coloring of these two models was done by a Japanese artist.

Much of the animal life was modeled in wax and celluloid. The accurate reproduction of the wharf piles was the work of Mr. Ignaz Matzsch, who also assembled and anchored the hundreds of separate models and specimens in their final positions.

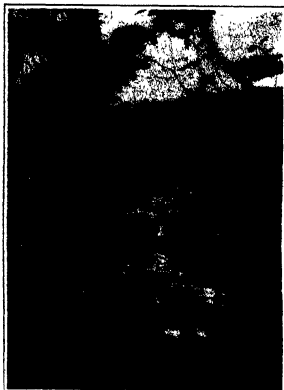
The coloring of transparencies proved a difficult problem, involving the application of transparent oil colors, selected for permanency under strong sunlight, to the surface of glass covered with delicate photographic film (in the case of the transparencies represented above the water line), and to the smooth surface of the plate glass for the submarine background. Five successive sheets of glass make up the submarine background, each colored in such a way that the daylight passing through the entire series gives the effect seen when looking horizontally through the waters of the ocean. Actual observation in the sea (with the help of a water glass and a submerged mirror, was the basis of the color scheme. Fishes, squid and a distant pile were painted on the successive plates of glass, giving them the lifelike effect of appearing suddenly from the gloom of the green sea depths. The illumination of the group is accomplished by placing it in front of a window.

The Orizaba Group called for a vast amount of work. To one artist was intrusted the painting of Mount Orizaba and a forest in the distance. Birds had to be placed in realistic trees in the foreground by others. As a basis for the whole group actual sketches had to be made in the Mount Orizaba region. This group shows a section of country which is three miles high, and according to Frank M. Chapman, of the museum, to stand on a level the changes to be met with here a person would have to journey from Vera Cruz to Mexico, a distance of 3,000 miles.

The observer sees, apparently through the upper side of a pane of glass, which

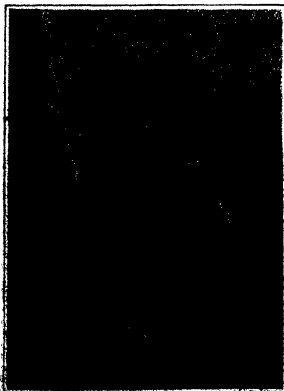


A toucan at home; a detail of the Orizaba group in the Museum of Natural History.

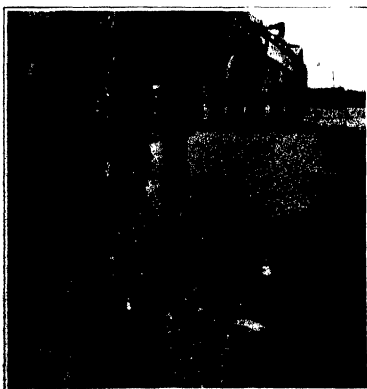


A section of the Orizaba group in the American Museum of Natural History.

runs the Rio Blanco, the vine-hung tropical forest, the snow-capped Orizaba rearing its head 15,000 feet into the heavens. The foreground shows such birds as the motmots, trogons, parrots, tanagers, and big-beaked toucans. Even humming birds are hovering over orchids.



Detail of the wharf-pile group, representing life under water.



Animals of the wharf piles—a remarkable model in the American Museum of Natural History.

Henry A. Ferguson and Louis Agassiz Fuertes made sketches around Orizaba for the group, and Bruce Horsfall, the painter, executed the background from these sketches. Transparencies at the sides of the group show scenes from different altitudes in the country portrayed in the painted background from the tropical forest to the cold summit of Mount Orizaba.

Sounding Operations in the Rhone

In order to find the depth of alluvium in the Rhone bed at the time of establishing the report upon the proposed barrage near the Swiss frontier, a novel method of sounding was employed. The present barrage is to be built across a narrow and deep portion of the stream, and is intended for the great Rhone-Paris hydro electric plant. Having installed a pair of piers at the river, Engel near M. Lugeux found that the usual method of sounding by the use of boring tubes could not avail here on account of the current and other conditions, so that this led him to carry out the sounding by the use of rails, and to drive them down through the alluvium to the solid rock. On the piers he mounted a pile-driver having about 12 feet drop. The first rail was carefully pointed at the end, and it was driven into the soil by the pile-driver. When down to the water level a second rail was at tached to the end of the first by a special fish-plate somewhat as for railroad practice, then the second rail was driven down by pounding until they no longer sank. The number of strokes at each point of sounding varied from 1,000 to 1,004, according to the nature of the soil. For the whole of the upstream profile there were given no less than 18,000 strokes. When the rails went up farther, they were broken off flush with the river bed. Cutting off by dynamite could not be done here, as the explosive had no effect at 12 to 15 feet, so that the rail was broken off flush by repeated heaving. Noting the length of rail sunk in the soil, this gave the thickness of alluvium at each of the several points, so as to obtain the profile of the river.

Deflecting Rays Downward

THE trouble with glaring headlights on automobiles, which has resulted in many accidents and has been legislated against in some of the States of the Union, is demanding full attention on the part of motorists. There are a number of devices on the market at present which are constructed in a way to diffuse the direct glare of the lights but there still remains plenty of opportunity for the inventor along these lines. One of the most promising of these devices has just been brought out in a Toledo firm.

The deflector consists of a small metal bowl highly polished on the inside. This bowl is attached to the electric bulb of the headlight and throws all the light rays directly upward into the upper half of the lamp reflector. The stream of light is thereby thrown directly forward on the road, the highest rays not reaching more than four feet above the ground. None of the light rays thus projected reach the eyes of pedestrians or approaching motorists.

The invention of course at once suggests the blackening or frosting of the lower half of the headlight reflector which would give the same effect.

The Scientific American's New Home

THE first home of the *Scientific American* was at No. 11 Spruce Street, in New York City, where it was established in 1845 and published by Rufus Porter, a somewhat erratic genius who filled its columns with many other matters than those its title suggested. On October 26th 1845, the office was destroyed by fire, and publication was suspended for two issues. When the publication was purchased by the new firm of Munn & Co., composed of Orin C. Munn and Alfred E. Beach, in July, 1846, the office was moved to the old Sun building, which then stood at the southwest corner of Fulton and Nassau streets. There the paper prospered for a number of years until the old quarters were found too small, particularly for the patent soliciting department, which had been established. New and commodious offices were, therefore, secured in the original New York World Building at No. 37 Park Row, at the corner of Beekman Street to which location the publication was moved in 1856, and this was its home until January 1st, 1882, when the building was completely destroyed by fire. Practically all the valuable records and papers that had been accumulating for years were lost.

The period from 1856 to 1882 had been one of unusual prosperity for the *Scientific American*. It had gained readers in every part of the country and in foreign lands, and had won for itself a reputation as an authority on technical matters. No time was lost in securing temporary quarters, and publication was continued without a break from No. 201 Broadway, at the corner of Warren Street. Here the offices were maintained until 1884. In that year the establishment moved to No. 301 Broadway, at the corner of Franklin Street, where two commodious floors have been occupied until now.

After thirty years at No. 301 Broadway, it was felt that more modern quarters were needed—quarters that harmonize with the character of the *Scientific American* and the patent soliciting of Munn & Co. The Woolworth Building, the tallest and most modern structure of its kind in the world was selected as the new home of the *Scientific American* and of Munn & Co. Two wings of a whole floor will now house the staff of the *Scientific American* and the Patent Department of Munn & Co. The new home of the *Scientific American* and Munn & Co. is not only more commodious than the old, but is so well equipped with conveniences of all kinds that the businesses of publishing an important periodical and soliciting patents can be conducted with even greater efficiency than before.

The "Torpedo" Motorcar

THE remarkably shaped motorcar shown in the accompanying illustration has been built in Italy. It is reported, according to design evolved by Count Marco Rivetti of Milan. It carries, as will readily be understood, the matter of streamline body design far short of the real goal. In this connection it may be interesting to point out here that as long ago as January 1912, the *Scientific American* pictured the "automobile of the future" as a fully enclosed torpedo, in which even the wheels and mudguards disappeared within the "streamline" curve.

The Rivetti car is fitted with a 50-horse-power four-cylinder motor, which enables this torpedo on wheels to cover ground at the high rate of 50 miles an hour. Removing the streamline body and letting the car go at top speed in "stripped" shape, immediately reduced its speed to 45 miles an hour.

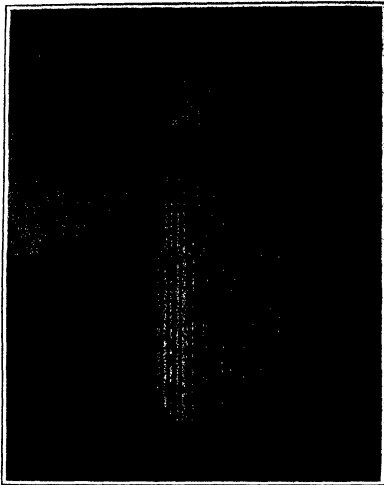
When one considers the considerable weight which such a body has, it must be regarded as a remarkable demonstration of the importance of wind resistance at high speeds. The ordinary touring car, with a maximum speed of some forty-five miles an hour, would probably show an increase of five miles, or more, per hour, if a real torpedo body were mounted on its chassis.

Aside from the higher speeds attained, the chief value of a body such as Count Rivetti has chosen lies naturally in the protection from dust and rain. The front of the car can be closed by means of a curved windshield of glass.

In order not to catch the air too forcibly with curved mudguards, the Rivetti car is fitted with mere hori-

zontal strips of sheet iron placed six inches above the tires.

The uniquely shaped windows suggest a submarine boat. As a vehicle of distinction, the Rivetti car probably would create a good deal of attention should it run along Broadway, New York, on some bright summer's day, but the general public would not care to hide behind the narrow windows is hardly to be doubted—for one of the most powerful factors in



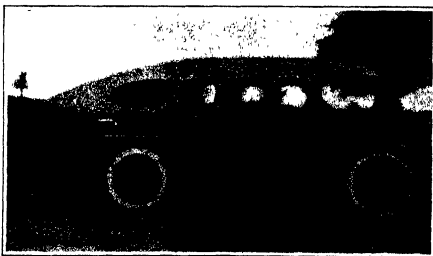
The new home of the *Scientific American*—the Woolworth Building.

the evolution of a motorist is the desire to "see and be seen."

A Lightweight Electric Vehicle

HITHERTO the electric pleasure vehicle has not been a serious competitor of the gasoline car, but has filled a special field of its own. For despite its cheapness of operation, simplicity of control, ruggedness and cleanliness, it has labored under the handicap of a big storage battery that makes the car heavy and expensive, giving only a limited speed and radius.

But a new electric car has just been announced which boldly aims to invade the field of the low priced gasoline car. This it expects to do by a radical simplification of mechanism that will cut down weight, making it possible to use a far lighter battery, and thus reducing the handicap materially. In this new car the dif-



A motorcar that looks like a submarine on wheels.

ferential gearing on the driving axle will be dispensed with and the driving motor will take its place. The differential, as all of our readers probably know, is the gearing which permits one of the driving wheels to travel faster than the other when the car is making a turn. In the ordinary motor the field remains stationary while the armature revolves, or the armature remains stationary while the field revolves. But in this motor both elements will revolve in opposite directions,

one element being connected to one half of the driving axle and the other element to the other half. Thus, the power is divided between the two halves of the axle, so that in taking a turn one may readily move faster than the other exactly in proportion to its load. Of course, if the axle were directly connected to the armature and field, respectively, the two driving wheels would revolve in opposite directions. But a very elegant gear has been introduced, based on a new mechanical movement, comprising one stationary gear, one rotating gear, and a "floating axle." By this means a gear reduction of $\frac{5}{16}$ to 1 is introduced between the motor and the driving axle, and the motion of one half is reversed with respect to the other half, so that both of the driving wheels turn in the same direction. The entire rear axle with its motor of 2 horse-power weighs under 100 pounds, which is even less than the weight of the common rear axle with its differential.

Of course, it will be understood that, owing to the uniform torque of the electric motor, a much lower power is required than if a gasoline engine were used. One of these rear axles with 2 horse-power motor was installed on a car weighing 1,810 pounds and proved sufficient to drive it at a rate of over twenty miles an hour. But a new car is being built which will have a total weight of only 1,200 pounds, 600 pounds of which will represent the lead battery. With this, no doubt, a higher speed will be obtained. Were Edison batteries used they would weigh but 450 pounds. It is planned to reduce the weight of the vehicle even further, making it only 1,000 pounds, in which case it would have a battery of only 500 pounds, the plan being always to let the battery represent half of the total weight of the car. This is a higher proportion than now prevails, for the common practice at present is to let the batteries represent only about 40 per cent of the total weight of the car.

As the car is reduced in weight, its cost is reduced in even greater ratio, and it is fully expected that this car can be manufactured and sold at a price that will compete with low-priced gasoline vehicles. Of course, it will still be handicapped in the matter of high speed and radius of travel, as will all the rest of the space ordinarily occupied by motor and gearings can now be used for storage batteries. The motor itself can be run at double the speed of present motors of the same horse-power, because the speed is divided between the two parts of the driving axle. It is designed to run interchangeably as a shunt or a series motor, by the use of a switch on the axle. On hills it may be made to act as a brake, and when certain speeds are exceeded it will act as a generator to put back current into the battery, thus greatly economizing the power stored in the battery. Unfortunately, at the present time, we are not permitted to give complete details of the machine, owing to the condition of the patents, but we expect at a later date to take up this subject again and explain more fully this interesting development in the electric vehicle. We can merely hint now that this differential motor might be used on gasoline-driven vehicles. A light and easily running at constant speed and direct connected to a generator would furnish power to the differential motor on the rear axle. This, without adding much, if any, weight to the machine, would provide a very simple control of the vehicle and do away with all the complications of gearing now required. The inventor of this electric vehicle is Mr. Harry E. Day, who has as his associate in the development of the vehicle, Dr. Charles P. Steinmetz, the electrical engineer of wide renown.

"An Exhaustive Monograph on the Turquoise," by Joseph E. Pogue, has just been published as the third memoir of volume 12, in the *Memoirs of the National Academy of Sciences*. Although thoroughly scientific in character, this treatise appeals to everybody who is interested in the lore of precious stones, as the historical, mythological, and archaeological aspects of the subject are fully treated, in addition to the mineralogical, geological, and technological. The monograph includes a large annotated bibliography.

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

These columns are open to all patentees. The notices are inserted by special arrangement with the inventors. Terms on application to the Advertising Department of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

Pertaining to Apparel.

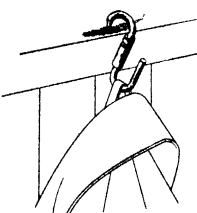
HOSE SUPPORTER.—E. SCUMMER and C. M. CORLEW, 3-4 Northwestern Bldg., Mount Falls, S. D. This invention is an improvement to hose supporters, and has for its object to provide a supporter arranged to connect the hose to the undergarments without encircling the leg to cause inflation pressure, which may



HOSE SUPPORTER

be easily detached and detached without any danger of tearing or otherwise injuring the clothing. To release the supporter it is necessary to remove one of the folds from between the gripping jaws and the support may be left in place on either the sock or the underwear.

COAT HOOK.—T. WHITE, 67 W 138th St., New York, N. Y. The object of the invention is to provide a portable coat hook adapted to be readily extended and attached to a suitable support for supporting a coat or



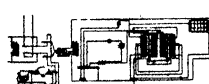
COAT HOOK.

other garment and adapted to be folded into a safety position, to take up very little room with a view to allow of conveniently carrying the coat hook in a pocket.

Electrical Devices.

TELEGRAPHIC REPEATER.—F. R. WALKER, Heddle, Cal. This invention improves and simplifies the construction and operation of telegraph repeaters so as to be more reliable and efficient in use, less expensive to manufacture, install and keep in repair, and so designed that a more rapid transmission of messages is possible without distortion of the dots and dashes, and rendering it possible to repeat through an indefinite number of circuits with practically as good results at the final as at the initial circuit.

TELEPHONE SYSTEM.—H. M. WAGNER, Cashion, Okla. Mr. Wright's invention has reference to party line telephone systems in which the central station is provided with a selective switch for calling subscribers and for locking out such subscribers as are not called. The



TELEPHONE SYSTEM.

accompanying diagram shows a central station and the nearest one of the subscribers' stations, this being a part of a lockout system in which the subscribers' stations are not provided with hand controlled selective switches.

SOUND REPRODUCERS AND RECORDERS.—W. J. THURMAN, 439 Parkside Ave., Buffalo, N. Y. In this case the invention relates to sound reproducers and records and has reference more particularly to the styling and construction, in which magnetic means are used for establishing the stylus bar armature in a predetermined position.

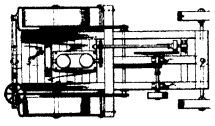
Pertaining to Aviation.

AUTOMATIC STABILIZING AEROPLANE.—W. HUBBARD and O. KONIGER, 22 Main St., Garfield, N. J. The operating part constituting the propelling and balancing mechanism, as well as the basket, are supported in a manner to permit the supporting plane to turn at various angles under the influence of air currents, while at the same time increasing the buoyant action of the plane, whereas the basket and working parts referred to will remain normally dependent, and the liability of the operator losing control of the machine or being thrown from his position, will be obviated.

Of Interest to Farmers.

INSECT DESTROYER.—M. D. BARKFIELD, Hollandale, Miss. In this device a wheel supported frame is provided, upon which is mounted a fan having delivery pipes, spaced apart and laterally and longitudinally of the frame and adapted to move on opposite sides of the row of plants to blow the insects and the like into the furrows at each side of the row and having in addition mechanism for turning the insects after having been blown into the rows, and having other mechanism for spraying the plants with an insecticide.

TRACTOR.—C. W. LOEWEN, Cedar, Mich. In this instance the invention has reference to tractors, the more particular purpose being to provide a tractor with running gear so arranged that the best or optimum of the tra-

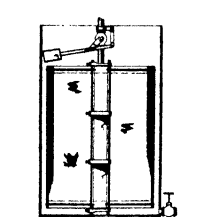


TRACTOR.

ctor may be maintained substantially level, while the wheels engage the ground at different levels. The tractor admits of general use, but is of special service in connection with plowing the land.

Of General Interest.

FILTER.—C. A. YOUNGMAN, 1217 2nd St., Louisville, Ky. This invention relates to the filtration of liquids, particularly to the filtering and clarifying of alcoholic, wine, beer, etc., and one of the main objects thereof is to provide



FILTER.

a wide relatively enormous area of the filtration medium having a relatively small compass. A further object is to provide a rack for supporting the said medium, which permits of ready and easy installation and removal of the medium.

FOLDING BOX.—N. BARNETT, care of Interstate Folding Box Co., Middletown, Ohio. The invention has reference to folding boxes, and the main object thereof is to provide self-contained means for maintaining the members thereof in position when set up for packing articles, such as clothing and the like.

PICTURE FRAME.—M. LOWMEYER, 1133 Broadway, New York, N. Y. The invention relates more particularly to such frames as are adapted for framing pictorial novelties, such as post-cards, photographs, and fancy prints. It provides a structure which may be bent or shaped to the desired form, said structure being constructed as an elongated article arranged so that a number may be nested for transportation or storage.

AX DISPLAY STAND.—C. L. SAMUEL, Pryor, Okla. The object here is to improve and simplify the construction of exhibiting stands, racks or the like, so as to be comparatively inexpensive to manufacture, to take up a minimum of floor space while having a large storing capacity, and at the same time being able to erect such a stand so as to be effectively displayed.

DISPLAY AND VENDING APPARATUS FOR SPECTACLES.—D. D. BRUCE, Fargo, N. D. This apparatus is for use in stores for displaying, selecting and vending spectacles, eyeglasses and similar instruments of vision, and arranged to enable a customer who is without knowledge of optics to readily select

the proper instrument of vision. It is for use of opticians for quickly and accurately fitting persons for proper spectacles or eyeglasses.

SAMPLE CARD.—J. CHAMBERLAIN, Two Walker St., New York, N. Y. This invention has reference to improvements in sample display cards, and has for an object to provide a structure whereby the card is properly held in place and a display table is provided with a number of other identifying or signifying arrangement thereon.

LANTERN SLIDE.—F. A. VERNON, 1560 Broadway, New York, N. Y. This invention provides slides with manually adjusted means for showing the time on the illuminated field of the screen used for exhibiting said slides, provides a means for adjusting the lamp used in conjunction with a clock dial for measuring the time periods, and performs the operation of mounting said hands for use in conjunction with the dial in a manner to avoid destruction or damage to the dial or element carrying same.

PIRE LIGN.—J. J. DEWANE, 3025 South Raymond Ave., Los Angeles, Cal. The improvement pertains to a portable bar or mounting rack for glassware, more particularly for tumblers, glass bottles, goblets, and the like. The construction and arrangement of the bar is particularly designed for effectively utilizing the best of the modern glass for an holding.

Hardware and Tools.

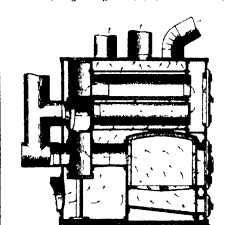
DRILL.—F. R. WEATHERS, 312 Seaboard Bldg., Houston, Tex. The invention relates more particularly to drills of the type suitable for earth boring, the more particular purpose being to provide a drill having means for positioning the cutting drill before the main cutting edges thereof come into play so that the drill will be at all times guided in an accurate straight path.

Heating and Lighting.

FIRE GRATE.—H. BEYRON, 104 Newark Ave., Elizabeth, N. J. This improvement provides a structure adapted to facilitate the removal and renewal of destructive portions, provides for changing certain portions of the fire-bed, provides for regulating the movement of the fire-supporting members of the grate bar and to provide for installing grates and bars therefor.

DOWNDRAFT FUEL FEED SMOKELESS FURNACE.—M. E. HENKERT, care of Herbert Bader Co., Reed and La Salle Sts., Chicago, Ill. This invention provides means in a side fed furnace for holding the coal at the sides until it is coked to a mass of water logs, and for then feeding the coked fuel to the center of a water tube grate and between the water logs and having a draft provided for catching and holding the smaller particles, and wherein means is provided for moving the fuel and also means for creating the draft to pass down through the burning fuel to consume all of the carbon usually wasted as smoke.

FURNACE.—F. O. MOUL, 429 Baldwin St., Portland Ore. This furnace is of the warm air type and the object of the invention is to produce a heater of this nature which will be easily cleaned proof against leakage through its walls of the gases generated therein and so



FURNACE.

constructed that the parts thereof can be replaced when any are worn out. It will readily indicate fuel, require comparatively little fuel in operation, and be capable of using a lower grade of fuel than is usually required for similar furnaces now on the market.

Household Utilities.

FLY TRAP.—J. CALDWELL, P. O. Box 137, Rio Paso, Tex. In this trap the fly will be readily attracted, and they will find free and ready exit. The trap is so formed that the trapped flies may be conveniently and readily disposed of, and may be adapted for thorough and complete cleaning in order to preserve its sanitary condition.

LAVATORY STRIKER.—O. KATZBERGER, 215 N. Huron St., Chicago, Ill. This invention

relates to what are known as strikes, and particularly to lavatory strikes, and has for an object to provide an improved structure which may be readily applied to marble slabs or other supports of various thicknesses without injuring the slab or support, or the strike.

COAT HAT WASHTRIP.—H. GRABSON, 106 W. 90th St., New York, N. Y. The purpose of the invention is to provide a new and improved steel metal coat for wash tubs and the like, which is exceedingly strong and durable and not liable to bend or warp or injure the tub, especially if the latter is made of soap stone or other material.

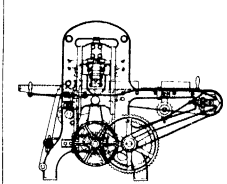
CLOSING DEVICE FOR DOORS.—C. W. STETTER, 58 E. 80th St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a device for closing the upper between the hinge side of the door and the jamb without the door being open or closed, thus preventing persons from peeping through the said space into the room at the same time rendering the door air and dust proof at this point.

Machines and Mechanical Devices.

SAW SETTING, FILING AND SHARPENING MACHINE.—O. PATRICK, Box 3, Hider, Ark. This invention improves and simplifies the construction and operation of saw machines of this class, and is adapted to be easily adjusted and operated, and capable of being mounted on the table of any saw machine in co-operative use with the hand saw while the latter is in position.

BREAD SLICING MACHINE.—M. KNOX, 617 E. 10th St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a machine having a base and guard for holding a loaf of bread in substantially definite position, a series of knives and means for actuating said knives simultaneously in parallel planes so as to reduce the entire loaf of any desired portion thereof in a single operation.

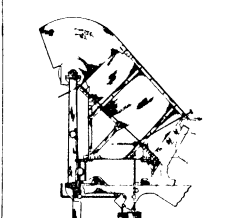
BRICK STRIPPING MACHINE.—C. F. THOMAS, Bucklestown, Md. The primary object of this invention is to provide a device which will prove a brick so as to leave the



BRICK STRIPPING MACHINE.

surface in a perfectly smooth condition and which will deliver the brick thus surfaced. A further object is to provide novel means for first applying the surface upon the sides of the brick, then upon the ends and finally upon the top and bottom.

AUTOMATIC FEEDER FOR MILLS, CRUSHERS, SHREDDERS, ETC.—J. A. PETERSON, 1811 Union St., Brooklyn, N. Y. The object here is to provide an arrangement in which the power will be controlled as the material is being fed to the rollers. Also, to provide a counter-balancing device for the

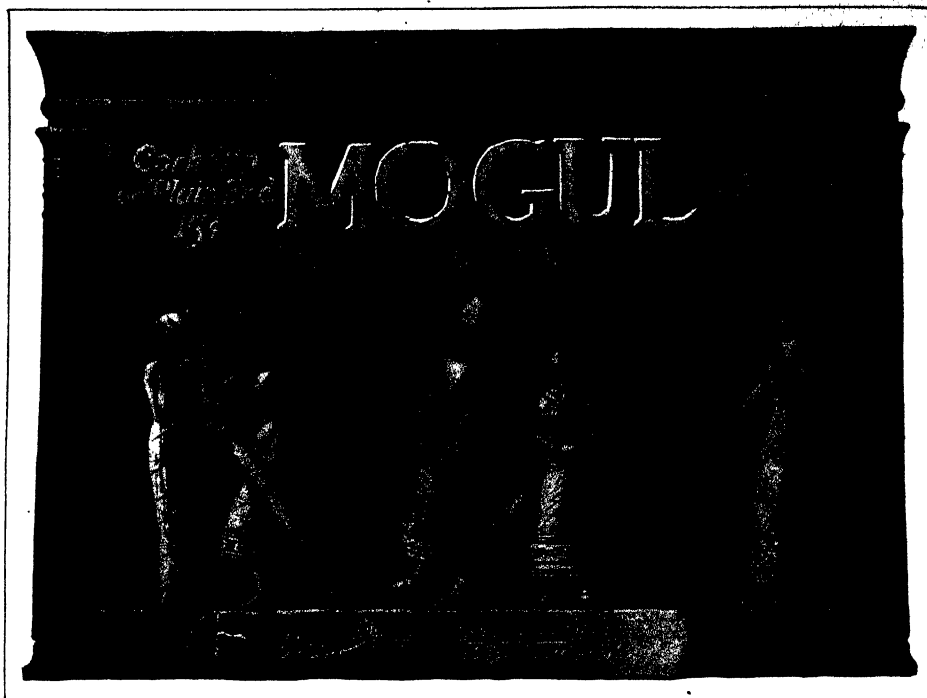


AUTOMATIC FEEDER FOR MILLS, CRUSHERS, SHREDDERS, ETC.

drive which acts for maintaining the power turned on until the chute has received a predetermined quantity of material. Means provide that when the chute is in one position the power is permitted to operate the feeding carrier, and as the chute moves to the other position by the weight of the material in the chute the power is gradually turned off.

GRINDING MACHINE.—R. K. McDONALD, 1542 10th St., R. 2, Lincoln, Neb. The object in this case is to provide a machine especially adapted for grinding the cylinders of explosion engines, without the necessity of moving the cylinder, and wherein all of the cylinders of the multi-cylinder engine may be ground, without the necessity of clamping the cylinders, and as the grinding is done by the weight of the power is gradually turned off.

VIBRATING SCREENING AND SIZING DEVICE.—A. E. CUNTER, 703 9th Ave., Salt Lake



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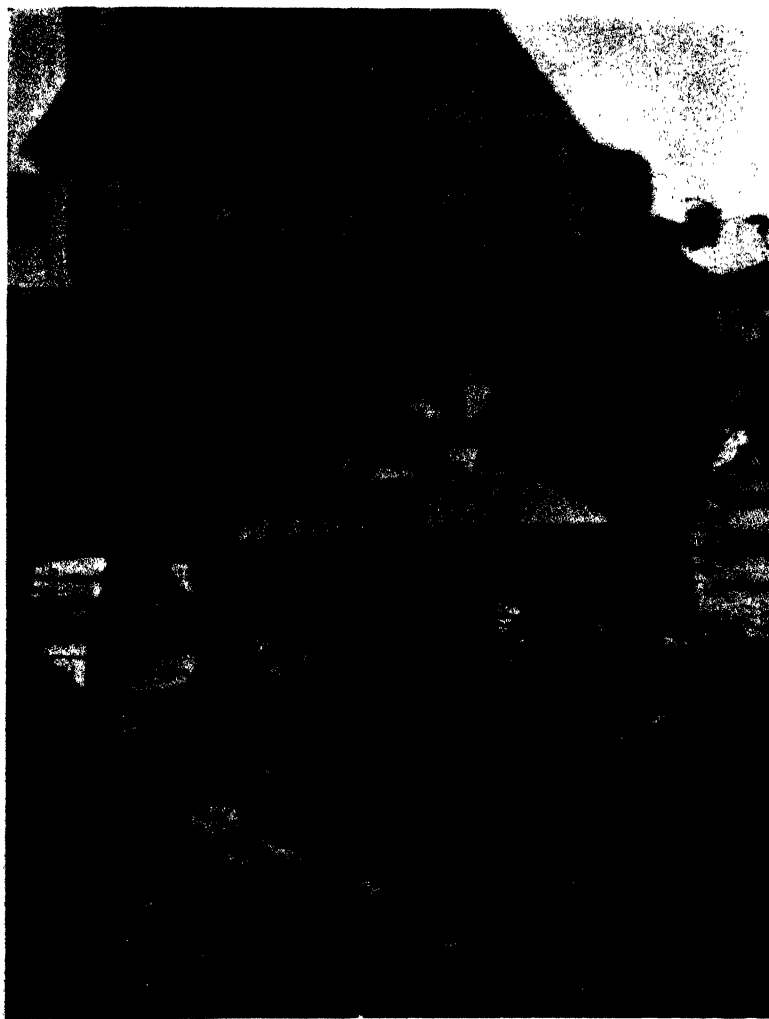
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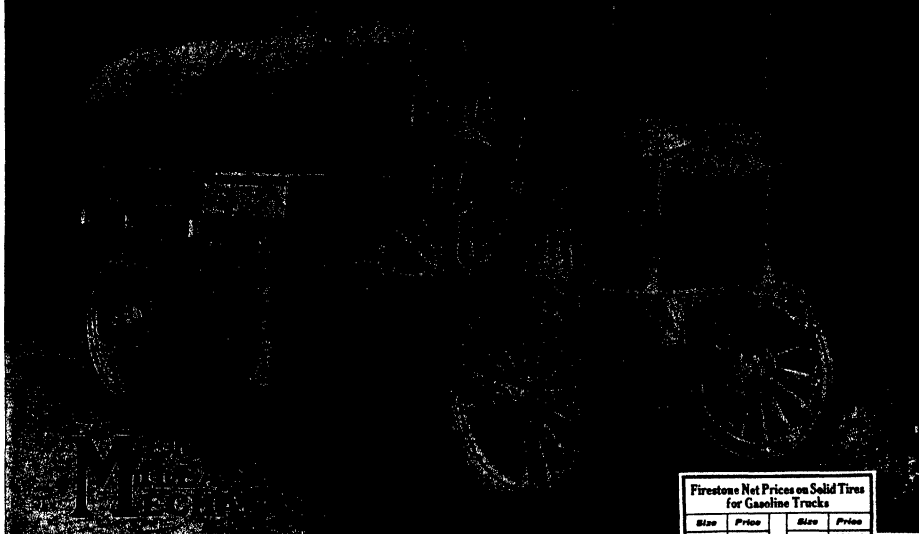
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SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

NEW YORK, APRIL 17, 1915

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Raising the "F-4"

By J. F. Springer

THE American submarine "F-4," which was lost at the bottom of the sea in Spanish Harbor, has presented to the Navy Department a very serious problem. The actual raising of the boat, lying as she does in 40 or 50 fathoms of water, has proved a task to which local equipment and skill are unequal. The unsurmountable difficulty is encountered largely with the necessity of properly securing to the folds of the vessel the chains or cables by which she is to be hoisted to the surface.

Accordingly, interest focuses upon the problem of making fast the hoisting lines. But divers capable of successfully performing the duties are very few. Some years ago Angel Brostarbe, presumably a Spaniard, went down in 182 feet of water near Cape Finisterre, at the northwestern corner of Spain, and successfully recovered some \$40,000 worth of silver bars from a wrecked steamer. James Hooper went down to the depth of 204 feet near Ploieşti, Roumania, and successfully recovered some \$40,000 worth of silver bars from a wrecked steamer. James Hooper went down to the depth of 204 feet near Ploieşti, Roumania, and successfully recovered some \$40,000 worth of silver bars from a wrecked steamer. James Hooper went down to the depth of 204 feet near Ploieşti, Roumania, and successfully recovered some \$40,000 worth of silver bars from a wrecked steamer.

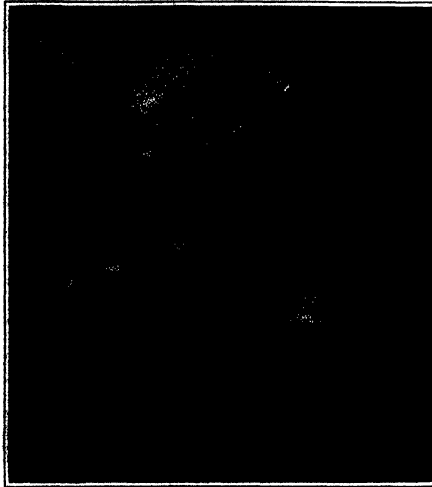
However, the U. S. Navy has in it a number of men who have been developing the possibilities of deep diving. One of these, Chief Gunner's Mate S. J. Tivelsak, has been down to a depth of 274 feet in the waters of Long Island Sound. Others have done work comparable with this. A group of these men under Gunner G. D. Stillson has been dispatched from New York for Honolulu by the Navy Department. Their duty upon arrival will be, first of all, to attach to the "F-4" the necessary lines.

Deep diving is difficult because of the enormous pressure of the water. The pressure of the water increases at the rate of about 0.43½ pound per square inch for every vertical foot. At 200 feet below the surface the water surrounding a diver's body exerts the very great pressure of 87 pounds per square inch. Assuming a man's body to have a superficial area of 2,100 square inches, he would accordingly at this depth be subjected to a total pressure of nearly 94 short tons. At 300 feet the pressure would be 130½ pounds per square inch and 141 tons for the whole body.

Upon consideration, however, this matter seems less frightful than it does at first sight. We are familiar with the pressure of 15 pounds per square inch which we all have to endure as we live and move around on the surface. This amounts to 10 tons for the entire body. We suffer no discomfort because the external pressure is everywhere balanced by an equal internal one. The flesh of the body contains air and liquids which are also exerting a pressure of 15 pounds per square inch; so that every conceivable solid particle has in every direction two balancing pressures. The effect is to put the particle under no stress whatever relatively to other particles. One particle of the body is forced nothing toward nor away from any other particle.

This equilibrium may be maintained as the external pressure is increased, thus making possible deep water diving. The depth of 274 feet has been actually accomplished with but little or no discomfort.

It is necessary, as people who go down to great depths know, to breathe pure oxygen. Green, that is, pure oxygen, within the body



Ready to descend.



The tank at the Brooklyn Navy Yard in which the Government divers who will assist in raising the sunken submarine received their training.

be continually increased to match the increasing external pressures. In practice, it is found that this takes place very rapidly. If the pressure of the air supplied by the diver is progressively added to at the rate of increase of the external hydrostatic pressure. That is to say, a diver may go down rapidly if the air pressure is kept right. Apparently, the body automatically responds and permits a rapid increase of internal pressures without especial discomfort. Upon ascending, however, all this is changed. A diver may make a quick descent to a considerable depth, but he may not safely make the return trip quickly. There must be stops of considerable length to permit the body to accommodate itself to the reduced internal pressure. Recent practice seems, however, to favor making the first half of the ascent a single, fairly rapid operation. The remainder of the distance is then divided into sections, with the rests at the ends of sections rather long. Altogether, to come up from 250 or 300 feet may require from one to two hours.

With the modern diving equipment the diver is in constant telephonic or other communication with those at the surface. His personal feeling that all is well is relied on largely in letting him down and holding him up. The diving suit enables him to live in an atmosphere of air. The tension of this air is kept continually equal to the hydrostatic pressure without consequence. Consequently, he has no means of knowing the relative pressure conditions other than the physiological sensations of his body. If he notices a distention of his suit, he knows this means that the air pressure is too great. Or, if he notices that it is pressed in upon him, he knows that this signifies too low a pressure of air.

In supplying the diver with air, provision must be made for two distinct things. First, the requisite pressure must be maintained—this despite the fact that air is being continually discharged from a valve in the diving helmet. This brings us to the second requirement. The air surrounding the diver's head must be kept fresh. He keeps breathing absorbing oxygen and emitting carbon dioxide. If there were no outlet, the atmosphere about him would soon consist of but little else than carbon dioxide and nitrogen, when he would "drown," though still in the dry. Consequently, in addition to the maintenance of the pressure, it is necessary to provide for a continuous renewal of air.

In order to meet these requirements, the air pump must be operated more and more vigorously as the diver goes to lower and lower depths, or more and more powerful methods must be employed. This may be illustrated by the fact that with one type of standard hand-operated air pump, a single cylinder will supply a diver with sufficient air in cases where the pressure does not exceed 21 pounds per square inch. Where the pressure is greater than this, but less than 42 pounds, two cylinders are required. For pressure running up to 78 pounds, four cylinders are necessary, and six cylinders from this pressure up to, say, 90 pounds. At Honolulu, the pressure required may run up to 125 pounds or more, and will probably be supplied by a power-operated air compressor.

The diver has to be alert as to whether the proper pressure is being maintained and also as to whether the air is supplying him with enough oxygen. This lat-

(Continued on page 267.)

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The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement

Are Obsolete Battleships Obsolete?

MANY and varied are the lessons of the war, and generally speaking, the operations both on sea and land. It must be admitted, have verified the theories upon which the vast armaments of the past quarter of a century have been developed.

There are some exceptions to be noted, and among these we draw attention to the extensive use which has been made of battleships which were supposed to be obsolete and therefore unsuited to the severe tasks which modern naval warfare imposes. It has been urged, and pretty generally agreed, that when a battleship is ten years old it is becoming obsolete, and that when it is twenty years old it is entirely so, and should be stricken from the active list. This estimate has been based upon the premise that the duty of the battleship, first and last, lies in the line where it may give and take the heaviest blows of a great fleet action. The rapidity with which the military value of the battleship decreases is in the direct ratio of the rapidity with which the punishing power of the gun, the torpedo, and the mine increases. And so it has come about that we have battleships of the first line, second line and the reserve, from the last-mentioned of which the aged ship is relegated to the scrap heap, the useful age of the battleship having been arbitrarily placed at one or two years and not more.

Now, certain events in the naval operations of the war suggest that the period of time which elapses between the final haul down of the flag and the sale of the obsolete ship should be extended. We refer to the useful work which has been done by some of the old battleships in operations of a kind which were never contemplated by the admirals when the present war opened. Thus, it has been well established that it was certain old British battleships which assisted so materially the work of the Belgian army in holding back the German drive for Calais, the heavy shell fire of the large-caliber guns being used with deadly effect in enfilading the German entrenchments and wrecking the gun positions.

An even more notable instance of the use of early ships was seen in the recent operations in the Dardanelles. It is a fact that, with the exception of the "Queen Elizabeth" and the battle-cruiser "Inflexible," the operations in the Dardanelles Sea formidable as they were, were carried out without calling upon any of the ships of the British North Sea fleet under Jellicoe, or the fleet of modern French battleships which is holding the Austrians secure at the northern end of the Adriatic. In the Aegean squadron are to be found such ships as the "Majestic" and "Prince George," which were built down twenty-one years ago—ships which had come to be regarded in the British navy as not worth the cost of their upkeep. In the French navy, also, in the Aegean are to be found such armored vessels as the "Republic," dating from 1885, and the "Jaureguiberry," from the year 1895.

Some of these ships, it is true, have been sent to the bottom, but if, as is stated in the dispatches from the allied commanders, their loss was due to contact with mines, it can be seen that in view of the terrific rough power of these machines, probably the more modern battleships would also have succumbed to the attack.

And this brings to our mind the fact that the old

battleships with their heavy armor and powerful guns might be used to good advantage by sinking them down to a bed of grillage, carried on piling driven into some of the shoals at the entrance to our harbors. Weighted with concrete, heavily rib-rapped, and periodically given a heavy coat of paint, these ships would provide a speedy and highly economical means of covering adjoining channels with the fire of heavy armor-piercing guns. This suggestion was illustrated and fully described in an article by a retired naval officer which appeared in these columns a few years ago. The arguments advanced then hold good to-day. We believe there is sufficient merit in the proposal to warrant its careful investigation by the Ordnance and Engineers' Corps of our Army.

Credit for the Gatun Dam

THERE is glory enough to go around," said one of the ranking officers engaged in the sea fight against the Spanish fleet at Santiago, when the credit for the American victory was under discussion; and the same truth applies to that great victory over the forces of nature which has been won by American brains and resources in the completion of the Canal at Panama.

In the distribution of credit (and that history will make such an allotment is certain) we wish to draw attention to the fact that, so far as the American share in the enterprise is concerned, the credit for first pointing out the advantages in the way of construction and operation afforded by building a big dam at Gatun were first formally advocated by an American engineer, Mr. C. H. Ward, a member of the American Society of Civil Engineers.

The advantages of constructing a dam at Gatun were first pointed out by M. Gudin Lepinay before de Lesseps' Paris Congress in 1879. In 1880 Mr. Asbel Webb suggested the advantages of Gatun to the American Society of Civil Engineers, and he then acknowledged that he was indebted for the idea to Mr. Ward. Neither of these engineers had at that time heard of Lepinay's plan. The suggestion had never been followed up and was soon dropped, either as being impracticable or as being supplanted by the more practicable project for a dam at Bohio.

It will be remembered that the present scheme as carried out was adopted as the result of the minority report of the Consulting Board of Engineers in 1905. Subsequently four members of the Consulting Board gave it as their opinion that the revival of the dead and forgotten plan was due to a paper read before the meeting of the American Society of Civil Engineers in 1904 by Mr. Ward. The late A. Noble in a letter dated April 18th, 1907, speaking of that paper, said: "The Ward paper created so deep an impression among engineers that one of the earlier examinations made by the First Construction Commission appointed by President Roosevelt was to determine by means of boring the depth to rock and the nature of the overlying earth along the line of the proposed dam. The earth was found to extend to such a depth that the construction of a masonry dam was found to be impracticable and the project for a dam of this kind was hastily set aside. There were many, however, who believed with Mr. Ward, that a perfectly safe and satisfactory dam could be made of earth, and that the advantages of the location from the point of view of navigation were so obvious, that the subject was not allowed to drop, and it received favorable consideration from the minority of the Board of Consulting Engineers in 1905."

"While it is impossible to say that the Gatun location would not have been adopted had Mr. Ward's paper not been written, the fact that the first suggestion to this end was dropped and remained unheeded, except by him, for more than twenty years, and that its revival was due to him exclusively, make it most probable that, but for his persistent efforts, the excellent plan of Canal now adopted would not have developed, and either an inferior lock plan or a far more costly sea-level plan would have been adopted."

The paper read before the Society has so much historical interest that we reproduce it in the current issue of the SUPPLEMENT.

The Storage and Handling of Gasoline

THE extensive use of inflammable liquids in the arts, especially as fuel for motors of various forms, and in particular for motor vehicles, has attracted considerable attention within the last few years to the conditions under which such inflammable liquids are stored and handled. Buildings for storing motor vehicles are now quite as common as horse stables were but a few years ago, and the inflammable and explosive character of the gasoline presents many serious fire hazards, especially where a number of these vehicles are accommodated in a single building, and where considerable quantities of gasoline necessarily must be stored and handled. The matter has become a serious one for the insurance interests, as very few States or cities have had effective laws or ordinances

on the subject of inflammable liquids, and what is even more striking, has been the wide diversity of regulations as well as of practice. Thus, in some cities inflammable liquids can only be stored outside of buildings, permitting storage inside the buildings, in others, tanks under the sidewalks have been specifically prohibited. In some places inflammable liquids may be stored in a basement. In others, basement storage of inflammable liquids is expressly forbidden. In New York city, large quantities of inflammable liquids may be stored, but no considerable amount may be kept in any single container. For example, not more than 275 gallons of gasoline may be stored in a single tank, but any number of tanks may be placed on the premises, so as to secure the supply required for the number of motor vehicles or the industry concerned.

In fact, the lack of harmony in American methods and requirements has been most extraordinary. In some few cases there may be better practice than in Germany and other European countries, but in most cities conditions are such as to give rise to exceptional hazards, and serious fires have resulted from lack of care in the handling and storage of gasoline, both in private and public garages, as well as from inflammable liquids in other establishments.

Quite recently, in connection with this handling, storage, and sale of inflammable liquids, an attempt to secure more effective regulation and general harmony has been made, and a suggested ordinance has been drawn up for general adoption. This has been approved by the National Board of Fire Underwriters, whose engineers were largely instrumental in its preparation, and by the National Fire Protection Association, as well as by such organizations as the National Manufacturers' Association, the National Paint, Oil, and Varnish Association, the National Varnish Manufacturers' Association, the National Dry Cleaners' Association, and the Independent Petroleum Marketers' Association, all of these organizations, and particularly the last named, actively participating in the various discussions, and contributing materially to the rules which were drawn up.

These rules are intended to represent the best practice and are reasonably strict and severe, yet at the same time not to be unreasonably oppressive in their bearing on small dealers or on the conduct of ordinary business. The aim has been to be explicit and leave as little to the discretion of municipal authorities and fire department officials as possible, for it has been found that inefficiency and possibly worse conditions are likely to result when fire chiefs or fire commissioners can make arbitrary rules.

The proposed ordinance has been designed to serve as a model, applicable throughout the country generally, and was prepared only after a thorough consideration of the many points involved and the interests of the various parties concerned.

It not only deals with the garage and the gasoline hazard in connection with motor vehicles, but also with the subject of inflammable liquids and the products thereof in general, regulating their use and handling, storage, and sale. Inflammable liquids are in three classes according to the "flash point" or temperature at which the vapor arising from them will ignite, determined with various forms of approved testers as used by the United States Bureau of Mines and fire officials generally. Inflammable liquids on this basis are divided into three classes, and gasoline, which is the fuel of most motor vehicles, is included in Class I, embracing the most inflammable liquids, (Class I being defined as liquids with flash point 27 deg. Fahr. (3 deg. Cent.), closed cup tester, which is equivalent to 30 deg. Fahr., open cup tester.

The proposed ordinance has furnished the basis of recent rules or statutes enacted or promulgated by competent authority, so that, all things considered, it may be said to summarize the best American practice and requirements. These rules should result in reducing the losses from fire due to improperly constructed and maintained garages, and should, therefore, act to offset the increased hazard due to the storage and handling of inflammable liquids in ever-increasing quantities.

Canada's Railway.—Had not the war seriously unsettled industry and trade throughout the Dominion would have developed in 1912 a trunk-line railway mileage of approximately 40,000 miles, including, of course, all subsidiary or contracted lines and lines running through American territory. This would have placed the country second to no other in the world in railway standing. The completion of the Grand Trunk-Pacific system has been retarded. The line being laid westward from Winnipeg to the Pacific terminus at Prince Rupert, B. C., has been in operation for some months, but the line from Winnipeg to Montreal, N. B., the terminus on the Atlantic, is not as yet completed, and the funds for its completion, under present circumstances, may be difficult to be available. The expectations founded on its completion, such as the loss of Ontario and Quebec will be disappointed for a while.

Science

The "Thinking" Horses at Eberfeld were not, after all, killed in battle in Pfandorf, as has been reported in the newspapers and many scientific journals. According to a note in *Science*, the owner of the horses, Herr Krall, reports them safe and sound, though the experiments on them have been suspended during the war.

The British Association.—Under the heading "Science as Usual," *The Times* announces that the British Association will hold its annual meeting in Manchester next September, as arranged. On account of the war the meeting will probably be shorn of the elaborate social functions which usually characterize this annual event.

The Work of the Coast and Geodetic Survey.—A substantial illustrated pamphlet, issued especially for distribution at the Panama-Pacific Exposition, but also obtainable by mail, free of charge, from the Division of Publications, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C., is entitled "United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, Description of its Work, Methods, and Organization." The varied and useful activities of this branch of the Government are set forth in interesting detail.

Disturbance of Pheasants by Distant Cannoning.—*The Times* and other English publications have contained numerous accounts of the disturbance noted among the pheasants of northeastern England during the North Sea battle of January 24th, apparently indicating that those birds heard the cannonading as plainly as to be much disturbed thereby—though this place it was impossible to the human senses. An alternative suggestion, offered by Dr. Davison, is that the disturbance of the birds was due to the sudden swaying of low trees and shrubs under the effect of inaudible air-waves.

A Great Sun Spot Appears.—A great sun spot estimated to be 100,000 miles long has been disclosed by the recent development of a photographic plate that was exposed at the Naval Observatory, at Washington, on March 20th. The following instructions are given by the observatory officials for observing the spot: "By holding a piece of smoked glass in front of one of the object glasses of an ordinary opera glass, with the smoked side toward the opera glass and looking through this side only, using one eye, the spot may be plainly seen. Caution should be observed not to get the full glare of the sun in the eye, and the side of the glasses not in use should be turned away from, instead of toward, the other eye, so as to avoid the possibility of the sun's rays striking that eye through the glass."

Trees that Keep Weather Records.—In cutting up logs for experimental purposes at the Madison, Wis., laboratory of the U. S. Forest Service it was noticed that in a number of them there were little diagonal streaks, or wrinkles, running across the grain, and that these appeared entirely on the same side of the trees. It was well known that these wrinkles indicated compression failures, such as result from too great a strain on the fiber at some time, either from bending in a storm, or from rough handling, but as all of the logs in question came from the same locality in Florida, and the markings were all on the north side of the log, it was assumed that they were caused by some severe storm from the south that had swept over that part of the country. By carefully counting the annual rings of wood, and knowing when those trees were cut, it was decided that the storm recorded by the wrinkles must have occurred in the year 1898; and inquiries verified the fact that at that time a hurricane had swept over that region.

A New Immunization Theory.—According to a new theory of immunization against bacterial disease evolved by Drs. Henry Smith Williams and James Wallace Beveridge, two New York physicians, the red and white corpuscles of the blood are the chief agents that protect human organisms against the ravages of bacteria, and this they termed the proteomorphologic theory. These investigators believe that the white corpuscles deal with the unknown proteins that they may come in contact with, whether they be of bacterial or dietic origin, and that the red corpuscles deal with the partially cleaved molecules of protein. In other words, the business of the white corpuscles is to break down or cleave this protein molecule, not synthesize it. And in summing up *American Medicine* condenses their statement: "In this view, then, the red blood corpuscles have an immunizing function, and are complementary to that of the white blood corpuscles, and no less important. One legion of cells co-operates with the other, each having its own special field. The white corpuscles deal with all formed bodies and full-sized protein molecules of foreign type that make their way into the blood stream. The red blood corpuscles deal with the later cleavage products of proteoplasmic activity. In carrying out their respective tasks, the leucocytes supplement the work of the ferments of the digestive tract; the red corpuscles supplement the work of the leucocytes and relieve the ultimate strains in corporeal measure of the task of protecting themselves against small-bodied nitrogenous poisons that might prove lethal."

Astronomy

The Royal Astronomical Society has decided, by a vote of 59 to 3, to admit women as fellows and associates.

"L'Antenne," the monthly bulletin of the Astronomical Society of France, which suspended publication at the outbreak of the war, has now been resumed, and the missing back numbers have been issued, so that there will be no break in the file.

Arthur von Auwers, the well-known German astronomer who died January 24th of this year, was born in Göttingen in 1838, and moved to Berlin in 1866 when he became a member of the Berlin Academy of Sciences and academic astronomer. Auwers was pre-eminently among European astronomers in studies on the proper motion of stars, but also made many important investigations in other branches of astronomy.

Adam Massinger, assistant at the Heidelberg observatory and known as the discoverer of several asteroids, was killed in action near Ypres October 21st. It is an interesting example of the irony of fate that Massinger named the first asteroid he discovered "Nipponia," in honor of Japan. During the last few years he had been engaged on a laborious examination of all the nebulae of Herschel's general catalogue found on the Heidelberg photographic plates, and was preparing to use the statistical material thus collected concerning upwards of 4,400 of these bodies in a study of their distribution in the stellar system.

New Asteroids.—The Astronomisches Rechen-Institut, at Berlin-Dahlem, announces that 76 new asteroids were discovered in the year ended June 30th, 1914; viz. 26 at Heidelberg, 5 at Johannesburg, 1 at Nice, 1 at Paris, 19 at Simsbach, 3 at Vienna, and 20 at Winchester, while 1 was discovered on the same night at Heidelberg and Simsbach. Permanent numbers have been assigned to 32 of these, as well as to 5 discovered the previous year, and the elements of these 37 have been published. The total number of these bodies whose orbits are now definitely known which have consequently received permanent numbers is 791.

Saturn's Crepe Ring.—The crepe ring of Saturn has been observed and measured at the Lowell Observatory persistently wider on the east than on the west side of the planet during the past month by a difference of five hundredths. This fact will have important bearings on the mechanics of the stability of the ring. Any phase effect or defect of illumination of the constituents of the ring are not sufficient to explain the phenomenon on account of the diminutive size of the meteorites composing it. A possible explanation of this detected eccentricity of the ring may be the revolution of its periastron.

The German Eclipse Expedition in Russia.—Four German observatories—Berlin, Hamburg, Munich and Potsdam—sent expeditions to the Crimea to observe the solar eclipse of August 21st, 1914. These parties reached their stations about the end of July and were busy with preparations for their work when the outbreak of the war caused them to depart hastily for Germany, leaving their instruments behind at Theodosia. Having proceeded as far as Odessa by boat, they were all declared prisoners of war. Ultimately most of them were released and got home in safety, but four—viz. Dr. Zurlinden of Berlin, Dr. Köhl of Munich, and two assistants of the Hamburg party—were kept in captivity, and are supposed to have been sent to Astrakhan. The instruments left at Theodosia were confiscated by the Russian authorities and turned over to the University of Odessa.

Early Chinese Records of Eclipses.—Mons. Hiryayama and Ogura have published in the *Proceedings of the Tokyo Mathematical-Physical Society* the results of their attempts to fix the dates of some early eclipses recorded in Chinese literature. The earliest is mentioned in one of the books of the *Siku Ching*, where it is recorded that in the reign of Chung K'ang, the fourth emperor of the Han dynasty, there occurred an eclipse of the sun which had not been predicted by the astronomers, who were alleged to have been drunk and to have neglected their duties. Hence the customary rite for delivering the sun, which should have been arranged in advance and superintended by the astronomers, were in the emergency performed by other officials without proper preparation. The emperor accordingly ordered the army to punish the astronomers. A later document makes it possible to fix the date of this event as October 13th, 2127 B. C. (Julian calendar)—the earliest recorded eclipse in the world. Calculation shows that there actually was a solar eclipse on that date, but probably not in China, though the elements of the motions of the sun and moon are not accurate enough to indicate certainly the path of so remote an eclipse. The authors are inclined to think that the information fixing the date of the eclipse is due to Chinese astronomers of a later age, who calculated that an eclipse occurred on that date and erroneously supposed that it was visible in China.

Automobile

Wanted: 20,000,000 Tires in 1916.—Granting that the average consumption of tires by motor cars is eight tires per car per year, which includes all types of vehicles, there will be required during 1916 not less than 20,000,000 tires, valued at from \$300,000,000 to \$400,000,000—figuring the average price of tires at \$15.

Lubricating Spring Leaves. A new device for the lubrication of the leaves of automobile springs has been brought out by a Providence firm. The device is essentially nothing but a pair of plates, bolted one on each side of the spring. Each plate incloses a small oil reservoir and a felt wick, the latter pressed against the edges of the spring leaves and feeding the oil between them.

New Aluminum Solder.—A solder for aluminum which can be used without flux, has been evolved by a New York company, which sells it by the pound, in convenient sticks weighing about 5 ounces each. The solder is applied with any convenient piece of iron, while the heat of a gasolene torch is all that is necessary to cause junction. At the soldered joint the metal is stronger than the aluminum itself. The aluminum will not oxidize during the soldering process.

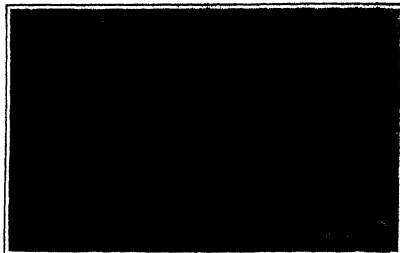
Ball Bearings Still Imported.—Fears that the imports of ball bearings would completely cease because of the war, appear to have been groundless. Despite the embargo placed by the German government upon bearings exports, the quantity and value of these necessities for motor cars have not been less in the seven months ended January 31st, 1915, than in the same period ended January 31st, 1914. Most of the shipments now come from Italy and Sweden.

A Rubber Regenerator Wanted.—A prize of \$25,000 has been offered by the German government for a satisfactory process of regenerating rubber. It is not merely a "reclaiming" process that is desired, but a real "regenerating" process. The resiliency of the original rubber must be restored to the extent of at least 80 per cent in order to make the process eligible for competition. The tire problem is beginning to worry the army authorities, and negotiations are said to be pending with the manufacturer of a well-known fire tire, of the tension type, which is expected to solve the difficulty of obtaining rubber for pneumatic in sufficient quantity for army needs.

Safety Devices for Automobile Starting Motors. A patent has been granted to H. Miller of Wilkes-Barre, Pa., assignor to Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, No. 1,130,001, for a safety device for starting motors of automobiles. The object is to protect the gears of a starting motor for an automobile engine by preventing the connection of the motor to the engine shaft when the latter is rotated above a predetermined speed and in doing this the motor utilizes centrifugal force to control means for preventing the establishment of an operative connection between the starting motor and the engine shaft. Another patent No. 1,130,573, for a similar purpose has been issued to Frank Conrad of Lyonsdale, Pa., assignor to Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, in which patent there is employed the usual reduction gear mechanism which operatively connects the motor to the engine fly wheel, and the invention provides a device which automatically locks the starting mechanism in an inoperative position when the fly wheel is rotated above the connecting gears to mesh of the fly wheel is at a standstill, thus avoiding any operation of the starter when the engine shaft is operated.

Saving Time by Combination.—One of the most peculiar results of the modern system of quantity production of automobiles is undoubtedly the tendency to combine certain accessories, in order to save material and, especially, to save time in the assembling of the car. A few minutes saved in the putting together of the minor parts of the car, means an aggregate saving of many days' work when a production of 50,000 or more cars is concerned. Some of the most recent attempts along this line are the following: One company is using a headlight with hollow perforated rim. This rim is really the horn end of the electric warning signal, the buzzer of which is directly behind the electric light bulb. Not only is the mounting of the horn unnecessary, but the sound is carried forward better, because of the absence of interfering parts. Another company uses a headlight, in the back of which is mounted a siren, thereby combining the two accessories which heretofore had to be mounted separately. Still another concern mounts its electric lighting generator on the cooling fan, while a fourth combines the horn with the fan. The use of the magnetos as a generator for electric lights is coming into favor more and more, the largest American manufacturer just having announced that its factory model a slightly larger magnetos will be furnished without extra charge, in combination with a complete electric lighting installation. The next two years will undoubtedly see many similar combinations, reducing the number of parts, the number of odd angles to the car, and the time and expense of assembling the car. The least proved cars probably will lead in this respect.

Dum-dum cartridges, all forbidden by laws of war. First three have soft point bullets with metal patches of varying length. No. 4 has a soft point Spitzer bullet.



No. 5 is a 260-grain Savage & Smith "Mark IV," the original hollow point dum-dum; 7, copper take expanding bullet; and for big game; 8, hollow nose sectioned to show form.

Dum-dum Bullets

By Edward C. Crossman



Dum-dum bullets after firing.

Expanding Spitzer bullet sectioned to show hollow copper jacket that makes the bullet break up.

Dum-dum bullets after firing.

THE dum-dum charges on both sides take us back to the days of the Spanish war, when the same acquisitions were made. As a matter of fact, Spanish 7-millimeter cartridges could be produced with the point of the bullet sawed crisp across with a hacksaw, but at that we don't find any more deadly than the ordinary bullet.

With the exception of the French, the belligerents in the present war use smokeless high-velocity rifles of small bore and, of course, firing jacketed bullets. These bullets are constructed of a lead core, with a tough jacket or skin over the outside, closed everywhere except at the base where the core is inserted. This very tough skin is made either of sheet steel, nickelled to prevent rust, or else of an alloy of copper and nickel of about the proportion of 20 per cent nickel to 80 per cent copper, and being thus merely German silver. Sawing the point of a sharp point bullet of this construction does not cause the bullet to break up in these, unless the cut is made far down the bullet.

All the nations engaged use practically the 0.30 caliber, although, of course, the cartridges vary considerably. No. they are not 30-30's, nor any relation to 30-30's, the 0.30-30 being an American game-shooting cartridge of considerably less power than a military cartridge.

Now early in the small bore, jacket bullet game, the British found themselves in difficulties with some hill tribe or other. These Afghans or similar East Indian Apaches, were accustomed to rush British camps by the light of the stars, or sometimes by daylight, and brandish knives as large as machetes and as sharp as razors.

The first thing the British discovered about their new small bore acquisition in place of the good old 0.45 caliber Martini Henry, was that the new rifle would not stop an Afghan or other hill person, who really intended to keep coming. Several British soldiers were killed by hill men who, according to all the laws of warfare, should have been very, very dead. Irrilling them with the 0.303 seemed merely to exasperate them. There fore, in their hill arsenal of Dum-Dum, the British proceeded to evolve a new bullet for making good men out of hill men. They took the 0.303 bullet and removed some jacket from the point, exposing the leaden core. Then they tried it on some more hill men. The British troops reported that it was fine. No word was ever received from the parties on the other side. Thus arose the first soft point, metal patched bullet, and on it was added the name of Dum-Dum from the little, obscure Indian arsenal that produced it. And so, every bullet from a small bore rifle, doctored up in any way at all, was yclept Dum-Dum, although it might use some other system for procuring expansion of the bullet. Also any wound that was unusually large was promptly charged up to a dum-dum bullet, although it might just as well have come from a bullet ricocheting from rocky ground, or in these modern days from a sharp point bullet in its original tumbling act.

The British proceeded to change this dum-dum bullet around a bit, making it hollow nose, instead of exposing so much lead, but still designing it to expand

and break up on impact. It was officially recognised and named, as we remember, the Mark IV, the British so naming every separate cartridge and rifle they ever produced.

They found it just as pleasing in Africa. They laid out Derivishes with it, and they stopped Matabeles and other members of the Zulu nation. With the last, particularly, the ordinary bullets proved ineffective. When an impi started for the British line, the members thereof kept on coming until physically unable to move on. The regular bullets were inadequate. We have before us a half dozen of the hollow nose bullets used by the British in the Matabele trouble.

At The Hague or Geneva Convention, we forget which, the British, with other civilized nations, signed compacts forbidding the use of expansive or explosive bullets. The bally heathen had nobody at the convention, which was a little tough on the heathen.

But the French, against whom the dum-dum charge was brought, have as clear a case of alibi as any small boy who could prove that he was stealing apples out of an orchard a mile away, when the melon patch was raided.

Exposing the lead of a patched bullet or giving it a hollow nose tends to make the jacket peel back and split up in ribbons, allow the lead to fly off in small bits, and the main body of it to flatten out or mushroom.

But the French use exclusively a bullet formed of solid copper-zinc alloy, no jacket, no lead, no soft metal

to smear around regardless of what one does to the bullet. It could "dum-dum" about as easily as a piece of heavy copper wire. The German charges were disproved the instant we saw at whose door they had been laid. The French soldiers—some of them—in their ignorance might have saved at the points of the bullets or cut them through, or otherwise fussed around with them. Instances of the sort are common in every army, including our own. But, regardless of the intent of the few scattered fools that might have done this, the effect was all, because you cannot do anything to a solid copper-alloy bullet to make it more deadly.

Also, Germans protested because the French cartridges were poisoned. They found a ring of black stuff around the neck of each cartridge. I have one before me, and it is not a poisoning cartridge in appearance. I know of other cartridges I would select in preference were I planning to be shot—say the B. B. or 0.22 Short for choice. This black stuff turned out to be a water-proofing, and about as poisonous as March beer.

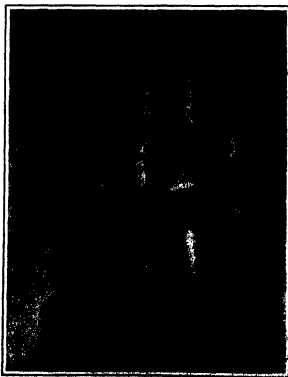
If the dum-dum bullets had been leveled in later days of the war, and at the British, it might have aroused suspicions among those that knew the facts that the British had by mischance been shipped some of the old Mark IV hollow nose bullets, but I, for one, refuse to believe that they ever would use them deliberately.

As a matter of fact, consider the manifest stupidity, not to say childishness and lack of sportsmanlike that lies back of all this dum-dum folly. Altering a bullet on a wholesale scale would result in inaccuracy, altered ballistics of the rifle, chances for trouble if the bullet broke up in the barrel as happens if the point of a solid jacket bullet is sawed off, and general trouble all round, not to mention the small job of altering a few billion rounds of cartridges urgently needed on the firing line. And, were all this done, the net result would be a few men killed that otherwise might have lived, a few wounds of far nastier type, and a few less wounded for the surgeons to patch up.

When a man is hit by any modern or old style bullet he usually quits. I speak now of civilized troops. The Russians quit before the tiny 0.25 caliber bullets of the Japs. The little 0.25 caliber bullets did just as effective work in the Balkans as the 0.30 caliber bullets. Once in a while a man might keep on fighting with a hole in him, but he is not worth while breaking all the laws of civilized fighting for, to say nothing of the trouble entailed in altering the bullet used.

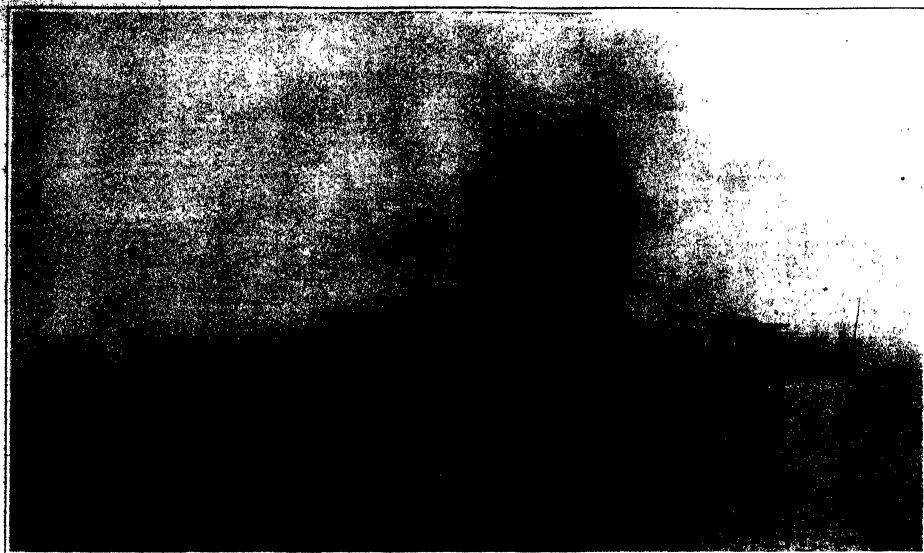
Therefore, if you stop the advance of the enemy you've done all you can. The condition of his wounded does not interest the men on the other side. Nobody but a heathen would want to think of the wounded of the other side lying in agony from torn wounds of explosive bullets. Dum-dum bullets don't help to kill any more men, and it is hitting the men at all that is the difficult and the decisive thing in war.

On the other hand, the surgeons of both sides do find men badly torn, with shocking wounds that apparently never could be produced by anything but expanding bullets.



Copyright by DeLormel & Slaters.

Clip of British cartridges transmitted by a German bullet while in a soldier's bandolier.



Copyright by S. Moller, Jr.

Date, 1913. Tonn, 27,000. Speed, 21 knots. Guns, Ten 14-inch, twenty-one 5-inch. Torpedo tubes, 4. Belt, 12-inch.

U. S. S. "Texas," the first of our battleships to mount the 14-inch gun.

An Analysis of Our Naval Standing—II

Why We Are An Inferior Power

By George von L. Meyer, Former Secretary of the Navy

IT has been held that the possession of a sea-going fleet having rapidity of movement and the ability to keep the sea insured without doubt the transference of a hostile attack to some point at sea at a great distance from our home shores and an ability to maintain a free highway for American commerce under conditions where the submarine would be practically powerless. That is true only in the sense that battleships are, and may indefinitely remain, the controlling factor in any war in which the belligerents are separated by great distances of water, but it is not always feasible for a battleship fleet to leave home waters. The powerful fleet of British dreadnoughts is, so far as known, within a few miles of any point of the British coast. Its past or future vulnerability for German submarines is something that will not be known until long after the end of the present war.

The North Sea and the British Channel constitute a body of water whose coast lines, on all sides, are never widely separated. The location has given the submarine a safe field for action and has correspondingly limited the usefulness of the dreadnoughts, which are, in reality, doing no more than patrol duty. Our home waters would never offer an identical situation to a hostile fleet if we exclude the Caribbean Sea. But in order to retain the command over that sea a powerful fleet would be necessary. Therefore the ratio of submarines to capital ships must be maintained on the basis recommended by the General Board if we wish to consider ourselves safe.

In view of the increasing number of submarines, however, and the age of some of the older vessels, there is urgent need also for testing and wrecking docks that may be used for salvaging submarines of any size, docking submarines, and testing to determine resistance to external water pressure. Two docks of this description will ultimately be required for the Atlantic, and one each for the Pacific Coast, Hawaii, Panama, Guam and the Philippines.

Two other types of auxiliary ships are required for the successful administration of the fleet—hospital and repair ships. The two hospital ships now borne on the navy list—the "Albatross" and the "Relief"—are both improved and small, and neither adapted to the service. There have been great advances in time of peace in connection with construction of the fleet, but the "Relief" is not an exception, and the "Albatross" would be of limited

value in time of war. To remedy this defect the General Board repeats the recommendation for the 1910 programme, as it again recommends an additional supply ship. One, authorized in 1913, is now under construction, but another is needed, because the four ships we have are improvised and were hurriedly bought and fitted in 1908 to meet the exigencies of the Spanish war. Upon the efficacy of the supply ships depends the efficacy of the fleet when it is away from home waters or its base. This question of supply ships has again been demonstrated in the present war, and though the source remains a secret it is known that the German system of supply has been marvelous. Up to the time of writing not one German cruiser was forced to intern or surrender because of lack of supplies. Some of these supplies, true, may have been obtained from vessels of the enemy, but I do not doubt for a moment that Germany (or any other power) has a perfect system of supply and the proper number of ships to do the supply work.

Two other important items should be considered, one relative to a floating dock and another for coaling stations.

Graving docks of 1,000 feet for both the Atlantic and Pacific, to accommodate newer and larger vessels, are necessary, to be located at places subject to later selection. But the construction of a floating dock of about 40,000 tons capacity is necessary. Such a dock is indispensable to float a battleship or cruiser that has been injured or wrecked or crippled on any part of our coast. The dock must be large enough and strong enough to hold the heaviest dreadnoughts. We have now only two floating docks, one in the Philippines and one at New Orleans. The latter will float a battleship of about 15,000 or 16,000 tons, although doubt exists in some minds as to whether it would be safe to float a 16,000-ton ship—the absolute limit of its capacity. Such a dock ought to be stationed on the Atlantic, although there was an element in Congress, when I first recommended this dock, that suspected a hidden motive. But if doubt existed then as to the desirability of such a dock, the present war has likewise demonstrated the value of this equipment, which forms a part of the German and British navies. One of the latest reports is that the "Audacious," the dreadnought which was rendered useless on the Irish coast late in October, is now supposed to be undergoing repairs, and these repairs

are only possible because the huge dock was taken to the scene of the disaster.

We are likewise confronted with the necessity for large reserve supplies of coal. The navy lacks adequate coal and fuel depots at several important strategic points, notably Guantanamo, Puget Sound and Pearl Harbor. Arrangements have been made to increase the capacity and facilities at these places as far as practicable with the funds that have been available from time to time, but a considerable additional appropriation for the purpose is necessary in order to achieve the desired result.

Without ample coal and oil storage capacity at the distant bases, and in the absence of a large merchant marine to insure a continuous supply of fuel, the activity and effectiveness of the fleet will be seriously, if not fatally, affected in time of war. An item of \$500,000 would perhaps cover the requirements.

There has been a tendency in certain congressional quarters in favor of a general naval base located somewhere on the mainland of the Gulf coast. This plan has been taken up by the joint board of the Army and Navy, but its unanimous recommendation has been for a naval base on the Atlantic coast. But in order to consider this point we must disregard existing naval stations. The interests of the country and the interests of the Navy would be best served by the establishment of one first-class naval station with ample anchorage on the coast north of the Delaware, equipped for docking, repairing, and provisioning at least half the entire fleet, and one station of the same capacity at Norfolk, in Chesapeake Bay. This would be supplemented by a fleet rendezvous at Guantanamo with sufficient docking and repairing facilities to enable the fleet to maintain itself in that vicinity for considerable periods, but not for extensive repairs, an ample torpedo-bait base at Charleston, a supplementary torpedo and submarine boat base at Key West, and a station for the large reserve fleet at Philadelphia. The fresh water basin there is to be the port of the reserve fleet of battleships, and the department has been studying the system which will put these ships in such a condition that they will be ready at the shortest possible notice and at the same time will not deteriorate.

Now we must consider the personnel.

For the first time in many years the enlistment is up to the limit prescribed by Congress. The enlistment at

present is \$2,667, or 4,612 greater than last year. This increase was made possible by recruiting to the additional authorized strength. It is estimated that about 90 per cent of the effective fighting power of the Navy is now fully manned. But one cannot hide the fact that although the numbers are recruited up to the limit allowed by law, we have only sufficient men to man in an adequate manner a portion of the vessels already built. At present three second line battleships, two armored cruisers, two third-class cruisers, twenty-one destroyers, three monitors, five submarines, one gunboat, three fuel ships, and two vessels of special type are in commission in reserve, that is to say, they have on board from 25 per cent to 50 per cent of the crews necessary to man them in case of war. There are also 6 second line battleships, 1 armored cruiser, one second-class cruiser and 14 torpedo boats which are in the condition technically called "in ordinary." These vessels are manned from 10 per cent to 20 per cent of their regular complements. Just enough to prevent them from rusting in place. Further, there are 3 second line battleships, 3 second-class cruisers, one third-class cruiser, one destroyer, two monitors, four torpedo boats, 6 gunboats, one transport, 10 hospital ships, one fuel ship, one repair ship and 11 converted yachts which are at present out of commission altogether.

To provide a proper complement for all vessels of the Navy which could still be made useful for war purposes would require an addition to the present force of about 15,000 men.

As things stand, building battleships or other warships without having an adequate force of men is equal to wasting money. For instance, a statement issued by the Navy Department recently reads that "theoretically and on paper, the Navy possesses at the present time ten battleships of the first line and twenty-three battleships of the second line, but actually only the ten battleships of the first line and eleven battleships of the second line can be placed in commission for service because of the shortage of men." The foregoing totals, however, do not agree with the official table showing the naval standing of the powers.

Whether or not the practice of taking the crews from the older ships to man new ships is a wise one is doubtful. It may be true that 800 men on a down-draft of the latest type are as effective as 4,000 men on old battleships or old cruisers, but I am convinced that all serviceable vessels—regardless of their class—ought to be fully manned, and that for every additional warship added to the fleet an adequate number of enlisted men should be provided for. If men must be taken from one old ship to man a new one, the change ought to take place in those instances where the ship is actually retired and condemned as unfit for further service.

The General Board, in its latest report to the Secretary of the Navy, states as follows:

"The General Board cannot too strongly urge upon the Department the necessity of using its best endeavors to carry out the repeated recommendations of the General Board, made from year to year to provide the fleet with a personnel, active list and trained reserve, equal to the manning of the fleet for war. In the opinion of the General Board this is a matter of even more serious import than that of construction, for it cannot be too often repeated that ships without a trained personnel to man and fight them are useless for the purposes of war. The training needed for the purpose is long and arduous, and cannot be done after the outbreak of war. This must have been provided for long previous to the beginning of hostilities, and any ship of the fleet found at the outbreak of war without provision having been made for its manning by officers and men trained for service can be counted as only a useless mass of steel whose existence leads only to a false sense of security."

The strength of fleets is measured too often in the public mind by the number and tonnage of its material units. The real strength of a fleet is a combination of its personnel—with their skill and training, and its material, and of these two elements the more important—the personnel—is too often forgotten and neglected in making provision for the fleet."

This last paragraph is worthy of attention not only by Congress but by all the people. We alone of the naval powers provide no trained reserves. We trust to the filling of the complements of our ships by untrained men recruited after war is imminent or declared.

Of course, no nation in time of peace keeps all the ships of its navy fully manned and in full commission. But all the leading nations except the United States provide an active list, officers and men, sufficient to keep the best of their fleet in a material condition for war; and in addition a trained reserve of officers and men sufficient to round out the complements and fully man every serviceable ship of their navies and also furnish a power-off for casualties. Thus every nation except ours is prepared to mobilize its entire navy, by order, with officers and trained men.

Congress, however, will not be officially acquainted with the fact that the General Board is earnestly seeking a greater personnel list.

Yet the need of more men is a serious one. The requirements are as follows:

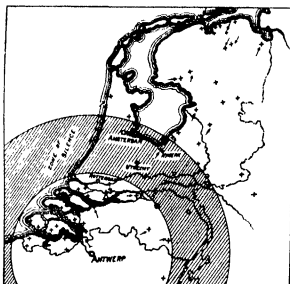
1. Provision for an active personnel, officers and enlisted force, capable of keeping in full commission all battleships under fifteen years of age from date of authorization, all destroyers and submarines under twelve years of age from authorization, half of the cruisers, all the gunboats and all the necessary auxiliaries that go with the active fleet.

2. To expand the active personnel with the expansion of the fleet in the proportions indicated in the preceding paragraph.

3. Taking immediate steps to form a national reserve of trained officers and men, and that his work be pushed until this reserve in connection with the naval militia has reached the point where, combined with the active list, it will be possible to man the entire fleet with war complements and furnish an additional ten per cent for casualties.

If we could get a reserve of 50,000 men, half of whom have been in the Navy and the other half in the mercantile marine service, either on the Lakes or along the coast, then we would have a personnel emergency reserve which would be of great value in time of need. Our present naval militia is insufficient, as it numbers about 7,000 men. We need a reserve to make up the personnel deficiency.

Let us not forget that this country possesses potentially a well-trained and capable naval reserve, but it is unorganized and it is at least 10,000 men short. Plans ought to be made to organize this body of reserves that would make of it an effective reserve in time of war. There are about 30,000 of these former sailors, most fit by physical strength and experience both to officer and man naval auxiliaries, as well as



The shaded area marks the zone in which the bombardment of Antwerp was audible.

to return to their places as gunners, gun pointers, and other positions on our warships.

We have more vessels in commission than most of the nations which give higher rank to their officers, yet when our fleets enter foreign waters our naval officers are compelled to yield precedence to ranking officers of smaller nations. This is not an indignity to the man so much as to the United States. It is not a question of our naval officers, as individuals, being placed in inferior positions when they meet the fleets of other nations. It is that in the eyes of other nations we put ourselves in the position of an inferior power.

And another deficiency worthy of notice is the fact that it would be practically impossible for the United States Navy to make any strategic move outside of American waters unless it first obtained, by purchase or otherwise, British admiralty charts to insure safe navigation. How soon the United States will become independent of British chart-makers I do not know, but the fact stands that we lack a very necessary item.

There has been a great deal of comment about the unreadiness of the fleet to-day. During the past two years maneuvers and battle practice of the fleet as a whole have been greatly curtailed. The last mobilization, in the full sense of the word, was during the last mobilization in October, 1912, when 31 battleships, 4 armored cruisers, and 88 smaller vessels, manned by 1,300 officers and nearly 27,500 enlisted men, participated in the review. Since then the custom of annual mobilization has been abandoned. Why? Because the present Administration has required the use of battleships for duty which could have been performed equally well by gunboats and small cruisers. In addition, the shortage of men is also seriously interfering with the

annual maneuvers so necessary for the proficiency of the fleet. Vessels for such service are almost entirely unavailable "in ordinary," and the battleships under training emergency duty prevents their mobilization and proper drills.

Are not the foregoing circumstances worthy of attention? Are there not many defects which should be eliminated? Is not the present policy a costly and roundabout one?

Zone of Silence

By W. J. L. Kitch

PROF. VAN EVERDINGEN has published the preliminary conclusion arrived at in the Meteorological station of Utrecht about the area in the Netherlands where the bombardment of Antwerp was audible. More careful study has, however, to be given to the matter before it can be understood in all its phases, for instance the bearing thereon of the local weather conditions have still to be more especially investigated. The broad conclusion that could at a glance be deduced from the reports that came in from various places in Holland after each place where the bombardment had been heard had been marked on a map (see accompanying diagram) have absolutely confirmed the theory of the German scientist, Dr. Von dem Borne, who suggested that the phenomenon of some of these correspond to a similar phenomenon in light, which produces the well known *fata morgana* of the desert. According to this theory the sound waves which are thrown upward do not lose themselves in infinity, but, after reaching a height of from 60 to 80 kilometers (37 to 90 miles) according to the greater or less density and dampness of the atmosphere are thrown back again or reflected toward the earth.

The area over which the sound of the bombardment was directly audible was a very wide one, about 85 kilometers in radius. Then follows a zone of silence of 60 kilometers broken only in one place (see the small cross near Nykerk on the map). What local atmospheric condition caused this exception has not yet been ascertained. Beyond this zone the sound again became audible and the direction from which the observers perceived the sound is given by the small arrows on the map. It will be seen that in the extreme north of the province of Groningen the sound of guns was heard coming from the northeast, and upon investigation it proved that the sound was caused by the bombardment of Antwerp, October 18 to 19th, gun practice at Horkum was going on and also at Meppen, where Krupp gun ranges are situated. This group of crosses will, therefore, have to be eliminated. It is interesting to note that at Utrecht itself the sound of the bombardment of Antwerp was not heard, but, when later, on the fighting line in Belgium was removed to a distance of 200 kilometers from Utrecht the sound of guns was plainly discerned, both by Prof. van Everdingen himself and others of the observatory.

Prof. W. Meindardus of Munster in Westphalia happened to hear of the investigations carried on at Utrecht and sent Prof. van Everdingen a clipping from the *Asscher* near Asscher, October 16th, in which appeared reports from persons in places some 140 kilometers distant from Antwerp, to the east and northeast, who not only distinctly heard the sound of guns, but were able to distinguish the difference in sound between the report of the 42-centimeter guns and others. He offered to collect further material upon this matter in Germany and send it up to Utrecht. This offer was gladly accepted, for, in this way, it may be possible to determine the width of the outer sound area.

Prof. van Everdingen intends to publish the results of further investigation later on.

The Current Supplement

THE issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT for April 17th, 1915, No. 2650, is a most valuable in the variety and character of the matter it contains. There is an interesting account of the earthquakes and volcanic eruptions of Sakurajima, in Japan, showing their connection with other disturbances in this region. Testing the Sensibility of Plants is a valuable summary of the remarkable investigations by Prof. Bosc, which have opened up an entirely new field in plant physiology. There is an interesting account of the astronomical achievements of the Roosevelt-Benson Expedition in South America by one of the scientific party. Wireless Transmission of Energy is an unusually clear and complete exposition of a subject of growing importance, written especially for the general reader by a leading authority. The Use of Light in the Treatment of Disease adds much to our knowledge of the effects of different kinds of light. An English authority on astronomical subjects reviews many of the important findings of the stratum on both sides in the European straits, with comments on the results accomplished. There are articles on printing for the blind, German railways in the war and various other matters.

Teaching Defective Children

The remarkable Experiment of Columbia University
in Educational Psychology

By A. M. Jongsma

A SERIOUS problem in educational psychology is that of developing the mental faculties of exceptional or atypical children. Up to within recent years mental defects among children were looked upon as hopeless and very little was attempted in their education. To-day, however, it is generally recognized that many forms of defective mentality are amenable to treatment along lines evolved through a better comprehension of those branches of medical science known as psychiatry and neurology.

An interesting experiment in the education of exceptional children is now being carried out in Columbia University. A class of atypical children has been formed in Speyer School, a model elementary school used for experimental purposes in connection with Teachers College. Psychologists recognize that the training of exceptional children must differ from the training of normal children in that each child requires individual study and the instruction it receives must be particularly suited to its requirements. In order that the greatest possible progress be made by the class as a whole the number of pupils has been restricted to ten children, thus permitting each child to receive the maximum amount of attention from the teachers and preserving, in all essentials, the individuality of each student.

The examination of the children who were admitted to the class was conducted by Dr. Louis E. Bitch, who has been very successful in the treatment of atypical children, and Dr. Naomi Norworthy, Associate Professor of Educational Psychology. Before acceptance each child is thoroughly examined physically and mentally. Absolutely hopeless cases are not accepted. In his mental examination Dr. Bitch employs the Binet-Simon measuring scale for intelligence, the Yerkes-Bridges "point scale" and the Ziehen intelligence test. In the recognition of mental deficiency each of these tests has certain peculiar advantages. The point scale was designed by its authors with a view to improving the Binet measuring scale of intelligence. The test devised by Prof. Ziehen of Berlin University, has been used with highly satisfactory results in the psychiatric and neurologic clinic of that institution.

The Binet-Simon test has the advantage of instantly appealing to the child. Practically all children like to look at pictures, and if the examiner begins by asking the child to look at the pictures used in the test the child is at once placed at ease and will respond to the questions in a natural manner. It is essential that the examiner gain the confidence of the child. The questions must answer himself that the child is entirely at ease if successful results are to be obtained. The child should look upon the examination not as an examination, but as a game which he takes pleasure in playing. The Binet and Simon tests are arranged to determine the mental status of children from three to fifteen years of age. If a child responds successfully to the tests arranged for his age he is probably normal so far as his intellectual development is concerned. But if he can succeed only in the tests arranged for younger children, it is backward. For example, a child of ten who could not succeed in the tests for his age, but who could successfully answer the questions in the tests arranged for a child of seven, would be three years backward in mental development. Children who are three or more years backward are looked upon as being mentally defective.

Bitch has found that all children are not developed evenly. So he has determined, in estimating his results that a child has the mental development of the highest age for which it has successfully passed all the tests. Bitch has also established that when the child's intellectual level has been obtained, it is to be advanced a year for every five higher tests in which it has succeeded and in two years for every ten tests successfully withstood.

A child of three should be able to comprehend spoken words and to answer simple questions by a gesture. Ask a child of three: Where are your eyes and it should immediately point to them. A child of three should be able to repeat sentences of six syllables, but not ten. Figures, being more difficult than words because they do not convey any meaning to a child of three, are limited in the test to two, such as 64. When shown the pictures which Binet uses in his tests a child of three will recognize the objects; it is not possible for him to describe any of the action in the pictures.

At four years a child should know whether it is a boy or a girl; but at three it would not be able to make the distinction. At four a child should be able to repeat three figures, be able to tell which is the longer of two parallel lines and be able to name familiar objects when they are depicted.

Between the ages of five years of age is the comparison of weights. A five-year-old child is able to tell

which is the heavier of two blocks equal in size and appearance, but differing in weight. At five all children succeed in counting four. At three no child can count four, and at four only about fifty per cent of the children tested have been able to do so.

At six years a child should distinguish between morning and afternoon, should be able to define known objects and execute three simultaneous commissions. At six Binet believes that a child's esthetic perception is sufficiently developed for it to differentiate between beauty and ugliness. For this test Binet employs a picture of six heads of women in three pairs, one of which is pretty and the other ugly or actually deformed. At seven a child should be able to count fifteen pennies; describe the pictures used in the test for three year mentalities, instead of simply enumerating the objects; point out what is lacking in unfinished pictures and name four colors.

By reason of this careful marking of each phase of the development of the human mind between the ages of three and fifteen years the Binet-Simon scale is regarded as an accurate means of measuring intelligence. But with all its advantages, Dr. Bitch has found it desirable to supplement the Binet-Simon with the Ziehen and Yerkes-Bridges methods, together with other psychological and psychiatric procedures, in examining and classifying the atypical children admitted to the Speyer school class.

As an aid to classification Dr. Bitch has compiled the following tentative table setting forth the causes of abnormal mentality:

1. *Procreancy* (A) congenital, (B) due to training
2. *Retardation*, caused by (A) defective teeth, (B) errors of refraction, (C) adenoids and tonsils, (D) unfavorable environment, (E) malnutrition, (F) irregular school attendance (truancy, wanderlust, disease, etc.), (G) epilepsy, (H) syphilis, (I) tuberculosis, (J) sense deprivation, (K) gross physical handicaps, (L) speech defects, (M) nervous and psychopathic personalities, (N) chorea and habit spasms, (O) rickets, (P) adolescence, etc.

3. *Arrested Development* (Resulting in Amentia), caused by (A) trauma, (B) meningitis, scarlet fever, diphtheria, etc., (C) epilepsy, (D) syphilis, (E) neurologic condition, (F) adolescence
4. *Amentia*, Idiopathic Cases (A) idiocy, (B) imbecility, (C) moroseness (Congenital)

- Special Types, (A) hydrocephalus, (B) microcephalus, (C) cretinism, (D) mongolism (E) Little's disease, (F) anasarctic family idiocy, etc.
5. *Moral Deviation* accompanied by (A) apparently normal intellectuality, (B) retardation, (C) arrested development, (D) congenital amentia, (E) adolescence, (F) insanity

6. *Insanity*, (A) dementia praecox, (B) mania-depressive psychosis, etc., (C) episodes in constitutional inferiority, (D) following epilepsy, (E) simple dementia

Each pupil in the class is the subject of careful individual study and observation, and his progress is recorded from day to day and filed with the record of his physical, mental, physical and family up to the day he was admitted to the class. The progress of some of the children has been more marked than others, but all have shown a decided improvement. The children are learning self government and self care, which raises them from a state of complete dependence to that of independent usefulness to a degree which would have been impossible fifty years ago.

The importance of this branch of education will become apparent when it is considered that out of the 20,000,000 school children in the United States it is estimated that 75 per cent are defective. Many of the defects from which these children suffer are minor and will yield readily to treatment. But if they are neglected the result is that the mental development of the child is inevitably retarded. A slight physical defect which can be readily eliminated by simple surgery or medical treatment will be the cause of a certain amount of strain which is bound to react on the nervous organism of the child and produce restlessness and a lack of the power of concentration. Brainy nervous children may be brought to a normal condition through hygiene, medication, psycho-analysis or hypnosis. The tendency to extreme nervousness, if not eradicated during childhood, frequently develops into a serious mental disorder in later life. There is nothing a community can so ill afford as human waste. If the experiment in the education of defective children at the Speyer School points the way to the conservation of human beings who ordinarily would be a dead weight on society it will be of inestimable benefit to the country.

Disinfecting Railway Cars

SEVERAL years ago experiments were made in Russia in disinfecting railway cars by the use of steam and formalin, the results of which have only recently been reported. To start with the temperature inside the car is raised to 85 deg. Cent. by the admission of steam, which takes from fifteen to twenty minutes,

according to the size and style of car, and the formalin is sprayed by pressure generated by an oil motor. A mixture of formalin and ammonia was also tried. The results as regards the destruction of germs of plague, typhoid, tuberculosis, etc. were fairly satisfactory, but it was found rather difficult to get a uniform temperature, and the vapors injured some of the patients used in the cars.

Selenium in the Production of Colored Glass

By Samuel Wein

SELENIUM, produced to the extent of about 11,000 pounds annually, has a very limited practical use which is mostly confined to the manufacture of red glass and red enameled ware. Ever since the patent granted to F. Weiz (Ber. 25, page 819) on the process of coloring glass by means of selenium, very little has been published. It is for this reason that this paper has been written giving the actual formulae now in use by the various glass companies both in the United States and abroad.

A great advantage in the use of selenium lies, first in the fact that it is not necessary to reheat the glass after it has been made (which, by the way, is the usual process), and second, in the fact that its cost is much less than that of gold chloride or other chemicals used.

Weiz used selenium or a compound of selenium and cadmium sulphide for the production of rose, red, and orange colored glass (*Chem. Min. Journal*, December 1897, page 731, and *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT*, January 1st, 1909, page 18345), on investigation it was found that Weiz's formula was not satisfactory. The formula was soon corrected, and is made as follows:

Sand	100 kilograms
Soda	20 kilograms
Potash	5 kilograms
Lime	7 kilograms
Burns	0.5 kilograms
Crucite	1.5 kilograms
Selenium	200 grammes
Cadmium sulphide	700 grammes
Sulphur	230 grammes

The result of the above batch is a beautiful coral red corresponding to Kaiser red glass.

Similarly, for a transparent yellow-red glass:

Sand	100 kilograms
Soda	12 kilograms
Potash	10 kilograms
Mildum	20 kilograms
Limestone	10 kilograms
Selenium	200-300 grammes
Trisulfur oxide	60 grammes

The writer would suggest the use of selenites or selenates, as these salts are more suitable than metallic selenium, since they are more stable in the heat of the furnace, and are, in consequence, less likely to become lost through volatilization and oxidation.

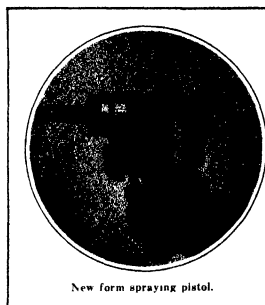
Glass decolorized by means of selenium possesses an unusual clearness and brilliancy. The use of selenium as a decolorizing agent (sodium selenate is generally used) is claimed in German patents, Nos. 45,558, 75,065, and 88,015. Selenium manganese is now being marketed in the United States as a glass decolorizer.

Back Numbers of the Scientific American Supplement

WE beg to advise our readers that we have discontinued selling numbers of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT* dated earlier than January 1, 1914. We removed the first week in April to the Woolworth Building, New York City, and the change in our office precluded the carrying of issues of the *SUPPLEMENT* as extending over a period of nearly forty years. It was, therefore, necessary to turn over this portion of the business to someone who has space for carrying so large a stock. The H. W. Wilson Company of 30 Manureck Avenue, White Plains, N. Y., have been chosen to take care of our back number business. They have the complete stock and are ready to supply any of the back numbers at the standard price of 10 cents. We, therefore, request that, in future, all orders for *SUPPLEMENT* be sent direct to the H. W. Wilson Company instead of Mun & Co. Please do not order *SUPPLEMENT* on letters ordering subscriptions for the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* or the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT* or books, or containing any other matters.

To Old Readers of the Scientific American

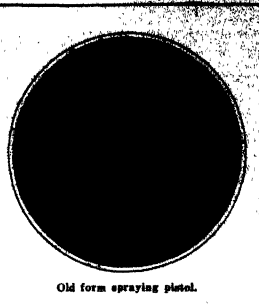
THE June number of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* will commemorate the seventieth anniversary of the house of Mun & Co. In that number we wish to give a history of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*. Old readers and subscribers who visited the editorial offices in the past are requested to send us their impressions, anecdotes, experiences, and the like. Indeed, any information at all relating to the old office on Park Row will be gratefully received by the Editors.



New form spraying pistol.

Development and Perfection of Schoop Metal Spray

The Improved American "Pistol"



Old form spraying pistol.

At a manufacturing establishment in New England there is now to be seen the operation of the spraying of metal a process even so new that the precise nature of the action is not yet understood, nor has there been stated as yet other than the most out-line of its practical possibilities. The apparatus is a development of forms already described in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, and save these articles but little else has been published as yet in English.

The apparatus is an atomizer, but instead of a spray of perfume or of disinfectant drawn from a reservoir of the liquid, the reservoir here is a solid wire and the spray a shower of metal particles, which will form a coating of the metal upon any object placed a few inches from the nozzle of the atomizer. The process is the invention of M. I. Schoop, a Swiss engineer, the fundamental patents are not yet two years old, and there has been steady improvement of the apparatus in the laboratories of the inventor and in this country till it has reached the practical stage that is here to be described.

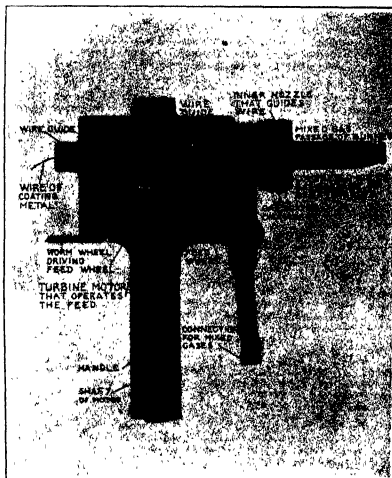
"Pistol" is a very apt name for the atomizing device. It has a grip and a muzzle, but the magazine portion is rather large relatively. The pistol is a mechanism that straightens the metal wire, feeds it a speed which may be regulated at will, concentrates upon the wire the gases that are to melt and the spray that is to atomize it, and the whole device, by means of the grip, may be directed to any portion of the object to be treated.

In its passage through the pistol the wire is physically unaltered, but on its emergence from the inner tube of the barrel the transformation takes place. It becomes a stream of metallic particles carried by a current of air or gas, just as the liquid in the atomizer becomes a similar stream of liquid drops. Interesting and curious as this transformation proves to be, it is less astonishing than the results, for just as one finds the liquid fixative in a film on the drawing, so one finds a coating of metal on the surface subjected to the Schoop metal stream. This is smooth and compacted, and if there is opportunity for it so to affix itself, its particles will be driven into the minute crevices of the object treated, permanently there to remain and cling.

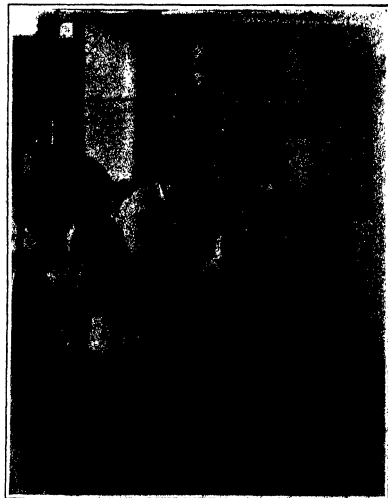
Metals and alloys alike are subject to the same strange technique. Lead, tin, zinc, aluminum, copper, brass, bronze, and German silver have been tested on quantitatively, while gold and silver though amenable to the process, have not yet furnished their full data. The film that is deposited by the spray may be from 0.001 inch upward, and is firm and continuous.

Some of the accompanying phenomena are likewise of interest. While the temperature at the apex of the cone of spray may be from 700 deg. Fahr. to 2,000 deg. Fahr., at the distance of only four or five inches, delicate materials that are combustible may be coated with the metal but will not be burned. Matches held in the spray are metallized but not ignited, tissue paper can be surfaced with metal, while brass lensing at 1,550 deg. Fahr. has been deposited on silk without injuring its texture.

It is the barrel of the pistol that is responsible for the strange results, for as has been



Section of metal spraying pistol, showing mechanism.



Operating the metal spraying pistol.

said, the internal mechanism is devoted to straightening the wire and regulating its delivery. There are really three concentric barrels and the innermost is that through which the wire issues. The second tube conducts to the place selected for the melting point a jet of mixed gases under pressure, in fact a blow-pipe; while the outer annulus delivers compressed gas which furnishes the velocity necessary for the spray. The blow-pipe mixture may be coal gas, water gas, acetylene, hydrogen, etc., with air or oxygen for its stimulation, while the spraying jet may be carbon dioxide, nitrogen, air, steam, etc. The temperatures, pressures, and mixtures are factors to the technique for different metals, so that accurate gauges, reducing valves and the like are portions of the apparatus. Likewise the pressure and velocity of the air jet must be variable to suit the conditions required by the different metals.

There must be, moreover, the chance for adjustments in the barrels to accord with the diameters at which the wire is used, and relative changes are necessary in the gas and air jets. Then there must be the possibility of regulating the feed-speed of the wire, which is moved forward by a motor driven by compressed air.

So far as anyone yet can definitely analyze it, the operation is this: The blow-pipe performs its duty of melting the wire. The spraying jet has two offices: by its expansion and consequent appetite for heat it keeps the muzzle of the pistol cool; and by its velocity, which may be up to 3,000 feet a second, it entrains a stream of metal. This is in minute particles, either in the plastic state or molten. Some may perhaps be viscous, surrounded by a protective, reducing atmosphere. This is the cone that is moving with great velocity toward the object treated.

There is this anomaly, that within four or five inches of the point of origin of the melted metal, with the consequent high temperature, delicate lace and paper, and even matches, may be placed without burning them and the hand may be held there for a moment. This is plainly a phenomenon different from that when the foundry man passes his finger through the jet of molten iron running from the furnace. In the latter case it is believed that the moisture of the skin saves it from harm, but such an explanation does not serve with the sprayed metal.

The suggestions here are that the spraying medium is enormously greater in volume than the infinitely small particles that it is carrying. It is, moreover, still expanding and selling heat, so that, relative to the particles, the cone is cool. But, while the cone must deprive the particles of some of their heat, it seems certain from the results that they do not impact upon the object treated in the form of droplets, for if they did, they ought to rebound. For the present, the only explanation to give is that there appears to be an abnormal physical condition, and that on account of the heat of the collision the particles pass into a vapor which at once condenses on the relatively cold receiving body. There is formed on this a solid homogeneous mass or film, homogeneous of the succeeding particles, which are then

(Continued on page 383.)

Measuring One Twenty-Millionth of an Inch

The Finest and Most Sensitive Measuring Instrument Known to Modern Science

By Ernst Keil

THE inventions originated in the physical laboratories of educational institutions have contributed an immense part to the wealth of the world. The physicist relies upon the science of exact measurements to interpret the answers he receives to questions put to nature, and all the researches undertaken in physical laboratories have been made by performing measurements alone. There is not one, no matter how complicated, that in its final analysis could not be reduced to the three fundamental quantities of either time, mass, or length.

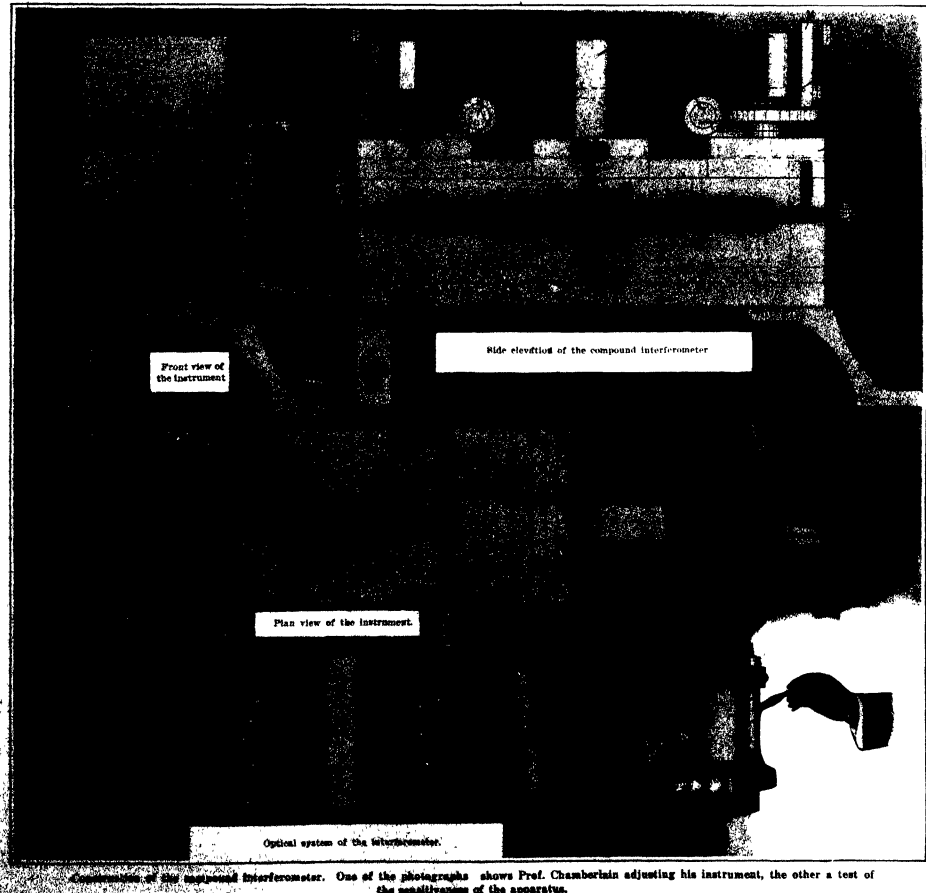
To carry out these measurements then necessitates the use of instruments with which to perform such measurements. In the early days of the laboratory the instruments were crude, but it did not take long to explore entirely the field within the range of those crude instruments and as necessity is the mother of invention, we find that as the need for better instruments was felt, skilled and ingenious men produced them.

The exact measurement of time has for ages received the close attention of the most skilled workers; the accurate determination of mass or weight has kept the physicist and the skilled instrument maker hard at work for many years, but the most difficult problem the physicist and astronomer had to face was the ac-

curate determination of length or distance, whether that be along a straight line, the subdivision of a circle or the expression of an angle. To perform the most delicate and very finest measurements in determination of length, the physicist had for many years only one instrument at hand: the compound microscope. It has played a very important part in scientific investigations, and had it not been for it many of the discoveries, the results of which we use so freely in our life to-day, would not have been possible, and yet, many problems lay beyond its range. The limitations of the microscope are adjusted by the fact that we employ light when measuring with this instrument and the waves of light are just so fine. It can be proved mathematically as well as demonstrated in a popular way that, when objects are smaller than one half wave-length of light, the microscope is absolutely unable to serve us. If we employ sunlit objects smaller than $1/80,000$ of an inch they cannot be studied with it, and two objects which are closer together than $1/80,000$ of an inch appear in the compound microscope as one.

The fact that the length of light waves limited the magnifying power of the compound microscope made it again an absolute necessity for the physicist to go to work and devise an instrument that could overcome

this lack of power, if physical investigation was not to stop in this direction. In due time two physicists in Cleveland, Ohio, Profs. Michelson and Morley introduced a new and most useful instrument, and they named it "interferometer." This new instrument consisted principally of a system of optical mirrors arranged in such a way as to let the waves of light of a suitable source pass between and through them, the waves in the course of their travel being divided and reflected a certain number of times, thus making it possible to measure objects 10 times smaller than the best compound microscope would allow us to do. This form of interferometer opened up a vast field of research investigations, and it has been used with excellent results in many physical and astronomical investigations. Unfortunately even this instrument has its limits of usefulness and there are scores of important problems awaiting investigation which lie beyond its range. It was Prof. C. W. Chamberlain, head of the physics department of Denison University and now president of this institution, who invented the compound interferometer, the instrument that enabled the scientists at one stroke to measure a distance as small as $1/20,000,000$ of an inch. This instrument will in all probability be the most delicate measuring instrument



Construction of the compound interferometer. One of the photographs shows Prof. Chamberlain adjusting his instrument, the other a test of the sensitiveness of the apparatus.

of the kind for many years to come. It is next to impossible for a human mind to realize the smallness of the distance measurable with this marvel of an instrument. It is an instrument 40 times as powerful as the Michelson-Morley interferometer, or 400 times as powerful as the most perfect compound microscope. We can probably form a better picture if we use some comparisons:

This 1/20,000,000 of an inch is the apparent size of the head of an ordinary pin, viewed at a distance of 227 miles; or the size of a silver dollar, viewed at a distance of 9,000 miles; or the size of a human face, viewed at a distance equal to twice the circumference of our mother earth.

Details of construction may be seen in the accompanying line-drawings. Fig. 1 shows a front view, Fig. 2 a side view, and Fig. 3 a top view of the compound interferometer. The bedplate *B* rests on three legs, *L*, *L'*, *L''*, two of the latter are provided with fine-motion leveling screws *b*. The bedplate *B* carries on its top two suitably shaped ways the three carriages *C*, *C'*, *C''*, and the latter carry the optical system of the instrument. The mirror holder *mh* is mounted on the upright *u* by means of the two steel posts *ap*, the latter serving as springs to be operated by the micrometer adjusting screw *as*, the holder *mh* and the upright *u* are fastened to the worm-wheel *aw* and this in turn finally to the carriage. The worm wheel *aw* is provided with a worm *w* to move the mirror about its horizontal plane, the micrometer adjusting screw *as* with the two steel posts acting as springs, allows the mirror to be moved a small fraction in the vertical plane, these movements are necessary, as we soon shall see, for the adjustment of the instrument. The middle carriage *C''* carries on top nothing but the fixed mirror holder *mh'*. Inside of the *L* shaped bedplate *B* is a fine micrometer screw *MS* with nut *N* geared to transmit a linear motion to either one of the three carriages *C*, *C'*, *C''*. The head-end of the micrometer screw *MS* is provided with a worm-wheel *WW* which is operated by the worm *W* fastened to the bedplate *B*.

The accuracy of the compound interferometer depends mainly on two things:

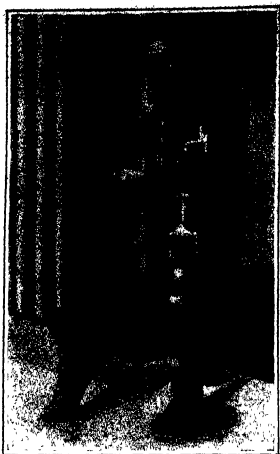
1. The parallelism and flatness of the optical mirrors.
2. The parallelism and flatness of the ways on which the three carriages, *C*, *C'*, *C''*, move along.

To make the mirrors necessary for this instrument is an art by itself. Mr. O. L. Pettiford of Chicago made them for Prof. Chamberlain's instrument, and did it with such precision that the mirrors used were at no place more than 1/1,000,000 of an inch out of true.

The ways the carriages travel on have to be flat, as well as parallel, to a very high degree of accuracy, the ways on the first instrument built were so accurate that, if they had been enlarged to a length of two miles, the parallelism would at the end of the two miles have varied not more than 3/4 of an inch.

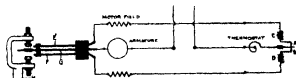
The optical system of the instrument shown in the diagram, Fig. 4, consists of four glasses. *M* and *M'* are the two end glasses fastened in the mirror holders *mh*. The surface of these two glasses toward the middle glass *2M* is covered with a very thin film of silver, making of them total reflecting mirrors. These two glasses have to be flat to the very highest possible degree of accuracy. The middle glass *2M* consists of two glasses of exactly the same dimensions cemented together with Canada balsam. About two thirds of the length of *2M*, 1 to 2 and 1' to 2', on the sides toward *M* and *M'*, is another fine silver film to act as a total reflecting mirror and between the two glasses from *a* to *a'* is placed a silver film of such a thickness as to split a ray of light that strikes its surface in two, letting one half of the light through and reflecting the other half, this part of the mirror is called the dividing plate. These two glasses have to be flat as well as parallel to the very highest possible degree of accuracy.

To adjust the instrument we proceed as follows. First we level our instrument by means of the leveling screws *b*, after this we adjust the two end mirrors *M* and *M'* perpendicular to the fixed mirror *2M* by means of the micrometer adjusting screws *as*, then we make the distance between *2M* and *M* and *2M* and *M'* as nearly alike as possible, using the worm *W* and worm-wheel *WW* for this purpose. Now we set *M* at a small angle to *2M* and *M'* at nearly the same angle, using for this movement worm and worm-wheel *u*, *u'*, respectively. The source of light, say a sodium flame, is placed at *S* (see Fig. 4). A ray of light from the source *S* enters the instrument, striking the dividing plate at *a*, and being split in two equal fractions, one half of the ray passes through the dividing plate and is reflected a certain number of times between the total reflecting mirrors *2M* and *M'* until it comes to a place where it strikes *M'* perpendicularly, then the ray of light travels back over exactly the same path to *a*, *a'*. The same thing of course, happens to the other half of the ray, which is reflected from *a*, *a'* and thrown toward *M*. At *a*, *a'* the returning rays are split once more, one half going back to the source of light, the other one leaving the instrument in the direction toward *T*. At *T* a tele-



Automatic electric apparatus for operating a radiator valve.

scope is placed, through which we observe the occurrence in the instrument, and what we see is a set of yellow and black fringes—interference fringes. If the instrument happens to be adjusted to its lowest power, the distance between two fringes represents one half wave-length of light, that is, the same sensitive as the most perfect compound microscope possible; but by changing the angle of *M* and *M'* in relation to



Electrical connections of the radiator controller.

2M, that is making this angle very small and thus forcing the light to pass obliquely between *2M* and *M* and *2M* and *M'* before it strikes *M* or *M'* perpendicularly and returns over the same path (in other words, by increasing the length of the path of light by changing the angle between *2M* and *M* and *2M* and *M'*) we are able to increase the sensitiveness of the instrument forty times higher than the Michelson-Morley interferometer



Electro-thermostatic control as arranged for demonstration purposes.

or four hundred times higher than the most perfect compound microscope.

One of the photographs shows an arrangement to illustrate the enormous sensitiveness of the instrument; the massive steel plate with which the pressure on one side is forged out of one solid block of steel and weighs about 150 pounds. This 150-lb. steel plate is capable of transmitting 200 horse-power. We are all familiar with the rigidity of steel, yet this instrument readily shows the bending of this heavy steel plate when touched with the finger as lightly as possible. We can see what is an apparently great movement of the steel plate when it is definitely connected with a camera's half break, as shown in the picture. One will even observe a distinct movement when the breath is slightly blown against it, and when a match is dropped on this 150-pound steel plate it causes the steel plate to flutter like a feather in a stiff breeze, and yet this instrument was adjusted to only one tenth of its real sensibility when these demonstrations were made.

No fewer than five different forms of compound interferometers have been designed by Prof. Chamberlain and all of these instruments were constructed in the instrument shop of the Barney Physical Laboratory at Denison University, Granville, Ohio. One of these instruments was taken abroad and demonstrated before a committee of distinguished scientists by the writer; it created there an astonishing sensation, as it did wherever it was shown. By request of the Ohio Commission a complete set of these instruments was exhibited at the Jamestown Exhibition and received the highest medal awarded to an exhibition of scientific instruments. At a meeting of the American Physical Society held in New York city, Prof. Chamberlain presented his compound interferometer with full demonstrations, thereby placing the benefits of his labor at the service of all scientific investigators.

Electro-thermostatic Control of Radiators

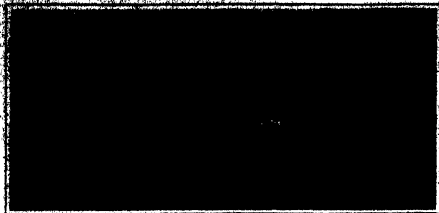
SOME time ago the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN described an electrical starter for automobiles, using a very small motor. The motor itself was so powerful enough to turn over the engine directly, but by speeding it up sufficient energy was stored up in a flywheel to accomplish the task. Again last year the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN described an electric brake in which the same principle was employed. Now a third application of this principle of stored energy has been brought out in connection with a thermostatic control of radiators.

There are systems now in use for operating the valves of a radiator by means of compressed air under control of thermostats. The majority of them, however, labor under the disadvantage that they involve the installation of an elaborate system of air-compressing machinery and compressed air piping which cannot be installed without considerable expense, except during the construction of a building. The idea of controlling the valve by electricity, which would simplify the installation, has not met with much favor hitherto, because it has always been supposed that a very large motor would be required to open a valve that was tightly jammed or to close it steam tight. But by the use of energy stored in a rapidly rotating flywheel, the motor may be operated with a very small motor, as has been proved by Mr. E. V. Hartford, inventor of the apparatus shown in the accompanying illustrations.

One of the photographs shows a demonstration device partly dismantled so as to disclose the details. The clock shown in the photograph is used to switch on an electric light, every so often, the heat of which actuates the thermostat and thereby causes the valve to be closed and opened. The motor used is of only 1/100 horse-power and is operated by the common 110-volt lighting circuit. This current is switched on and off directly by the thermostat without a relay, and to prevent excessive sparking a trip is used to make an absolute and effective contact at each throw of the thermostat. As will be observed in the illustrations, at each side of the thermostat arm there is an electromagnet, while a small disk of soft iron on the arm serves as an armature. Thus, when the arm is deflected to one side or the other, by variations in temperature, it plays between two contact points *A* and *B*. But the instant it touches one of these contact points (say *A*), the electric magnet on that side (*C*) is energized, attracting the arm and making a solid contact, admitting current to the motor. As shown in the diagram, the field of the motor is split, one half being connected with *A* and the other half with *B*, so that its direction of rotation may be reversed by changing from one contact point to the other. As soon as current is supplied to the motor, it runs up to a very high speed, and by means of a spring like system in the ratio of 300 to 1, it turns the radiator valve, either opening it if fed through contact *B*, or closing it if fed through contact *A*.

In order that the motor may run up to full speed, it must start with no load. Consequently it is not directly coupled to the stem of the valve. Instead, its operating shaft terminates in a fork adapted to engage the valve stem.

(Continued on page 385.)



A scene in Tangiers staged in California.



The vehicle repair shop.

The Strangest City in the World

A Town Given Over to the Moving Picture

THERE is a wonderful city out in the heart of the San Fernando Valley, in the State of California, which is probably the most unique city in the world. Its name is Universal City, and it is the only municipality in the universe devoted to the manufacture of moving-picture films. It was officially opened on March 18th, and its population of 1,500 people are all employed in the art of making pictures. It is the make-believe city of the twentieth century, and one never knows, as he strolls about the streets of this city, whether what he sees is real or just "reel" views.

A stroll through Universal City is like going through the pages of a wonder book; a fairy tale for children. It is nothing more or less than a chameleon city, for the entire complexion and appearance of Universal City can be changed in three days to conform to any nationality, style of architecture, color scheme, or state of preservation which occasion requires. Troy, Athens, Rome, Paris, London, and New York are all distinguished and characteristic cities, but Universal City combines everything which can be found in any of these cities, and could represent all of them inside of a week, that is, for motion-picture purposes, for there is not a building in the entire history of the city which could not be changed over night into something radically different and changed back again with equal facility.

There is no utility shop put up for the use of workmen even which could not be turned into a barracks for the quartering of soldiers, a hotel for the entertainment of thieves and desperados, or a ranch house for use in some western drama. The administration building itself is built with a different face on every quarter, and one of the shocks to which unseeing visitors at the city are likely to be subjected is the return through it from a different direction, and the realization that from that quarter every building presents a different aspect from that first seen. It is this ability to change its color at the slightest wish which makes this city the most remarkable which has ever been constructed.

As to when Universal City will be finished it is a very difficult matter to say. It has already been two years under construction, but there is no end to the possible improvements. It already has its own mayor, police, fire, street cleaning and educational departments, and, in fact, everything which can be found in the average modern city. All of the streets had to be scientifically paved and piped for gas, electricity and sewer mains. The main boulevard of the city is six miles long, and this will give an idea of the amount of work the Street Department alone has to do. The roadways of the city are peculiar in that they are of different widths and styles of top dressing, so that there will be as great a variety in this respect to choose from for scenic purposes.

The Zoo is housed in especially constructed buildings and cages, and is now the largest and finest privately owned menagerie in the world. There are African lions, leopards, tigers, wolves from the Siberian steppes, jackals, wild dogs, chimpanzees, howl, couples of all Samoyeds, from the mighty python to the forest cobra, alligators, crocodiles, and the Andromeda, a herd of elephants, nine

different kinds of plumage birds and many others, like the American eagle and the vulture, a complete dog kennel of prize-winning thoroughbreds, all kinds of domestic animals, and a large herd of wide-horned cattle, bison, buffalo and cowpokes, wild horses and gophers. These buildings have been completed and the animals have taken part in many big jungle pictures which have been seen by the public. The administration building,

Indian village, which is the largest in America and is inhabited by a tribe of redmen who are permitted to pursue their lives as they please for they are not encouraged to adopt modern customs or costumes.

There are two restaurants as capacious and as well served as any in the city of Los Angeles, which is eight miles north of Universal City. These are for the convenience of actors who have no habitation in the city

itself. The wonderful revolving stage is one of the most up-to-date features of this city, and includes many innovations and a rocking stage made especially for children's productions.

The wardrobe department contains costumes of every conceivable sort and in addition to this are the costume shops, which can turn out the designs which are required by every period of dress, from the era of palm leaf girdles to the present time.

The five hundred dressing rooms are fireproof and are equipped with hot and cold running water, electric and gas lights, and steam heat. There are also bath rooms and swimming pools for both men and women.

There are two hospitals and infirmaries thoroughly equipped with every modern instrument for surgical and pathological remedy, and these are under the direction of two physicians, assisted by a corps of trained nurses.

Several corrals contain, among other animals, sixteen English thoroughbred saddle horses, four white Arabian steeds and one hundred and thirty-six head of Western horses, four longhorned steers,

twelve burros and twelve military mules, and twelve Shetland ponies. The carriage house is equipped with some forty vehicles, ranging from the chariot of Homer's time to an up-to-date phaeton of modern times, while the garage next door contains thirty cars of every description and the machinery for equipping and repairing. The blacksmith and harness shops are all under the supervision of experts and are thoroughly equipped for the purpose intended.

For the outdoor enjoyment of the Universallites, there is a quarter-mile race track, with concrete grand stand and stadium in the most approved university style. In this arena can be staged any kind of play calling for outdoor sports, and it is open at all times to the athletically inclined who wish to keep in trim for their arduous duties in the films. Like all other buildings in the city, this arena can be changed on short notice to represent a number of different settings. One day it may be necessary to use it for the Colosseum at Rome and another for a country fair. It can be used for an Indian durbur or a golf club.

Horse-power of a Rainfall

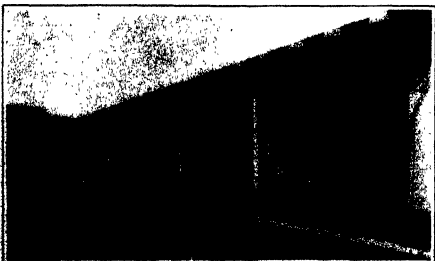
FEW people realize the energy in a fall of rain. On the evening of October 9th, 1914, there fell at Kansas City, Mo., in two hours 1.70 inches of rain. Assuming that this rain covered an area 4 miles square, or 16 square miles, and that it fell from an altitude of 6,000 feet, the energy represented was about 6,200,000 horse-power hours. Were this converted into electrical energy without the usual losses it would amount to nearly 4,700,000 kilowatt-hours. At 10 cents per kilowatt hour, this energy would cost \$470,000.



An oriental street scene staged at the "Movie" city.

which houses the reception hall, meeting room, book-keeping department, cashier's department, a suite of eight rooms for the scenario department, the library, stenographer, telephone exchange, telegraph office, auditor's and general manager's office, cost \$300,000. Its facades are all different, representing different interiors and different styles of architecture. The laboratory has the same peculiarity of exterior appearance. There is also an exhibition theater, which takes on either the appearance of a city or a country theater at the behest of the director. There are barracks for housing the troops of expert cameramen and bank houses for the cowboys. All of these are modern and sanitary, and can be used for many other things from the moving-picture standpoint.

One of the most picturesque spots in the city is the



Animal cages at Universal City.

A Machine that Takes Off Fat

A MACHINE that will do one's exercising for him without exertion on his part has been tried out at a Chicago hospital. Its primary purpose is to remove weight, without requiring exercise or dieting, and repeated experiments have demonstrated its success.

About all the patient has to do is to remove his—or rather her, since most of the patients are women—outer garments and put on something closely resembling the old-fashioned mother Hubbard. Then she is strapped into the apparatus. An operator touches a switch, an electric motor starts buzzing and the machine does the rest.

The machine has a platform which can be raised or lowered to any altitude desired. About half way up it has two large belts of wooden rollers, each roller being two feet long and about two inches from its neighbor. The patient stands on the platform, which is raised or lowered so that the rollers will follow him about the hips, stomach or shoulders as desired. An ingenious crankshaft arrangement makes it possible for the rollers to be adjusted closely around the circumference of the body.

When the machine is adjusted about the patient he is held immovably in it. His arms rest upon small platforms provided for that purpose. The motor causes the belt of rollers on each side to turn, so that they will massage the body within a regular motion. The amount of pressure or speed can be adjusted according to the needs of each particular case.

It is claimed that the rollers massage the body in such a manner as to break up fat particles. At the same time the blood circulation is increased to an abnormal degree. The fat particles are dislodged, carried off by the blood and later eliminated by natural processes. Enough pressure can be obtained to give the body a rosy glow all over, clear to the finger nails, without, however, inducing perspiration or having an deleterious effect. In other words, all the physical effects of vigorous exercise can be obtained without requiring direct exertion.

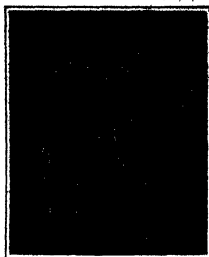
The athletic department of Chicago University was the first to try it out. It was used there for the cure of "charley horse," a condition arising from bruised muscles among athletes, and its curative powers were so great that the coaches enthusiastically endorsed it. Coach Stagg of Chicago is quoted as saying his men have had no permanent "charley horses" since the machine was installed.

Were the "Eoliths" Made by Man?

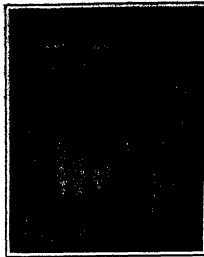
IN the course of his lecture, at a recent meeting of the Royal Anthropological Society, Mr. Charles Dawson, fellow of the Geological and Antiquaries Society of London, exhibited many paleolithic flint implements of the early Pleistocene period, including a large fossil elephant bone sharpened to a point like a stake. This was found near the Piltdown skull.

There were also found in the gravel numerous "eoliths," that is, what some anthropologists think were the earliest form of implements used by man. (Eos dawn — Lithos a stone. *Dawn stones or implements*.) There were supposed by some to carry the advent of the human race far back into the mists of geological ages; as to which proposition there has been much dispute.

Mr. Dawson and Dr. Smith Woodward would only admit the Piltdown skull to a modest early Pleistocene period (say 200,000 years), while

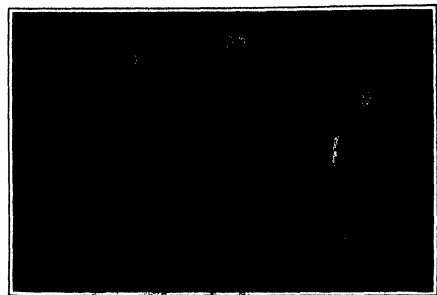


Patient entering the machine



Adjusting the rollers to the body

A machine that takes off fat.

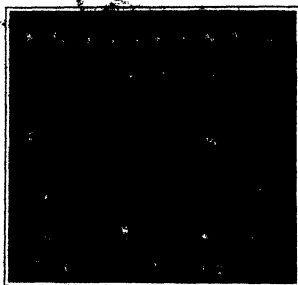


Copyright by Douglas

Special form of stretcher used in trenches.

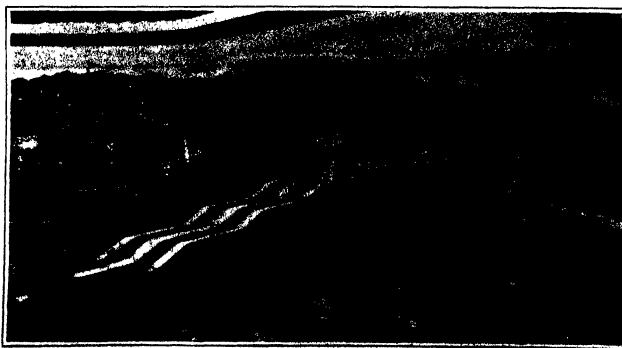


Mistral prima



Mistral "eolitha."

Evidence that implements of the stone age may be natural formations.



Enormous model of the Panama Canal exhibited at the Panama-Pacific Exposition.

Keith, Harrison, Mr. Ray Robinson, and Mr. Mott wanted to place near the entrance of the museum a pile of pebbles, which they called "eoliths," as the work of man at all. He said these "eoliths" are merely fragments of pebbles flint a little disfigured by rolling in the gravel, and they had found their present form and peculiar position, making them to resemble "bifurcations," "bores," "planes," "rostrum-channels," and so forth.

He pointed out the resemblance of pebbles flint to starch and starch-structures which are also prismatic, and said he had made the surprising discovery that one bag of starch contained a whole series of these eolithic implement-like forms, in miniature. It was a game anyone could play, provided he knows what an eolith is like and possesses a bag of starch.

Indeed it was only necessary after having hunted out one series, to sit on the bag to obtain a whole fresh series of "eoliths."

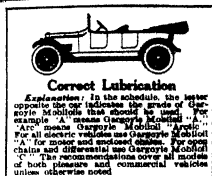
Stretcher for Trench Use

THE great European conflict has become a war of the pick and shovel, so far as operations in the western sphere are concerned; for here we find that both armies have dug themselves in and are fighting from trenches and by means of mines and countermines. This extensive trench fighting has called for a special type of stretcher which will permit of carrying the wounded through the zigzag trenches back to the field hospital. The ordinary stretcher takes too much room. As the wounded man must be carried in an outstretched position, it is difficult to convey him through the many twists and turns of the trench line. If only the wounded man could be carried in an upright position or in nearly upright position, it would be a simple matter to convey him to the rear. To permit of this the type of stretcher shown in the accompanying photograph has been devised. It is really a compromise between a stretcher and a chair, being similar in shape to a steamer chair. With this type of stretcher the wounded man is carried in a reclining position which is almost a sitting posture. The stretcher has been adopted by the French army.

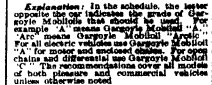
A Five-acre Model of the Panama Canal

THE fact that the Panama-Pacific International Exposition at San Francisco is commemorative of America's significant achievement, makes the reproduction of the famous waterway between the Atlantic and Pacific, as it is found on "The Zone" at the Exposition, one of the most interesting concessions along that big amusement thoroughfare.

Passing up a broad runway the visitor arrives before the longest moving platform in the world, on which seats for thousands are placed. The entrance to the platform is at the Pacific entrance to the canal, and as the spectator takes his seat a pair of disks are placed at the ears and as the journey is begun a phonographic-telescope apparatus begins a clear and impressive lecture of the great concession, which now lies spread before the eye in the minutest detail. Each point of interest throughout the entire canal zone as reproduced at the exposition, is numbered and the phonographic lecture prefaced each description with the number of that time directly in front of the spectator. This arrangement is itself in one of the most achievements of the exposition to make the



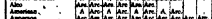
Correct Lubrication



MODEL OF	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915
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Abbott, Donald	A	Acc	A	Acc	A	Acc	Acc	Acc		
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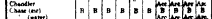
Auklets (4 yr)	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
(8 yr)							Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc



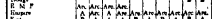
(Model C) : Torque	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc
Basis Condition	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc



Case	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc
Chairman	A	A	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc	A	Arc
	A	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc	Arc	A	A	Arc	Arc

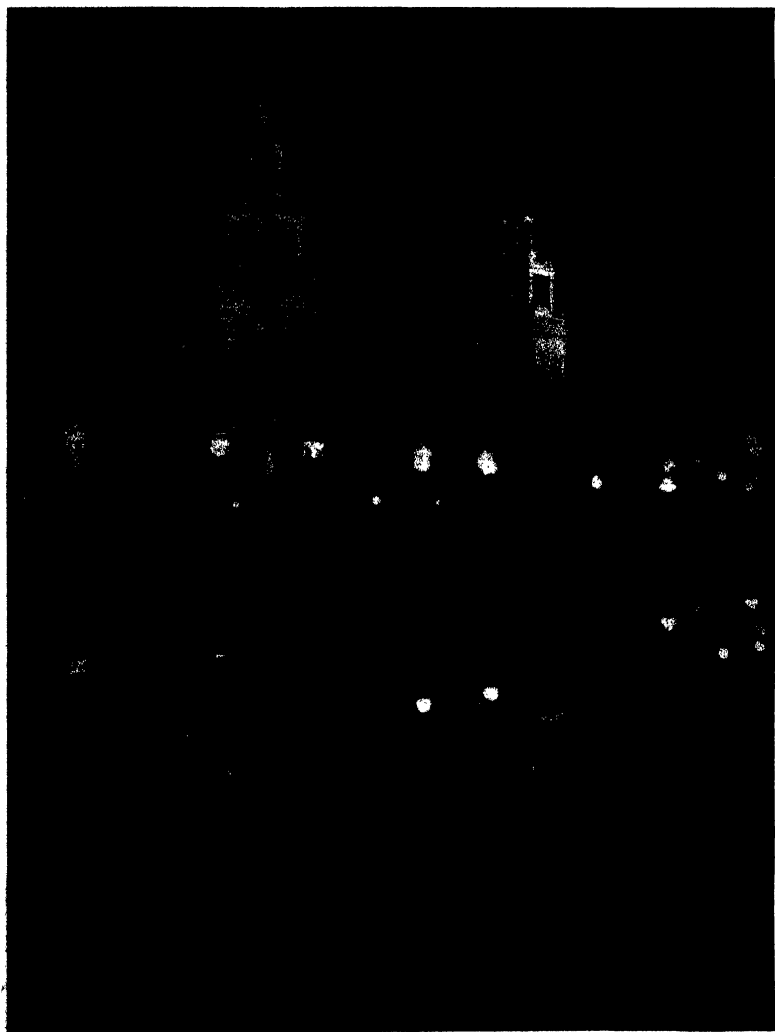
[illegible]

Destructor		A	Are	A	Are	A	A	A	Are
(8 c.)									
Douglas									



Fish		A	A	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Flinders	E	Z	Arc	Arc	-	-	-	-	-	-
(6 cyl)					Arc	Arc				

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



VENETIAN TOWERS AT THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION AT NIGHT. —[See page 378.]

Inner Tubes That Outlast Tires

Goodyear Laminated Tubes

We have built an Inner Tube laminated and extra-thick—which outlasts any tire. Four Tubes outwear five Casings, on the average.

This year we have made them still thicker. To our smaller sizes we have added 12½ per cent. To our larger sizes, 16½ per cent of unadulterated rubber.

Yet, despite this increased weight—averaging 14 per cent—our prices are one-fifth less. On February 1st we reduced them 20 per cent. So these heavy Laminated Tubes now cost about the same as others.

Built Layer on Layer

Goodyear Laminated Tubes are built layer on layer.

Tubes built by machines, of one thick piece of rubber, often have undiscovered flaws. We roll the rubber into sheets so thin that flaws can be seen and discarded. Then those sheets wrapped layer on layer, are vulcanized into a solid rubber tube.

The valve patch—usually stuck on—is made an integral part of our Tube. No loosening here, no leakage.

This extra thickness, this pure rubber material, this layer construction and this leak-proof valve patch, make the Goodyear Laminated the greatest Inner Tube built.

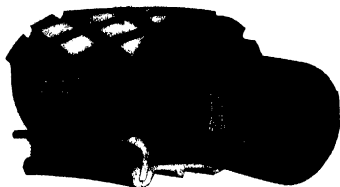
Get This Extra Value

Lesser Tubes cost about the same as these do. In justice to yourself, get this extra value. Then remember that Goodyear Fortified Tires embody the same standards. They, too, excel all others—in five costly, exclusive ways. Any dealer will supply Goodyear Tubes or Tires.

GOOD YEAR
AKRON, OHIO
Laminated Tubes
Extra Heavy Tubes—Uncolored
Built Layer on Layer
By the Makers of Fortified Tires

They Are Gray

Goodyear Tubes are gray, the natural rubber color. Any other color requires mineral adulteration. Minerals absorb heat, the greatest foe of rubber. We cannot color without making short-lived tubes.



This is a section of both Tube and Tire. The Inner Tube is pictured to show the layers which compose it. In vulcanized Tubes these layers, of course, are vulcanized together into one solid rubber Tube.

THE GOODYEAR TIRE & RUBBER COMPANY, AKRON, OHIO

FORD OWNERS

Do you know that—

sooty spark plugs at frequent intervals warn you to investigate your lubricating oil?

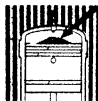


If your oil is either too heavy or too light in body it will accumulate in the combustion chambers. In burning-up it usually fouls the spark plugs with carbon.

Ford owners who use Gargoyles Mobiloil "E" make the best provision against this common cause of faulty ignition. The correct body of Gargoyles Mobiloil "E" prevents its working by the piston rings into the combustion chambers.

Do you know that—

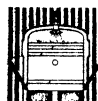
incorrect body in your oil also leads to excessive carbon deposit on the piston heads and valve seats?



It is, of course, impossible to produce a petroleum-oil which will leave no carbon in burning. But the slight carbon of Gargoyles Mobiloil "E" rarely accumulates. It is of a light, non-adhesive character and expels naturally through the exhaust.

Do you know that—

oil of incorrect body fails to maintain a proper oil seal between the piston rings and cylinder walls? Part of the explosion and compression then escapes down past the piston rings. Weakened power results. Gargoyles Mobiloil "E," having the correct body for Ford motors, maintains the proper oil seal around the piston rings.



Do you know that—

while "light" oils are recommended by your Instruction Book there is a great difference between oils classed as "light" both in body and quality?

Many "light bodied" oils have no real place in any automobile motor. They vaporize rapidly in use. The oil then consumes far too quickly for proper protection to the metal surfaces. Maintenance cost mounts up. The noises of loose, worn parts follow.



In widespread daily use, Gargoyles Mobiloil "E" has shown remarkable ability to readily reach and protect all moving parts of the Ford motor and to maintain a proper oil cushion under the heat of service.

Ford owners who use Gargoyles Mobiloil "E" are providing the best of insurance against costly maintenance and motor repair bills.

In buying Gargoyles Mobiloils from your dealer, it is safest to purchase in original packages. Look for the red Gargoyles on the container. For information, kindly address any inquiry to our nearest office.



Mobiloils
A grade for each type of motor

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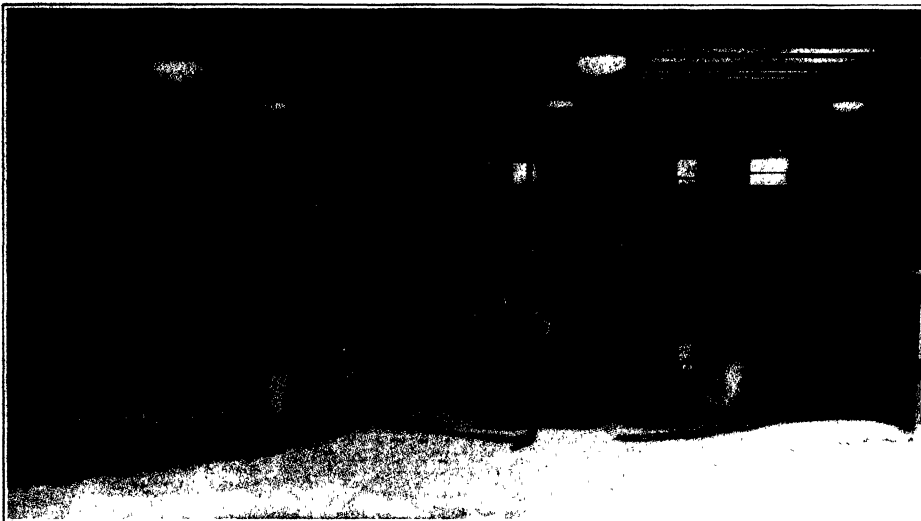
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Piecing together the big map of New York city. Note the felt slippers and sheets used by the draftmen.

New York City's Twenty-five Foot Map

By Charles W. Person

A GREAT map twenty-five feet wide, representing every street, park, harbor, island, lake, county and State line, railroad and steamship pier, and every topographical detail of Greater New York, has just been finished. One look at the new map is enough to convince you that 320.83 square miles is quite an area to represent on paper, especially when that area is one vast network of streets, parks, waterways, islands, and piers. By exact measurement the map is 25 feet wide and 25½ feet long. The scale is 1 inch to 900 feet, which means that close to 1,200 square miles is included. Staten Island extends so far to the southwest that a large piece of New Jersey and many square miles of water have to be included in this map if it is to be put on a rectangular sheet. A reproduction of this map is being made on the scale of 1 inch to 1,000 feet, while another, on the scale of 1 inch to 2,000 feet, will be sent to the San Francisco Exposition. New Yorkers who wouldn't look at it at home may be interested in it out there.

It was three years ago that Nelson P. Lewis, chief engineer of the Board of Estimate, undertook to have a new map of the city made. There were official maps on hand at the time, such as the map prepared by the original Commissioners of New York in 1807, the Brooklyn village maps of 1819 and 1838, and the surveys of Kings County made in 1876, and, of course, there were innumerable maps privately printed. But what Mr. Lewis set out to do was to make a perfect map of the greater city which infringed no copyright. He gathered his material from the Borough Presidents, who have charge of the topographical records of their districts; from the Department of Docks and Ferries, and from the Street Cleaning Department. He obtained assistance from the States of New York and New Jersey and the United States Government. The railroad companies helped him with stations, routes, etc. All this information was assembled under the direction of the chief draftsman.

The first work of the draftsmen was to divide the city into sections and make preliminary maps of each

section. After these had been tested and proven they were transferred to the final map. Here was where accuracy was put to a real test. It was found that the use of a pantograph would be too long and expensive, and photography, because of astigmatism of lenses, was not to be trusted. Thus it was that the chief draftsman, James A. Faust, rigged up tables each big enough to hold a section of the map, fitted glass to the top of each table, and placed four lamps of 70 watt power below the glass.

The preliminary map was put on top of the table and the ivory paper of the final map was laid on top of it. The light shining from beneath was so powerful that tracing was easy. Tracing cloth was not used at all, for the reason that it is so greatly affected by the weather.

It was discovered long before this tracing work was begun that the final map would be too big to be made and kept in one place. There wasn't a room in the Municipal Building large enough to hold it. There was just one room, however, where the draftsmen had space enough to build a platform 28 feet square to hold the twenty-one sections which, when joined together, form the great map.

When the sections were completed there was the interesting task of assembling them and fitting them together perfectly. It was then that the city had to buy eighteen pairs of soft, felt slippers and white sheets for the men. A man would creep out on the map in his soft, clean slippers, to his particular section, spread a sheet before him, lie down on it, and then see if the north end of Brooklyn fitted exactly to the south end of Long Island City. It was nervous work, this shifting about on the big map, when a dig of the elbow might have obliterated work that would take hours to replace, or a quick turn might have overturned a bottle of ink.

There were some parts of Manhattan where it required nine hours' work to complete a section two inches square, and the draftsman who executed the large and handsome title in the northwest corner did large and hard work on that title from nine in the morning to ten-thirty at night for a period of six months.

Scholarship for Belgian Students in American Universities

A MOVEMENT is on foot to assist in bringing to America worthy, intellectual men and women for a temporary free enjoyment of the privileges of American institutions. Assurances have already been received from the George Washington University for the instruction of ten students in any of the departments of the University, free tuition to the extent of \$1,500 being furnished to European college students who are not able to pursue their courses owing to present conditions. It is estimated that between \$20,000 and \$25,000 will be required to defray the traveling expenses from and to Belgium and the cost of residence in Washington for a period of one year. The Belgian Scholarship Committee, which is a sub-committee of the Central Committee for the Belgian Relief Fund, is endeavoring to raise this amount. Checks should be drawn payable to the Belgian Scholarship Committee, John Joy Edson, treasurer, Washington Loan and Trust Building, Washington, D. C.

Substitute for Wood in Pattern-making

A COMPOSITION that has many advantages over wood for making small patterns can be made as follows: With hot water mix into a thick paste three parts by volume of starch, one part ground glue, two parts fine resinous sawdust. The sawdust should not be added until the starch and glue have been dissolved by the water. After the ingredients are thoroughly mixed, heat the whole to 190 deg. Fahr. and continue the heating until the whole becomes a hard mass, then allow to cool and remove from the receptacle. The resulting composition is a strong, hard, horn-like substance that can be machined, sandpapered, and varnished the same as wood.

The principal advantages of this composition over wood lie in the fact that it has no grain, and therefore turned and complicated patterns made from it do not have to be built up or glued together, and that for the same reason it is easier to turn and machine, and offers a smoother surface when finished. It is also more fireproof than wood and not so readily affected by atmospheric changes.

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles submitted by inventors. If the illustrations are shown the articles short and the facts authentic, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

Blockade by Submarine

WE deferred any editorial discussion of the so-called submarine blockade of the British Isles until the experiment had been under trial for a sufficient time to prove whether or no it is entitled to be called a blockade or should be designated by some other name less euphemistic.

The attempted blockade has now been carried on for sufficient time to prove that, so far as the submarine effort coming within the universally accepted definition of a blockade is concerned, it has been a complete failure.

A blockade, in the sense that has been established in the past history of the world and in the present accepted meaning of that term, consists in establishing a cordon of ships around the sea approaches to an enemy's coast, so strong and effective as to prevent the passage of merchant ships to or from that country, carrying certain articles of commerce which are known as contraband of war.

Have the Germans achieved this? The answer to that question is found in the statistics of British maritime commerce which show that during the period in which this German experiment has been tried, only 2 or 3 per cent of the shipping which has entered or cleared from the British Isles has been intercepted and sunk.

Not only does this raiding of merchant shipping fail utterly to achieve the results which alone would entitle it to be dignified by the name of blockade, but it is also debared from the use of that title by the fact that, in their method of carrying out the raid the German Admiralty are deliberately violating those humanitarian laws which have been adopted for the purpose of mitigating the horrors of war, so far as they affect non-combatants.

In previous wars it has been the universal practice, when an enemy's ship which was carrying contraband was intercepted by the blockading vessels either to take the vessel into port and confiscate her cargo, or, if this was impossible, to remove her crew and passengers and sink the ship upon the high seas. Always, care has been taken to safeguard the lives and persons of the non-combatants.

Now a submarine, in the very nature of things, being able to afford accommodations only for her crew, is unable to take aboard the non-combatants from the captured ships. Also, because of the risk to herself from enemy warships, she will rarely be in a position to take the ship into port. Because of the risk of detection, it will be impossible to make the usual examination of the ship's cargo, at the time she is held up, to determine whether there is contraband aboard.

These being the conditions, it follows that when the German Admiralty determined to institute this system of sinking any ship encountered in the so-called "war zone" they deliberately threw overboard all humanitarian considerations, and put themselves to that extent outside the pale of modern civilization.

No amount of laboring counsel can relieve them from this fearful responsibility. The question of their moral accountability stands or falls quite independently of anything which the Allies may themselves be doing. There is a sound old adage which says that two blacks never made a white. Germany has developed some very remarkable cases of moral self-delusion during the present war, and certainly the most conspicuous in-

stance of this is her attempt to justify this practice of sinking all shipping in the enemy's waters on slight, without first determining whether it is carrying contraband of war or not, and without making any provision whatsoever for saving the lives of non-combatants. It is mere casuistry to state that this practice is justified by the fact that the Allies are preventing foodstuffs from reaching Germany. The Allies are not sinking ships on sight; on the contrary, they are capturing them, and taking them to port, or, if they should sink them, they are making every provision to save the lives of non-combatant passengers and crew. The cases are not in the least sense parallel and nowhere is this better understood than by the German Admiralty itself.

If the German submarines are to become effective in striking a vital blow during the present war, why does not the Admiralty send them out to sink the great British transports which come and go, apparently with impunity, between Great Britain and France? If the German submarine flotillas directed their activities against these ships, they would be keeping well within the sphere of legitimate warfare, and they would be striking a badly needed blow for the relief of the hard-fighting armies of Germany in the western theater of war.

The War of Attrition

IN any discussion, anterior to the war, of possible conflict between Germany and Great Britain, the numerical superiority of the British fleet was accepted and great stress was laid upon the preliminary war of attrition, by which the margin of superiority of the British fleet was to be worn down as to render it possible for the German main fleet to accept battle with an even chance of victory.

In accordance with this expectation, or policy, Germany paid particular attention to the development of what might be called the minor units of her fleet. Thus she built up her destroyer flotillas to a high standard both in numbers and efficiency, and it is notorious that the careful selection of officers for the command of her destroyers and the nature of the maneuvers in which they were constantly engaged, had brought this arm of the service up to a point of efficiency which was not surpassed in any other navy.

In the earlier years of its development, Germany looked ahead at the submarine, and, for once, the astuteness of the Germans in recognizing any invention which had shown promise of practical development, seems to have failed them. For it is a fact that Germany entered the field of submarine construction rather late in the day, though it must be admitted that, having once taken hold of the problem, she has developed vessels of this class which are as good and, probably, because of Germany's excellent work in the field of all motors, a little better than those of other countries.

Consistently with her policy, Germany from the outset of the war, concentrating her main fleet behind the mine fields guarding her harbors, has sought to carry into effect her policy of attrition. And it must be admitted that she started out very well indeed, for the sinking of the three large armored cruisers, "Cressy," "Aboukir," and "Hogue," in the early months of the year seemed to foretell a steady diminution of the strength of the enemy—a forecast which was subsequently substantiated by the loss of the pre-dreadnought "Formidable," and, possibly, of the dreadnought "Audacious."

The subsequent actions in which it came to be engaged, however, have shown the destroyer fleet of Germany to be short of its resources, for these craft have fared badly at the hands of the enemy, and, so far as it has been officially announced, they have not, thus far, accounted for a single ship of importance. It is chiefly the mine and the submarine that have been responsible for such diminution of the forces of the enemy as has occurred.

After nine months of war, so far from Great Britain having lost any of her numerical superiority, her gains have greatly exceeded her losses, and she is much stronger today than when the war started. Her main fleet has been increased by the addition of seven ships of the "Queen Elizabeth" class, one of which, in a rating of its fighting value, would more than offset the total naval losses of Great Britain since the war began. According to the reports of the First Sea Lord, the strength of the main fleet of the British navy is growing at the rate of a dreadnought per month—a statement which seems to be borne out by the naval programme and by the speed of construction in the government and private yards of Great Britain at the time when war was declared.

Furthermore, it is a question whether the attrition has not been as great on the side of Germany as on that of Great Britain. The five armored cruiser "Blücher" may fairly well be set off in value against the old battleship "Formidable," and surely the "Scharnhorst" and "Gneisenau" represented a greater fighting value than the three old armored cruisers "Cressy," "Aboukir," and "Hogue." True, there is the "Audacious"; but it must be admitted that there is at least

a reasonable doubt as to whether the "Audacious" as she was, really went to the bottom.

Furthermore, in addition to the three armored cruisers already mentioned, there are two other vessels of this class that have been lost, the "Tiger" and "Friedrich Karl." To these must be added the light cruisers, "Magdeburg," "Köln," "Majestät," "Breslau," "Nürnberg," "Königsberg," and "Lützow," all of them among the best of their class afloat.

The loss in ships is equalled by the loss in men, and a naval writer in the *Naval and Military Record*, basing his estimate of the complement of these ships, as contained in the German publication *Neues Jahrbuch*, arrives at a total estimate of 8,500 men in the ships which have already been lost. A certain proportion of these officers and men was saved, but it is fairly certain that the losses represent over 10 per cent of the total personnel in the German navy.

Rational Research

THE small fraction of mankind which controls the destinies of the whole is fully aware of the advantages that spring from increasing knowledge. These advantages have been attested by centuries of experience, so that the quest of truth is no longer mere scholasticism, or a philosophical issue, but a deliberate and reasoned attempt to ameliorate the human lot, physically as well as intellectually. Yet not only is the amount of human energy devoted to the increase of knowledge insignificant in comparison to that expended on other objects—as, for example, the conservation of knowledge that is doubtfully worth conserving—but the customary methods of acquiring fresh information are flagrantly uneconomical, because utterly devoid of system.

The Carnegie Institution of Washington is the most prolific research agency extant. Its importance, however, as a factor in human progress is by no means to be measured merely by its direct contributions to knowledge. This institution, or, properly speaking, its sagacious director—has made the capital discovery that the most serious problem with which such an agency has to deal is not one of physics, or astronomy, or biology, or the like, but rather of what, in the absence of any more familiar name, we shall call "heuristics." In other words, such an establishment is called upon, first and foremost, to ascertain the most efficient means of applying its resources to the promotion of research, and this problem is a far more difficult one than might appear at first sight.

The fallacies that have hitherto prevailed as to the functions of research institutions in general, and of the unjustly endowed Carnegie Institution in particular, were set forth last summer by Director Woodward in an address which has evoked many echoes at home and abroad. This eloquent address, delivered at the dedication of the Woods Hole Marine Biological Laboratory, was perhaps the first complete formulation or crystallization of ideas developed in the course of the speaker's experience at the head of the Carnegie Institution, and some of the most important and further developed and reinforced in the latest yearbook of the Institution, just published.

Dr. Woodward refers to "the widely spread, if not prevalent, assumption that research establishments are mere disbursing agencies, waiting for suggestions of appropriate ways in which to apply funds." Such has, indeed, been the prevalent assumption, not only among laymen, but also among men of science. In contrast to this doctrine is the one to which the Carnegie Institution is now unreservedly committed, viz., that "it should be the primary purpose of a research institution to institute and to conduct research."

To quote again: "Another popular illusion is that research establishments should be themselves in casting the net in the wide world of thought or dragging, as biologists would say, with the expectation that out of the vast slimy miscellanea thus collected there will be found by the aid of a corps of patient examiners some precious sediments of truth," and this despite the recognized fact that "the doors are thus opened to the hosts of amateurs, dilettanti, and perfectionists who stand ready to waste the time and the resources of research establishments in the pursuit of the obvious, the facile, and the demonstrably unattainable" (to say nothing of downright quacks and charlatans).

The Carnegie Institution has fully satisfied itself that the "drag-net" method, still highly favored by many persons of intelligence, is about the most wasteful way in which such an institution can employ its time and money.

It can hardly be doubted that the Carnegie Institution, in limiting its grants to persons whose fitness for research undertakings has been most rigorously demonstrated; in devoting the major part of its resources to certain large problems, and the investigation of which is entrusted to corps of persons of proved ability; and especially in inaugurating the system of research, has set an example that will everywhere be widely followed.

Forestry

Forestry in the Philippines.—It is reported that *Swietenia macrophylla* which grows wild in abundance in the Philippines, has been found to be identical with the plant from which *egg-nutmeg* is obtained in certain parts of China. The commercial possibilities of this plant are now being investigated by the Philippine Bureau of Science and Bureau of Forestry.

The Itanabawan River.—The second largest river in Alaska, is about to be opened to commerce in consequence of the discovery, by Capt. Lukens of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, of a navigable channel in its extensively flooded *Itanabawan* delta. The river itself is navigable for a distance of 800 miles from its mouth, and is thus destined to make accessible a very promising mining, fishing and agricultural region.

A School of Forestry in China.—It is notorious that afforestation is one of the most urgent of China's needs, and it is therefore of interest to learn that a school of forestry is about to be established in the University of Nanking. The co-operation of the director of forestry at Manila has been secured, and it is proposed to send two experts from Manila to aid in establishing the school.

Climate and Efficiency.—It is estimated by the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce that labor is twenty per cent more efficient in and about the Southern California metropolises than it is in other cities, where extreme temperatures affect a man's working capacity. Holding that climate is one of the most far-reaching of all factors which influence industrial progression, the Chamber officials state, in a recent bulletin:

"It affects labor efficiency; it regulates the comfort and the cost of living. It influences the cost of building construction. It controls manufacturing possibilities; it determines the number of possible operating days within a year and it governs the cost of production. Figuring on a basis of 80 per cent added labor efficiency, Los Angeles alone would increase the actual labor cost of Pittsburgh more than \$600,000,000 per year. This is because of the almost unbroken absence of humidity, oppressive heat and excessive cold."

Tinned Cheese.—In this age of "sanitary" packages for food products, it is an anomaly that we still buy our cheese by the pound, sliced off from a common loaf at the grocers. For a number of years the U. S. Department of Agriculture has been testing the merits of cheese put up in air-tight tins, and the results are said to be satisfactory. It is found commercially practicable to press cheese of the Cheddar type in hoops of small diameter, cut it into pieces of the desired weight, and seal it in the tins. This process not only conduces to the preservation of the product, but also prevents loss by evaporation and the waste entailed in cutting. Moreover, the tinned cheese has no rind, and this fact presents a gain which helps to offset the cost of tinning, estimated at about 3 cents for labor and tins.

The Psychology of Practice.—The question of short versus long periods of practice in training the human muscles for any particular kind of work is obviously one having far-reaching application. Some interesting experiments on this subject have been carried out by Dr. K. S. Lashley, of John Hopkins University. Acquisition of skill in archery was selected as the subject of observation. Twenty untrained persons were divided into three groups. One group shot 5 arrows with the English longbow per day; another, 20 shots per day; and the third, 40 shots. The results showed conclusively that the group shooting only 5 times a day improved in accuracy with less expenditure of time in practice than was required by either of the other groups for the same amount of improvement. A report on the experiments says: "The relatively greater efficiency of short periods of practice continuing for many days is in accordance with the results of the study of animals and of speech habits in man, and indicates the training to muscular tests, in both animals and men, the length of practice periods required is usually too great for maximum efficiency."

The Study of Atmospheric Electricity which has been generally neglected in this country, is destined hereafter to form a prominent feature of the work of the Carnegie Institution's Department of Terrestrial Magnetism. The last seasonal report of this department has been carried out in an interesting article by which Dr. Swan published during the past year in *Terrestrial Magnetism*, which have brought out new points in the theory of this subject and also led to notable improvements in apparatus and methods of measurement. The Department now announces that its work in this field is to be expanded in two directions; viz. (1) the construction of self-recording instruments, in atmospheric electricity and radio-activity, both as the laboratory in Washington and as such observatories elsewhere as it may be found possible to establish; and (2) a general electric survey of the globe, including observations at points distributed over the earth's surface, somewhat as in a magnetic field, and the construction of self-recording instruments, in atmospheric electricity and radio-activity, both as the laboratory in Washington and as such observatories elsewhere as it may be found possible to establish; and (2) a general electric survey of the globe, including observations at points distributed over the earth's surface, somewhat as in a magnetic field, and the construction of self-recording instruments, in atmospheric electricity and radio-activity, both as the laboratory in Washington and as such observatories elsewhere as it may be found possible to establish.

Automobile

A Novel Tire Repair Stud.—Hugh Taylor Stephens, of Cantonville, Wis., in a patent No. 1,181,745, shows a small puncture-mending device having a stem to extend through the tire, a disk at one end of the stem and an inverted cup at the other end of the stem, and adapted to be pressed down to clamp the tire against the disk.

Novel Pocket Screwdriver.—Motorists are sometimes in need of a screwdriver for instant use, and hate to stop the car, dig into the tool box for the big screwdriver and waste five or ten minutes in the operation. For those there has been invented the "Pocket Screwdriver" which is really nothing but a circular piece of steel, the size of a quarter, tapered along the rim, so as to "take" any size or type of screw.

Differential Locks for War Trucks.—One of the lessons learned during the present war has been that of having either a four-wheel drive truck or a differential lock. When one of the rear wheels becomes mired in soft ground, it behooves the driver to lock the differential immediately, in order to get the truck out of the mud. Several good trucks have been lost because of the driver's inability to get the wheels to grip the ground.

Damages for a Broken Footboard, \$10,000.—A most unusual case has just been decided in Buffalo, N. Y., in favor of a little girl who, in jumping over the back seat of her father's automobile broke through the footboards, entangling her right leg in the machinery. The leg had to be amputated. After listening to the testimony of manufacturers and carpenters, the jury decided that the maker of the automobile was responsible for the accident and awarded the girl \$10,000 damages. The case had been pending since 1909.

Where the Slowest Lead.—When motor trucks loaded with ammunition are dispatched to the front, from a depot in the rear of the firing line, it is now understood that the slowest trucks go in front, while the fastest bring up the rear. This was found necessary because of the tendency of ammunition drivers to go at top speed, when the call for shells and cartridges comes. If the slow trucks are in the rear of the column, the latter is strung out over miles of road, with great gaps between trucks—offering an inviting target for an attack by reconnoitering armored motor cars or cavalry.

London Buses Are Still Running.—According to the figures issued by the London traffic police, there were at the end of March 2,029 motor omnibuses again in service in Great Britain's capital. It is stated that more and more buses were withdrawn from the continent for regular service in the city, and new trucks are being installed for the military service of the country. The withdrawal of the buses from passenger traffic in the first two weeks of August was caused by the general unpreparedness of the British transportation service. This unpreparedness, it is announced, is now overcome.

British Suggest 12-Cylinder Motor Car.—While a 12-cylinder motor car is not exactly a novelty in Great Britain the Sunbeam having appeared several years ago, the latest suggestion advanced by the British motor car manufacturers as to 12-cylinder machine is worthy of special comment. It is nothing more or less than the fixing of the 12 cylinders in "arrowhead" form, that is to say with four cylinders standing vertical, and the others in two four sets at an angle of 45 degrees on either side of the vertical set. Such a motor would be exceedingly short and compact, requiring, despite its large number of cylinders, only a short hood.

Less Crude Rubber This Year.—Careful estimate of the quantity of sap collected so far from the rubber trees in South America, Africa and the East Indian plantations shows that there will be less crude rubber in 1915 than there was in 1914. The shortage may prove serious, as the beginning of next year is an indication point to still smaller quantities in 1916. The crude rubber crop of 1914 amounted to 71,777 tons of plantation; 37,000 tons of Brazil, and 12,000 tons of miscellaneous outcrops—a total of 120,777 tons, representing an increase of 11.5 per cent over the 1913 crop. The figures for 1914 are given as approximately: 65,000 tons of plantation, 30,000 tons of Brazilian rubber, a total of 120,000 tons, or a decrease of almost 1 per cent.

A Sectional Inner Tube.—In an endeavor to solve the puncture problem, a New York inventor has brought out a sectional pneumatic tube—an idea which has occurred to more than one inventor. The tube consists of fifteen sections, each in itself a complete inner tube, not unlike a string of sausages. Each section is connected with the main valve, by a metal tube, within the rim. When a puncture occurs, the space formerly occupied by the punctured section is at once taken up by the two adjoining sections, which expand and maintain the air pressure in the tire. The experts who have examined the tube, one of the improvements of which is that the sections should be punctured before the tire is removed, the false pressure from the adjoining sections, in trying to fill up the vacant space, would be so strong as to tear out the valves of these sections.

Notes for Investors

Extinguishing Automobile Fires.—James B. Erwin and Orlando R. Erwin of Milwaukee, Wis., in patent No. 1,183,719 present a fire extinguishing process in which if a fire occurs in an automobile hood it will release a fire extinguishing liquid which will be discharged on the pre-heated motor surfaces and vaporized to fill the hood with a fire extinguishing gas.

Sleeping Car Ventilation.—The lower berth in a sleeping car is stuffy with the windows closed and if you open the window the cold air is directly on you. It is thought that the riding public would appreciate a device for diffusing circulation which could be applied to the open window over the usual short hinged screen and permit the entry of fresh air, at the same time preventing it from blowing directly on the passenger in the berth.

Improving the Tone of a Talking Machine.—To eliminate the shrillness and deaden the metallic sounds of the talking-machine, a German inventor has just patented a principle of tonal-protection that employs a lining of coar-fiber for the cabinet, by which that is hermetically sealed, washers and other accessories of the same material for the phalanges of the tone-arm and all other points of metal contact and a filter base for the record. He asserts that by this principle the surviving musical tone is immeasurably enhanced in quality.

New Electric Bell.—An original electric bell combination in use at the present time is designed to get rid of all trouble caused by the question of batteries, for the bell is now lodged within the apparatus itself. The usual box bell shape is retained, but the arrangement of the parts is different in this case. All the magnet parts are now lodged under the gong itself, while the box being now left free, serves to contain a set of three dry battery cells which will last for several years. In this way there are no connections to be made between the battery and bell, and the wires and push-button are the only pieces which need to be attended to.

Door Fastener.—Placing a wedge under a door is one of the most effective means of closing it, for pushing upon the door from the outside only increases the effect of the wedge. A convenient device of this kind is made of metal, and it not only serves to wedge the door but also contains a mechanical bell mounted on the same base and behind the wedge in such a way that pressure on the face of the wedge by the door causes the bell to ring. The base carries a set of short points underneath so that it can be put in place and grips upon the carpet or flooring so as not to slide out of position. Such a device can be carried in the pocket, and it is to be recommended for traveling.

Pocket Atomizer. A recent novelty is a pocket atomizer in the shape of a watch. The head or top has a small orifice, and the spray is produced by pressing on the flexible metal sides. A miniature funnel is provided for the filling, which is done by unscrewing the head. Another atomizer consists of a small cylindrical pump mounted on a cork so as to fit into any bottle and thus avoid hanging of the perfume from one bottle to another. A plunger at the top serves to produce the spray from a side orifice. The tube which descends into the liquid has a second or telescoping end so that the tube can be extended down as far as the bottom of the bottle and thus take up all the liquid.

A Combined Swab with the Medicament.—In patent No. 1,183,757 to A. D. Tuttle of Washington, D. C., is provided a swab for surgical purposes of an absorbent material such as raw cotton provided with a suitable handle. Embedded in the swab is an easily broken glass bottle which contains the liquid it is desired to apply to the swab. The swab with the liquid can be easily transported without danger of accidental breakage, and the contents of the bottle can be squeezed out when desired to permit the liquid to permeate the swab. The fragile container is sealed and has no stopper and cannot waste its contents until intentionally broken. The swab will prevent the fragments of glass from causing any injury.

Paper Cartridge Cases.—A new application of extreme interest at the present time of the metal spring case invented by Mr. M. C. Zuercher, of Zurich, consists in the manufacture of cartridge cases from a metallized paper in lieu of brass or copper. The advantages of such a process are apparent even to the layman. A certain independence of the large quantities of brass and copper hitherto required is obtained. In addition to this, there is a saving in weight of three to four grammes in each cartridge as a result of the metal coverings of any desired thickness. For the purpose above mentioned very thin coatings of a few thousandths parts of a millimeter in thickness are of course sufficient.



The Court of the Four Seasons at the Panama-Pacific Exposition illuminated by a battery of forty-eight 36-inch searchlights on a jetty in the harbor.

The Panama-Pacific International Exposition at Night

How the Illuminating Engineers Uses Light Decoratively

By Hamilton M. Wright

TO the expert the lighting of the great exposition at San Francisco marks an epoch in the science of lighting and in the art of illumination. To the layman the illumination of the exposition is its most mystic and entrancing feature, and apart from its technical and scientific interest the illumination is a magnificent success. At night myriads of beams of light of changing colors cast a spell over the exhibit palaces at the Golden Gate.

The plan of illumination was undertaken with the idea of presenting the exposition at night in the same relative values of color and perspective in which it is observed by day. And the plan has worked out successfully. At night the architectural details of the exhibit palaces are intensified; the beauty of the sculpture is enhanced and under the plan of diffused and projected light the more important details of the sculpture are emphasized. There are no black shadows to modify the intent of the sculptor and the inspiring psychological effect produced upon the visitor by the vast fields of melting riotous colors under the brilliant California sun becomes intensified at night; the exposition becomes more resplendent.

The most conspicuous objective of the lighting plan is the lofty Tower of Jewels, 435 feet in height. This monumental sculptured pile when played upon by hundreds of concealed searchlights stands out like a vast terraced pyramid of ivory, almost white with white, with the minute details of its architecture flamed against the dark heavens.

The result sought in the illumination was, as before suggested, to co-ordinate the artificial lighting with the colors of the exposition and with those provided by nature in the shrubbery and landscaping upon the exposition grounds (an object representing the highest artistic effort of which the illuminating engineer is capable), so that the coloring of the exhibit palaces, the rich shadows of the mural paintings and the ornamental details of the buildings would appear at night in the same relative values as by day. It was early decided to abandon the method of outline or silhouette

lighting employed at other expositions and to use at the Panama-Pacific International Exposition only reflected light as the principal source of the illumination. The objection to outline lighting was two fold: the great strings of electric lights formerly used to outline the contours of the exposition palaces cast black shadows, so that only a portion of the exposition was seen. Moreover, the dark shadows frequently obliterated the very features which the sculptor intended most to emphasize. The sculptor demands that his work shall not be impaired by the method of illumination, and this demand, too, is true of the architect and of the artist.

In the illumination of the Panama-Pacific International Exposition it was felt that the recent advances in illumination methods and materials had rendered practicable a plan of illumination that would have been impossible at the last great exposition, at St. Louis, ten years ago. Moreover, the operation of batteries of searchlight projectors had developed to such an extent as to produce amazing pyrotechnic effects in variety, intensity and splendor exceeding and overwhelming any results achieved through the use of fireworks.

At the exposition the lighting is produced with a dramatic effect suggesting undreamed of power and potentiality. A resplendent aurora of colored light spreads far into the heavens from a giant scintillator placed on the harbor's edge before the exhibit palaces and it is visible at a distance of from fifty to sixty miles.

Great shafts of light, quivering and changing, reach far into the heavens like tentacles of giant octopi. Numerous unexpected results are produced. Through the intersection of one shaft of light with another, for example, great rings suggesting those blown from a cigar are made to appear in the heavens.

Four principal methods of illumination are employed at San Francisco. Opposite the walls of the exhibit palaces are luminous art standards bearing heraldic shields which reflect light against the facades of the palaces. The shields are transparent, the idea nearest the palaces presenting a white surface which reflects the light against the buildings. The side of the shields

farthest from the palaces is faced with a heraldic emblem on which is written the motto of the Pacific Ocean and of California and through which the light shines.

The second method of indirect illumination is found in the concealed batteries of searchlight projectors mounted upon the exhibit palaces and at other points of vantage. While the projectors themselves are not visible, their light directed against the monumental sculptures, towers and minarets, imbues these objects with radiance. All of the principal architectural and sculptural works of the exposition stand out at night like giant transparencies, and even their minor details are clearly outlined.

The third source of lighting—although the order in which the sources are enumerated is purely one of convenience—is that of the concealed light which proceeds from the inner recesses of the columns which encircle the courts or are placed upon the lofty Tower of Jewels and on the two Italian towers, commanding the entrance to the Court of Palms and to the Court of Flowers. This method of lighting is also used in the vaults of the great arcades and in other situations where it is desired to cast light upon the mural paintings. From afar one sees the Tower of Jewels radiant under the shafts of light cast by the giant searchlights and a phosphorescent glow as if the tower were itself a source of light is imparted through the rich Venetian glow of the lights placed inside the columns on the tower and not visible to the spectator. Then, one beholding the tower, sees it flamed against the heavens by the batteries of white searchlights, while the concealed lights on the inner recesses of its columns, suggesting a charcoal furnace, imbue the tower with the effect of transparency.

The visitor beholds this monument quivering with thousands of shaking prisms and seeming itself to emit light as though it were some great system of transparencies through whose transparent surface the red glow from within is revealed. The fourth source of light is that

(Continued on page 383.)

Valuable Products Recovered from Coke Oven Gases

The Enormous By-product Coke Plant at Gary, Indiana

FEDERAL bessel to run 300,000 automobiles per year, had enough sulphate of ammonia to supply the farmers of this country with fertilizer for two years, at the present rate of consumption, was thrown away in the waste gases of the bee-hive coke ovens of the United States, in 1912. In addition to this, large quantities of tar, and even of the coke itself, were consumed by the extravagant process of the bee-hive oven. All together the value of the by-products had they been recovered would have been about \$30,000,000. If the same amount of coal had been coked in retort ovens, over five million more tons of coke would have been obtained. It is estimated that about 8,900,000 tons of coal were absolutely destroyed.

Only in a land rich in natural resources can such prodigality tolerated. In Germany, where coal is mined at great depths under conditions that make the product more expensive, bee-hive ovens were abolished twenty years ago. All coals are produced in retort ovens, and in 1911, 90 per cent of these retort ovens were of the *Winkler* type. In this type of retort, a certain amount of air is admitted into the oven, which results in consuming not only the free gases of the coal, but also some of the coal itself; while in the retort type of oven no air is admitted, and consequently there is very little loss of fixed carbon, such loss as occurs being due to the presence of air in the oven itself. In the *Winkler* type of oven the incident of the descent coils to the air when it is discharged from the oven and before it is quenched.

We are now beginning to realise how wasteful is the bee-hive oven and how necessary it is for us to conserve our supplies of fuel. In 1911 about twenty-seven million tons were made in bee-hive ovens as against nearly eight million tons in by-product ovens. In 1912 eleven million tons of coke were produced by means of the by-product system, and in 1913 by-product coke amounted to 12.7 million tons. The figures for last year's output of by-product coke and the ratio to bee-hive coke have not yet been compiled. When plants

new building are completed, nearly half of the coke made in Southern States will be produced in by-product ovens. Bee-hive plants are usually located near the mines, while by-product plants are

located usually
at the point

where the coke is used. In illustration of a typical by-product plant we publish herewith several photographs taken at the enormous coke plant of the United States Steel Corporation, at Gary, Ind. It is the largest by-product coke plant in the world, comprising 500 ovens. Here, 2,600,000 tons of coke are produced per year, all of which is used in the blast furnaces. A huge pile of dried and twenty million cubic feet of gas are recovered per twenty-four hours, which is much more than all the gas consumed in the city of Chicago. Half of the gas is used for heating the ovens, while the other half is used in the heating furnaces as well as in the open hearth furnaces of the steel plant. The ovens are arranged in two rows of four batteries each, and there are seventy ovens in a battery. The distance between the long ends of the ovens is from 17 inches at one end to 21 inches at the other, the purpose of this taper being to facilitate the discharge of the coke.

Briefly, the coking process is as follows: The coal is screened and then crushed until 90 per cent of it passes through a screen of $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch mesh. After this it is carried up to a mixer where the coals are combined in the proper proportions. Thence it goes to the storage bins. From the storage bins the finely crushed coal is carried in lorry cars which run on tracks over the ovens. The coal is dumped out of the car into the oven through charging holes at the top and is leveled off. Then the charging holes are sealed, and the coal is coked for from seventeen to twenty hours.

A longitudinal section of an oven chamber is shown in an accompanying drawing, which illustrates the regenerator, for utilizing the heat in the gases. Gases from the by-product plant comes through the mains *A*, running along the entire length of the battery of ovens at each side, and then passes through the riser pipe *B*, into gas distributing channels *C* of fire brick under the ovens. From the gas distributing channels, the gas enters passages *D*, between the ovens, where on coming in contact with heated air, it is ignited. The air enters the combustion chamber from the passageway

E: then it goes through one of the two regenerators **F**, of checker brick, where it is heated to from 2,000 to 2,200 deg. Fahr. The burning gases flow up the flues **D** on one half of the length of the ovens and the products of combustion pass down the heating flues on the other half of the length of the ovens. The gases then pass through the flues **G**, connecting with the chimneys. The checker bricks in this second half of the regenerator extract the heat from the burnt gases and store it up. When the course of the gases is reversed fresh air passes through this second half of the regenerator and its temperature is raised by the heat stored therein, while the burnt gases now flow through and give up the heat in the first half of the regenerator. Every half hour on the average, the course of the gases is reversed.

After about eighteen hours, when the coal has been thoroughly coked, a pushing machine moves to position at one end of the oven while a car, to receive the coke, is brought into place at the opposite end. Guides are placed each side of the discharge ends of the oven, and the doors are removed at each end of the oven by mechanical means. The ram, or pusher, then is brought into operation.

This consists of a long beam with a pusher head just fitting the doorway of the oven. This ram is operated to push the coke out of the oven and into the coke car. One of our photographs shows the pusher in operation, while immediately below may be seen the glowing coke forced out of the oven between the guides and tumbling into the car. As soon as an oven is discharged, the glowing coke is carried to a quencher where a shower of water drenches it to stop the blaze, and the coke is then sold. As there is no further loss by combustion. As soon as the oven is discharged, the doors are replaced and sealed with fire clay and a fresh charge of coal is dumped into it.

It should be understood, of course, that this is by no means the only successful type of coke oven. We have chosen it for illustration because the largest plant is

of this type. But no article on by-product coke would be complete without a description of the horizontal flue type of oven. As shown in section in one of our drawings, each oven is provided with two regenerators. The air is blown in by a fan

The rusher about to discharge an oven.

Acid separators recovering ammonium sulphate from the gas.



Flaming onto tumbler out of an oven into the car.

A battery of seventy coke ovens viewed from the pusher side.

The Barometer and Health

IN the manufacture of actions for player pianos there are 20,800 operations from the raw material to the finished product and a total of 4,000 individual parts go into the making of each action.

These editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I would like to call your attention to some defects in the argument of Commissioner of Patents Ewing against the introduction of the compulsory license and compulsory working of patents in this country, which is found in your issue of March 18th.

The Commissioner says: "The difficulties are economic. They are very acute in Great Britain in spite of provisions of her patent system which we are urged to adopt."

The British working clause of 1907 caused an immediate development of manufacturing which had previously been conducted in foreign countries. Not long after the law was passed, a decision by Judge Parker placing the burden of proof on the petitioner for revocation practically nullified the working clause. Advocates of a working clause are not urging the adoption of the provisions of the British patent system. They are advocating the adoption of an effective working clause in the United States law which will put an end to the present humiliating conditions under which the United States law is now used by foreigners to suppress industries in the United States and develop them in foreign countries.

Moreover, the British Act can no longer be considered ineffective, for on February 22nd the president of the British Board of Trade, Mr. Hunciman, made this statement in the House of Commons showing that the British working clause will work in the future:

"The success of the (dyestuff) concern must depend largely upon the way in which German patents are administered, and it is the intention of the government not to cripple the company after the war was over, but to give them every opportunity of making the most of the German patents."

Commissioner Evins's reference to treaties with foreign nations gives the impression that something terrible would follow the enactment of a working clause in our law to correspond with the working clause that England intends to enforce and would have enforced eight years ago but for a technicality in the interpretation of her statute. If our patent treaties are of that one-sided character, they are evidently in need of change. The Commissioner, without giving its terms, says that the proposed clause is "not in accordance with the spirit of our patent laws." It is not clear if it were advantageous to the United States that treaty was negotiated in secret immediately after and evidently because of the agitation for a working clause that started in this country in 1907. The public knows very little about this Bernstorff-Bacon treaty. Instead of turning the advantage to the United States it is very much to the advantage of England, as will be clearly seen from the following provision:

"The working of a patent, working pattern (Gebrauchsmuster), design, or model in the territory of one of the contracting parties shall be considered as equivalent to its working in the territory of the other party."

For forty years the United States protected and developed the German dyestuff monopoly by giving German owners of patents an unequalled patent protection in this country, while during the same period Germany developed her industries by an effective working clause. But when Congress proposed in 1908 to enact a working clause for the development of American industry the Bernstorff-Bacon treaty was negotiated to nullify the effect of any working clause Congress might enact by providing that working administration in Germany shall be the basis of the American patent law. Such a treaty may have been a triumph of diplomacy, but in view of the relative development of manufacturing based on patents in the United States and Germany it cannot be called a triumph of American diplomacy.

The European war has disclosed the industrial dependence of the United States on foreign countries. The most striking illustration of this dependence is found in textile manufacturing, an industry giving employment to over 1,000,000 people and producing annually over \$2,000,000,000 worth of goods, and whose existence is mainly dependent on the importation of \$10,000,000 worth of dyestuffs from Germany. This perilous situation has existed for years and has been known to every one acquainted with conditions in the textile industry. The only difference now is that the European war has stopped the German supply of dyestuffs and aroused the entire industry to the threatening position occupied by a country so vital to the health of the United States.

Other problems involve other factors besides a working class. A protective tariff will be required for the establishment of a textile industry in the United States.

There will have to be co-operation between science and industry, such as exists now in Germany. If the United States is to develop this industry, we must employ all the methods that Germany has found useful, and among these is an effective working clause in the patent law. Those who are experienced in the administering of patent law can render a valuable service to the public by pointing out how such a law should be framed so as to be effective without creating any difficulties to offset the advantages.

SAMUEL S. DALE.

Boston, Mass.

[So far as our correspondent's contentious points to the coal tar chemical and dye industry, we would refer him to the paper by Dr. Bernhard C. Hesse on the "Contribution of the Chemist to the Industrial Development of the United States," read before the fifth meeting of the American Chemical Society at New Orleans. We cannot do better than quote the following from that excellent consideration of the subject]

"France, in the early days of the coal tar dye industry, was an important factor in the invention and in the manufacture of the synthetic dyes. It was the first country in the world to have a drastic working clause. In 1907 the British working clause was brought about at the instigation of dyeing circles in the British public, that if any working clause were enacted in the statute, an independent British coal tar dye industry would be established. It was a working clause which was in force six years and a half and Great Britain could no longer deal with Germany. What was the result? Was Great Britain able to produce a working clause of the kind of that which was in force in France? Certainly not. I doubt whether of these countries France was able to supply its domestic needs, when it could no longer export. It was not able to produce a working clause of that condition? If not, what was? Certainly the working clause did not prevent that condition from arising. If it had, the fifty-six measures now in force, attesting compulsory working, absolutely and utterly failed to produce in six and a half years a working clause of the kind of that which was in force five or six years ago. It was not able to produce a working clause which would not produce the six million dollars' worth of dyeing which is now done in Germany, on what grounds and by what course of reasoning has anybody thought of making a working clause of the kind of that which is in force today on our statute books. We would create a larger coal tar dye industry, we would have a synthetic dye industry

"At the meeting of the Imperial Industries Club of Great Britain, April 1st 1914 the compulsory working of patents was discussed. No one speaking in favor of the 1907 British Act named any specific cases of any new industries being brought to Great Britain thereby. Those speaking against the Act referred to cases after case where foreigners revoked the British patents and then dumped foreign made goods on the British market. Lord Moulton said of this British Act. It is no use arguing about legislation of that kind. It is self-defeating."

"Those who have spoken favorably of this British Act with but one or two exceptions have colored their statements, for example, one new plant was represented as employing 1,600 people—it employed only 37, another represented at 600 employees, employed 60. There are no official figures as to the real effect of this Act, the only figures are those of real estate agents having land and factories for sale, under these circumstances their fall from truth is understandable, but it does not make it their credibility

"Furthermore, it must be remembered that on July 13th 1832, the President of the United States approved an act compelling all foreigners to work their patents in the United States under penalty of automatic cancellation. That act was repealed July 4th, 1836, it died at the tender age of three years, eleven months, and twenty two days. If it was bad policy for us then, and experience proved it to be, why should it be good policy for us in 1915 to try the same thing over again? It has not worked in any of the fifty six countries which have tried it. Why should it work here now, after our failure? Under what conditions and why should it be successful when the old conditions, under which it invariably failed, return?"

The white tone of the corresponding letter implies that these are the basic of the dyestuff industry, and that slight differences are the patents of Americans and foreigners. According to Dr. Hesse, whom we quoted in our issue of September 26th, 1914, on this subject, out of a total of 212 coal tar dyes, 407 have never been patented in the United States, and the patents on 239 further dyestuffs have expired. Only 215 of these dyes are at present protected by patents. Of those dyes which are at liberty to manufacture only about 10 per cent are actually made here, and these very largely from imported coal tar products not themselves dyestuffs.

Our correspondent is wrong in supposing that Germany has a very drastic working clause. As a matter of fact, Germany's working clause is so liberally construed that the most perfunctory compliance with its terms is accepted. Indeed, Germany retains her working clause not because she believes in it, but simply because she can use it as an effective weapon against those countries which threaten to hamper foreigners by injecting into their patent system revocation and compulsory license clauses.

The Burnside-Bacon Treaty, which our correspondent regards as decidedly anti-American in its effect is in reality a boon to American manufacturers. German courts have interpreted the treaty so liberally that, as a matter of fact, America stands in a better relation to the German patent system than Germans themselves. The experience of the National Cash Register Company

be a case in point. Patents owned by that company had been assigned to a German, they had never been worked even in the perfunctory fashion required by the law. A petition was made by a German firm for the revocation of the patents. The court held that even though they had been assigned to a German and were in effect outside of the treaty, nevertheless it considered it necessary to place them outside of the provisions of the working clause. In other words the invention was American, and because it had been originally patented by an American in Germany, the court refused to apply the German working clause to it. If this is the manner in which the Bernstorff-Bucon Treaty works, we would dislike to see it renewed.

We are in accord with our correspondent when he states that there must be co-operation between science and industry as exists now in Germany. There must also be co-operation between government and industry. What we want is more encouragement and less opposition from our legislators. -Editorial

The Death of Cecil Peoli

IT is with great regret that we have to record the death of Cecil M. Poell from a fall of about one hundred feet in a new machine with which he was experimenting for the U. S. Navy. This aeroplane which had a spread of 48 feet and was fitted with a 140-horsepower Chrysler (type motor, appeared to be the latest Navy) had its flight tests at the Naval Air Station at Park, Md., with the result that it crashed to the ground soon after young Poell had arisen and while he was flying at a height of 75 to 100 feet. The aviator, who was but twenty-one years old, was crushed beneath the motor and killed instantly. Cecil Poell was one of the youngest American in the world, and his model aeroplane, "The Flying Bread," which he had built for himself in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN a few years ago. He afterward became an aviator under the tutelage of Capt. Thomas A. Baldwin and flew the latter's machine for a couple of years. In 1913 he made a trip to South America, where he flew over the Andes, and on one of his flights he was forced to land on a high, thin ridge, the peak of one of these mountains while flying low. He managed to swerve sharply just in time and to descend safely to the coast from which he started. It is indeed the iron fate of fate that so young a life should be snuffed out as a result of a slight fall when the aviator had been through such dangerous experiences. While his death is a great loss to the service, it was especially meeting above said, as he had never shown any signs of overconfidence. He had experimented over the water in all probability he would not have been killed. This is an other proof that no matter how expert the flier he will do well to experiment over water rather than over land.

Prof. C. W. MacCord Dead

CHARLES WILLIAM MacCORD, professor emeritus of Stevens Institute and noted as a leading authority on all matters relating to mechanical drawing died recently at his residence in Hoboken, N. J. at the age of 80 years. He was born in Dutchess County, N. Y., and graduated from Princeton University with the degree of A. B., later taking the Masters degree and in 1881 receiving the degree of Sc. D.

For many years he was employed as a draughtsman by Capt John Erlesson during which time he drew the plans for the "Monitor" the original turreted war vessel that defeated the Confederate iron clad "Merrimack". In 1871 he became professor of mechanical drawing and designing at the Stevens Institute, and held this chair until his retirement in 1906. Prof. MacCord was at one time a frequent contributor to the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, and was the author of a number of works on mathematics, geometry and draughting.

Protecting the Eyes of Railroad Employees

WITH the object of protecting its employees against permanent injury to the eye or loss of sight, the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company, in a circular just issued, urges that in all cases of injury or of the judgment of foreign parties in the eye, the employee at once seek the services of a company physician, whenever this is possible, rather than attempt to treat the injury or allow fellow employees to do so. Railroad experience cites many instances of permanent injury to the eye or total loss of sight sustained as the result of attempts to treat inexpertly or to ignore the injury of the eye. The circular also warns of modern eye treatment, stating that "the immediate wearing of modern eyeglasses, if not accompanied by the use of proper eye medicine, often stimulates the possibility of dangerous

To Old Readers of the Scientific American

THE June number of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN will commemorate the seventieth anniversary of the house of Munn & Co. In that number we wish to give a history of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Old readers and subscribers who visited the editorial offices in the past are requested to send us their impressions, anecdotes, experiences, and the like. Indeed, any information at all relating to the old offices on Park Row will be gratefully received by the Editors.

Saving Eight Million Tons of Coal a Year

A Hydro-Electric Development That Uses a Head of 4,000 Feet

FUELED by the snow caps of the Sierra Nevadas about seventy miles east of Fresno, Cal., is a stream that flows with much fuss and bluster down the mountain sides to the San Joaquin River. Locally this stream is known as "Big Creek." But despite its somewhat naive name, one may watch in vain for a trace of it in the common alleys. Now, however, its ambitions are about to be realized, for in one respect at least it is to surpass the mightiest river of the continent. A Government permit was recently granted to a light and power company to extract from this mountain stream 350,000 horse-power—more than will be obtained from the great Mississippi River when the hydro-electric development at Keokuk is carried to completion!

This astonishing disparity of size and power disappears when we learn that above Keokuk the Mississippi has a fall of but 23 feet in twelve miles, while Big Creek in half that distance drops 4,000 feet. And a comparatively small amount of water pours down the precipitous escarpment of water pours down the precipitous escarpment, for Big Creek drains a basin of about 88 square miles, which with an annual rainfall of more than 80 inches gives a run-off of about 50 inches. This basin, 7,000 feet above the sea, forms a natural trap for the moisture-laden winds from the Pacific. On the south and west it is bounded by comparatively low ridges, but on the east the peaks of the Kaskades range rise to elevations of 10,000 and 11,000 feet, and so the moisture sucked up from the Pacific is carried by the wind over the southern and western ridges, only to be precipitated against the cold peaks of the north and east. With plenty of water thus assured and an enormous head, conditions are ideal for the generation of electricity.

California is famed for its enormous hydro-electric achievements, but in the work already done we have something to astonish even the Pacific coast. Here is by far the largest high head development in this country. It employs the most powerful impulse wheels ever built and the largest electric generators of their type. The current is transmitted over the longest "express" line in existence, at the highest voltage ever used commercially.

The permit required by the Pacific Light and Power Corporation of Los Angeles to develop the power of Big Creek allowed twelve years for the completion of the work. But with great enterprise the company set a record for rapid work in completing the initial development in less than two years. The first work was to build a railroad 50 miles long to reach the site of the development. This road was finished and equipped in 107 days. Then three concrete dams were constructed to close gaps between the ridges bounding the basin in the mountains, thus making the reservoir 7,000 feet above the sea, four and one half miles long by half a mile wide, with a capacity of about 65,000 acre-feet. The capacity will later be increased to 120,000 acre-feet by raising the dams 50 feet higher.

The fall of 4,000 feet has been utilized by leading the water through a tunnel and steel pipe lines to the first power house half way down, and then through another tunnel and series of conduits to the second power house. Some conception of the enormous drop from the basin to the first power house may be gathered from the accompanying photograph in which the three tallest buildings in New York have been drawn to serve as a scale. If on top of the Woolworth Building were placed the Singer Building and on top of that the Metropolitan Tower, their combined height would just about equal that of the reservoir above the first power house. Driven by this mighty head, the water rushes out of the 6-inch nozzles at the power house with a velocity of 350 feet per second, which is about 240 miles per hour. The jets dash across an open space of a few inches and then strike the buckets of the impulse wheels, which spin around as fast as the drivers of an express locomotive travelling 100 miles per hour. These wheels are 94 inches in diameter and are arranged in pairs, each pair developing 25,000 horse-power. Despite the enormous velocity of the jet, there is no shock at the impact with the water wheel, because the part of the bucket first touched is nearly parallel with the jet.

After passing through the first power house the water discharges into the creek. But the creek is here blocked by dam No. 4 and the water is diverted through a second tunnel four miles long into a second series of steel conduits leading to the second power house.

In each power house there are two main generators of 17,500 kilowatts capacity each. Here the current is generated at 6,000 volts and raised in transformers to 150,000 volts. The current is carried to Los Angeles 240 miles away. Two lines of steel towers on a right of way 150 feet wide will carry six cables an inch in diameter, from the two power stations to a sub-

station at Eagle Rock, in the suburbs of Los Angeles.

In less than a year and a half after the work at Big Creek was begun both power stations and one transmission line were in operation and current generated at Big Creek is in commercial use at Los Angeles. This involved the setting of more than 3,000 steel towers over the mountains and across the desert and the strung of nearly 5,000,000 pounds of aluminum cable. It is interesting to note that, by virtue of the great elevation of the reservoir above the two power plants, every cubic yard of water it contains is worth from ten to twenty pounds of coal, considering that it takes from four to eight pounds of coal to generate one horse-power in a steam plant. When the full possibilities of the Big Creek development are realized it will form an inexhaustible mine of energy with an output that could not be equaled by the consumption of over eight million tons of coal per year in a very efficient power plant. It is equivalent to the most saving of our limited and rapidly diminishing natural supplies of stored energy.

We are indebted to the Stone & Webster Construction Company, who were the constructing engineers, for the accompanying illustrations and details of this remarkable work.

A New Searchlight for the United States Navy By Herbert T. Wade

THE probability that battles will be fought largely at night and will begin at an extremely long range in the naval warfare of the future and the increased importance of torpedo and torpedo-boat attacks make the searchlight of the modern battleship an important weapon of offense and defense second only to the guns themselves. Accordingly, improvements are taking place in such apparatus, and the United States and other navies are trying out new devices to secure greater effectiveness.

Recently the United States Navy has secured a searchlight of somewhat novel form which already has found a considerable application in Europe, both for ships of war and for coast defenses. This searchlight, which is 44 inches in diameter and so far is the largest instrument of the kind yet installed in the United States Navy, has, instead of the usual silver, a gold mirror, which can be controlled automatically from a distant station by an observer at the telescope. With the installation of 14-inch guns and even larger weapons on recent battleships construction is apt to be troublesome to the mirrors and mechanism of searchlights of the older types, and it even has been rumored that in certain foreign navies these searchlights have been discontinued at the time of practice with the heavy guns.

The searchlight, it will be recalled, is a powerful electric arc lamp placed at the focus of a parabolic mirror, which is carefully shaped or figured so that it will project a beam of rays approximately parallel and in any desired direction, being capable of movement and control, so as to sweep the horizon and illuminate any object within its range of visibility. These mirrors, like those of the reflecting telescope of the astronomer, are usually made of glass with a film of silver deposited on the surface and then highly polished. The best reflectors for searchlights have been made in Europe, it being only recently that American manufacturers have taken up the making of such mirrors.

Obviously, the mirror of glass at best is delicate and is likely to crack from shock or concussion, while a silver surface is, in addition, liable to corrosion. When it is considered that searchlights with mirrors of more than six feet in diameter are required for purposes of coast defense, it will be seen how serious such a difficulty is, and when it is further considered that a chance hit by even the smallest projectile is likely to put the apparatus permanently out of service, the necessity for improvement in the design and construction of a searchlight may be appreciated.

The new mirror of the United States Navy Department, designed by J. A. Rey, in France, makes use of an important improvement by substituting gold for silver as the reflecting surface. This film of gold is electroplated to a parabolic surface formed from a massive casting of bronze, which is turned to the approximate shape and then is figured out as accurately as possible. Not only can such a mirror withstand the shock and concussion to a greater degree than one of glass, but even if the reflector itself is placed in a bullet or small shell the apparatus may not be seriously damaged. But equally important are the improved optical properties which the gold surface affords. There is a marked increase in visibility, by which is meant the greater photometric efficiency, but the projec-

tion of the rays toward the red end of the spectrum instead of greater amounts of the blue and the violet or shorter rays which are reflected out from a silver surface. As a result, the more powerful light of the gold mirror lights up the distant ship or other target at a distance with a soft illumination that shows detail and affords greater convenience in sighting to the gun-layer.

The advantages claimed for the gold mirror are rather in the direction of an efficiency and effectiveness as regards the special work in hand than securing a greater intensity of illumination. Thus, in the case of a fog or haze the gold beam is able to pass through the atmosphere containing water vapor, mist, or rain in the fine drops more effectively than the beam from the silver reflectors.

The 44-inch searchlight, the largest yet to be tested for the United States Navy, has been tried, and as a result of preliminary tests was acquired by the Navy Department. In addition to possessing a gold mirror there is an interesting mechanism for distant control, which adds greatly to the effectiveness of the installation. The searchlight may be mounted at any desired point of the superstructure, where it may have a range of 180 degrees in a horizontal plane, with sufficient vertical adjustment for all ordinary purposes. At the bridge or other convenient position for the observer there is a pedestal with a telescope.

The observer, with eye to the telescope and shoulder at the arm rest, moves the latter so as to keep his cross-eyes focused on any fixed object or target, and the corresponding motion is communicated to the searchlight, so that observer or gun crew may follow the motion of an approaching torpedo boat or other target. The control of the motion is effected through the familiar Wheatstone bridge principle and provides for the movement of the distant electric motor at the searchlight supplied with current from the ship's main, so that motion is imparted to the searchlight corresponding to the motion of the telescope of the observer. Furthermore, the observer is able to control the illumination of the searchlight both by means of a shutter and by dimming the arc so that its full intensity need only be used when desired without undue expenditure of carbons or energy. The carbons employed are 20 millimeters in diameter in the case of the upper carbon and about 10 inches in diameter for the lower, the upper carbon being arranged horizontally so that its crater is always in the focus of the parabolic mirror. The system of control just outlined is also the invention of J. A. Rey and is covered by foreign and American letters patent. Similar installations have been used in the leading European navies and also for coast defenses and for portable searchlight battalions, which are an important feature of continental armies.

Longitudes by Wireless Telegraphy

By Prof. F. B. Littell, U. S. N.

ONE of the important scientific uses to which wireless telegraphy can be put is the determination of differences of longitudes. For this purpose it is only necessary to make a signal at any wireless station and to have this signal received and the time noted at the points whose difference of longitude is to be determined. For the determination of the time with accuracy it is necessary to have recourse to astronomical observations. Where the highest accuracy is desired, it is necessary to make a correction for the time of transmission of the signal, but as wireless signals travel approximately with the speed of light, this correction is very small.

This method is particularly applicable to the determination of the longitudes of places not on telegraph lines, and this opens up a broad field for its future usefulness. The question as to whether it could be utilized for transatlantic longitudes has been answered in the affirmative by the successful work of the American and French parties in the winter of 1913-1914 in determining the difference of longitude between Washington and Paris, and it has been shown that for the connection of important places where high-power wireless stations are available, there is great advantage over the previously employed cable methods.

As in this case there was wireless transmission in both directions, the transmission was slow down, estimated with a fair degree of precision. The time of transmission from Washington to Paris or vice versa is only one-fifth of a second, and it is evident that the work of the radio observers must have been very excellent to determine so small a quantity with a probable error of only 10 per cent of its value or one-tenth of a second.

A full account reprinted from the *Astronomical Journal*.



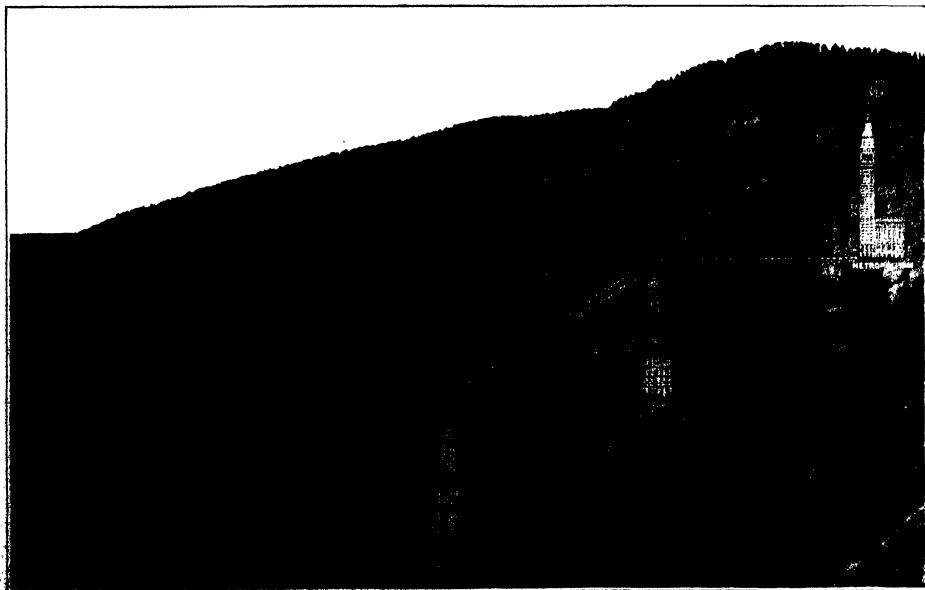
Bird's eye view of the Big Creek initial development, showing the two power plants and the transmission lines leading from them.

nal of the work of the American observers will be found in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT of the current issue. This marks the most notable advance in method since the introduction of the use of the submarine cable in 1880 by Dr. H. A. Gould of the U. S. Coast Survey. The proposition to make the determination originated with the Naval Observatory, but the technique of the method had already been developed by the French geodesists and astronomers, who have applied it exten-

sively on land lines. The close agreement of the values obtained from this work with those obtained from the cable determinations furnishes an excellent tribute to the care and skill with which those determinations were made.

Converting the Car Into a Sleeping Compartment.—E. L. Thompson, of Glens Ferry, Idaho, has secured patent No. 1,131,875 for an auto body in which the side

portions of the front and rear seat are so supported and operated in connection with supplemental cushions that the vehicle may be readily converted into a full sleeping compartment or one in which a bed surface extends practically throughout the length of the auto body or a partial sleeping body in which the bed will extend from the back of the rear seat to the back of the front seat, the latter being intact so the driver can continue to operate the machine.



The head of water at the first power plant equals the combined height of the Woolworth, Singer, and Metropolitan towers.

The Sound Wheel, a Novel Wireless Detector

By the Berlin Correspondent of the Scientific American

THE measuring of extremely small currents of a frequency of at least 30,000 per second, as used in wireless telegraphy, of course, affords enormous difficulties. Whereas direct-current galvanometers, capable of gauging currents of, say, 10^{-8} ampere, are readily obtained by providing a sufficiently strong magnetic field, it is quite impossible to do the same in the case of alternating currents, unless the magnetic field be excited by an alternating current of exactly the same frequency, which is obviously quite impossible.

Dr. R. Goldschmidt, the inventor of a wave generator, has had a fortunate idea in utilizing to this end the principle embodied in the Leblanc commutator machine, which, as is well known, mainly consists of a rotating commutator. The segments of this machine derive their tension from the terminals of a transformer, the reversed version of alternate into direct current being effected by simple commutation.

In order to insure a sufficient rate of commutation, Dr. Goldschmidt, however, simplified this apparatus by substituting for the commutator a toothed disk which, so far from reversing the current, only breaks it once in every wave. If the currents to be gauged have a frequency of, say, 40,000 cycles per second, and if each tooth of the wheel is 1 millimeter in width, there will be a synchronous rotation for a peripheral speed of $40,000 \times 1$ millimeter = 40 meter seconds, that is, for a perfectly practicable speed. On account, however, of the impossibility of a strictly synchronous rotation, Dr. Goldschmidt arranges the wheel to rotate intentionally at a synchronous speed, choosing, e. g., for 40,000 cycles, a frequency of interruption of 39,000 or 41,000. The transformed current then takes the form of an alternate rate current of the frequency 40,000 - 39,000 = 1,000. The number of turns of the wheel need not, however, approach the synchronous speed, generally speaking, any odd fraction of this speed will be found sufficient. If an alternating current of given frequency be applied to the "sound" wheel, as the apparatus is termed, the wheel passing slowly from its state of rest to the normal number of turns, the sound will pass through the whole scale, and a continual singing will be heard in the telephone receiver until about one-third of the normal number of turns is reached. An interval then occurs which lasts until close to the speed of synchronism. If the contact brush be of sufficient width, the same sound phenomena will also take place with even fractions of the synchronous speed.

Experience has shown the test and due to the milling effect between the toothed wheel and the brush to be extremely small. The brush is made of copper wire or of copper plate embedded in some insulating material, which has been found very helpful in damping vibrations.

The wheel is actuated by a motor, the speed of which is controlled automatically by a centrifugal contact device and a Foucault current brake. The terminal supplying current to the wheel is placed as close as possible to the contact brush.

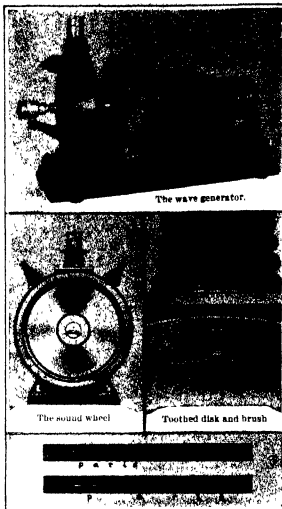
The "sound" wheel is at least equivalent to any one of the detectors so far known, as far as its sensitiveness is concerned. It has been used with most satisfactory results in the transatlantic service of Messrs. Hochfrequenzmaschinen A. G. (High Frequency Generators, Ltd.) between their stations at Eilburg and Tuckerton, respectively.

In a recent paper, Dr. Goldschmidt sums up as follows the main advantages of the sound wheel.

1. Damped waves are received as noises rather than sounds.
2. Stations using slightly different wave-lengths are heard with widely different pitches. If, e. g., the sound wheel works at 30,000 revolutions per minute, while the transmitting station gives out waves of 40,000 cycles, a sound of 1,000 cycles will be received. Another station making a wave $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent shorter, that is, of 41,000 cycles, would already be heard with a sound of 2,000 cycles; that is, twice the above, which, of course, makes discriminating between different stations very easy.

3. The sounds heard in the receiver come out most clearly against any atmospheric disturbance.

4. Each telephone, of course, responds best to a given note. As, however, the pitch of sound is adjusted at will, the one corresponding to the optimum of the receiver can be readily effected. In fact, the receiving intensity may thus be reinforced at the ratio of 1:10.

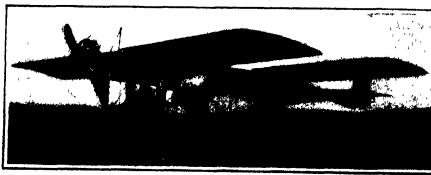


Radio-telegram received with ordinary detector (above) and with sound wheel (below).

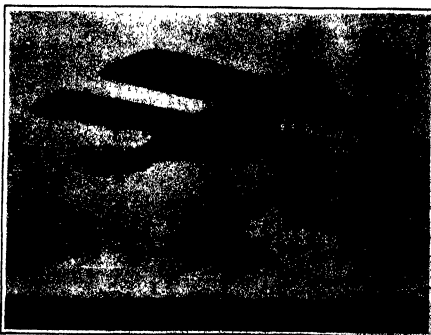
In view of the remarkable sensitiveness of the sound wheel, Dr. Goldschmidt has made a series of experiments on this apparatus combined with a recording galvanometer. The most striking result brought out by these experiments is the fact that radio-telegraphic signals are received, not as a zigzag line, as in the case of ordinary telegraphic recorders, but in the form of a series of dots and dashes, corresponding to the Morse alphabet. Atmospheric disturbances make themselves felt at most in the form of slight deformations of these dashes.

The Albessard Aeroplane

AUTOMATIC stability and the comfort of passengers are the objects chiefly sought in the construction of the Albessard aeroplane, which is described in a recent issue of *L'Aérophile*.



The Albessard autostable aeroplane.



The Albessard aeroplane in full flight.

The body, or fuselage, is absolutely symmetrical and blunt in front, and is entirely weightless. The various problems through a spacious cabin, attached to the motor, which protects the pilot and passengers from the heat and the fumes of the motor. The rear and lower part of the fuselage is perfectly plane and is held in horizontal flight. Hence, it constitutes nothing to support, but it opposes little resistance to the air and it assists in maintaining equilibrium.

The machine is supported by two pairs of wings, arranged in tandem in the same plane, like the wings of a dragonfly. The wings are equal in area but are not equally loaded, as the front wings are more inclined than the rear wings. This arrangement also contributes greatly to horizontal stability. The distance between the two pairs of wings is sufficient to prevent "blanketing," as has been proved in trial flights.

The wings are provided with a warping device, as a measure of precaution; but in practice the machine is found to maintain its balance without the intervention of the pilot, because of the novel arrangement of its central surfaces, its deep vertical keel, and its low center of gravity. The steering and elevating rudders are at the stern, the tractor motor is supported by the rear.

In trial flights the aeroplane maintained a remarkably straight and regular course. A very gentle landing can be effected by gradually stopping the motor, without using the elevator. No mishap has yet occurred in landing.

The dimensions of the machine are:

Total length of machine	40 feet.
Width of horizontal top	8 "
Depth of keel, at junction with cabin	5 1/4 "
Width of cabin	8 "
Width of each wing	16 1/2 "
Length of each wing	7 1/4 "

On the ground the machine is supported by a strongly built chassis, mounted on four orientable wheels.

The tractor screw, about 9 feet in diameter, is driven by an Anzani motor of 85 to 100 horse-power. This motor, however, has proven insufficient for a machine of this size and weight, and a new series of trials will be made with a motor of 100 to 200 horse-power.

The experimental machine in its present condition and unarmored weighs 1,700 pounds, and develops a speed of 40 to 47 miles per hour.

An Investigation of Vegetarianism

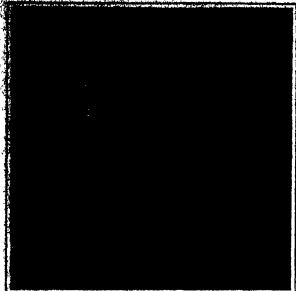
WHAT is there in a vegetarian diet that makes its enthusiastic advocates so staunchly defend it against all criticism? We hear much of the value of suggestion nowadays in treating a wide variety of maladies. After reading the report of one of our most noted investigators, Dr. Benedict, on work done in collaboration with Paul Roth in studying the effect of a vegetarian diet upon the human system, one wonders if, after all, it is not the idea as much as the diet that is efficacious in bringing about good health.

In at least two instances it has been proved by these investigators that the arguments made by vegetarians for their particular brand of diet are fallacious. It is claimed by vegetarians that a diet containing an appreciable amount of protein overstimulates the process of digestion and assimilation.

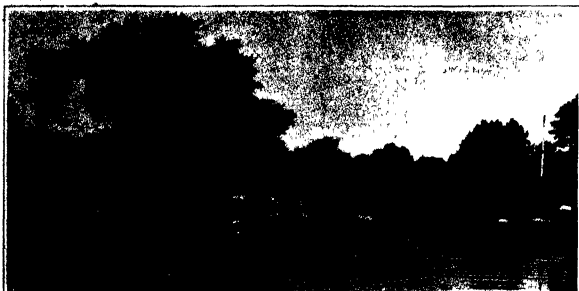
According to the writers, the best method for testing this, and one which is considered very satisfactory, is a comparison of the basal gaseous condition of the two types of eaters. By the term basal gaseous condition is meant the amount of carbon dioxide produced and oxygen consumed when the body is in complete repose at least twelve hours after the last meal has been eaten.

In the experiment, respiration recorded obtained by means of a special apparatus used in all work of this kind, were made on several consecutive days on eleven men and eleven women, nearly all of whom had not eaten meat for at least twelve hours. Records were taken also for the same number of men and women of similar weight and height who were meat eaters. When the two sets of data were compared they were found to be alike almost exactly.

The second assertion made by vegetarians which was put to test was that meat eaters have less endurance and strength than have those who eat a minimum amount of protein. This claim is based on the assumption that those whose diet consists largely of carbohydrates will have stored up in their body a large quantity of glycogen, which affords a source of muscular activity is comparatively easy. But the test disclosed no superiority of vegetarians over meat eaters.



Quite content on his lookout.



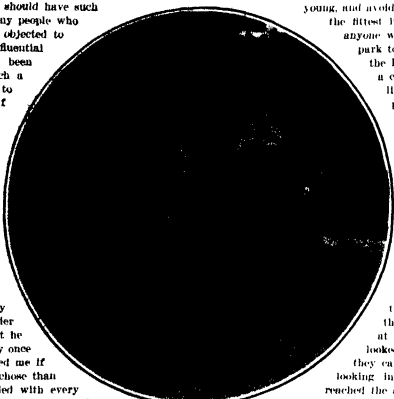
Elk enjoying a cooling dip in a lake at a zoo.

Animal Life in a Zoo

The Modern Way of Keeping Wild Animals

By Alexander Pope

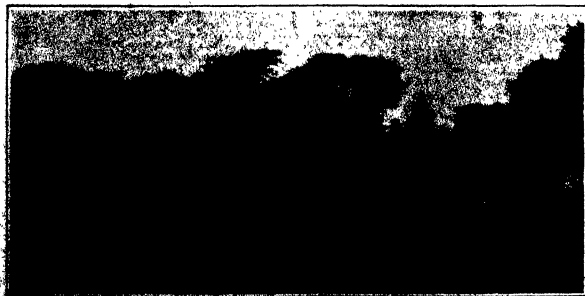
SIXTEEN or seventeen years ago, when I first tried to interest the animal lovers of Boston in a zoological park, almost everyone admitted that Boston, like most of the prominent cities of the country, should have such an institution. There were, however, a good many people who called themselves the "friends of animals," who objected to it on the grounds of cruelty. One friend, an influential newspaper man, whose assistance would have been of great value in organizing and promoting such a project, stated emphatically that he was opposed to the whole scheme, and he did not want to see "half-starved animals pining for their liberty." Since our Boston Zoo has been started and he has seen the conditions under which the animals are kept, he has changed his ideas entirely. If, of all the animals in a zoo the newcomers could vote on the question of whether they should be allowed their liberty or continue in their present condition, I have no doubt that the vote would be overwhelmingly for liberty. I also have no doubt that if at the end of three months it were possible to get the votes of the same individuals, as to whether they would remain at liberty or return to the zoo, a large part would vote to return. Mr. Pocock, director of the London Zoo, once said that he believed a majority of the animals in his care were actually happier than in their wild state, and it is my belief that he was correct in his opinion. One of my own family once said that such a statement was absurd, and asked me if I shouldn't be happier being free to go where I chose than if confined in an elegant mansion and surrounded with every luxury except liberty? Perhaps if I were in fear of my life I might prefer the mansion with restricted liberty, but to compare a man's state of mind with an animal's is unreasonable. An animal does not have a man's hopeless feeling in confinement, he knows he is restrained for the time being, but he does not feel the shame and disgrace, the shattered hopes and ambitions of the human prisoner. Many persons who call themselves "friends of animals" know nothing of the conditions under which these animals live in a state of nature, and think that removal from large ranges, such as the deer and similar animals enjoy in the open, is more of a privation than it really is. There is one thing certain, and that is that the cruelty imposed upon animals in a zoological park is nothing to the cruelty shown one to the other, or rather by the stronger animals to the weaker, in a state of nature, the cat and the mouse being the most familiar



At dignified ease in his rock castle.

instance. The life of all wild animals, from the smallest to the largest, is one continual struggle for existence, hustling for their food, rearing their young, and avoiding their enemies. It is the survival of the fittest, the fittest in this case being the strongest. I would advise anyone who has an unfriendly feeling toward a zoological park to read Mr. Charles Livingston Bull's book, "Under the Roof of the Jungle." Mr. Bull is a naturalist and a close observer of animals, and what he tells about life in the jungle he has learned from his own experience and observation in British Guinea. He says, "Everything in the jungle is in danger, everywhere stalks the grim spectator. And again, 'Life in the jungle is a tragedy, every where the killers lurk out of range in the tree tops, among the trunks down on the ground among the roots and underground, beneath the roots.' Can such things be said of a zoo? Another convincing proof of the terror in which wild animals constantly live is shown in Mr. Paul Halsey's motion pictures of the water hole taken in the heart of Africa. A pair of antelope were seen coming out of the woods into the opening where the water-hole was situated. Did they walk up to the spring as they would to a trough in a zoo and drink what they wanted without any fear of interruption? Not at all; they came out a little way and stopped, looked and listened. Finding the coast apparently clear they came a little nearer, always cautiously and always looking in every direction for an enemy. Finally they reached the spring, and though very thirsty, they took only a few sips at a time, constantly looking and listening always in danger. The same animals in a zoo have to take none of these precautions. At certain times of the day they do look intently and listen not for fear of any enemy but for their keeper who brings them food. Perhaps these terror-stricken animals are happier than their civilized cousins in a zoo. Who knows? Perhaps the most contented animals in a zoo are the deer. These animals are always given a large range, generally with enough trees to provide shade if they prefer that to sunshine, and a shelter which they can use at night, if they choose. Their food is brought to them every day, and they have every opportunity to raise their fawns. There are no hunters or dogs to molest them, and nothing to cause them fear or anxiety. Man, their most dangerous and dreaded enemy

(Continued on page 382)



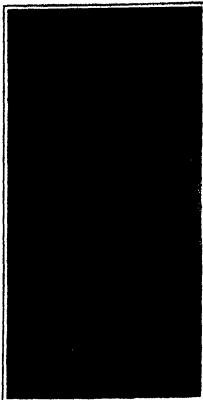
Buffalo feeding in a spacious range.



A cool rocky den for the polar bears.

A Clock Built of Straw

FROM Switzerland, the home of the watch and clock industry, comes the accompanying photograph of a clock made entirely of straw and willow withes. Of course there is no particular value in the use of this material, except to demonstrate the ingenuity of the clockmaker. In this clock there is not a single piece of metal. Even the chains are made of straw put through a special process, so as to give them a fluting tone when struck. Instead of the ordinary swinging pendulum, this clock is provided with a seesaw movement, there being two weights on each side as shown in the photograph. One great difficulty in making the interior mechanism of the clock was to get the proper elasticity in the springs, which were pressed and turned into coils very much resembling Chinese bamboo. The clock is nine feet high with a face eighteen inches in diameter. The base is of wicker construction from which four heavy linked straw chains serve as guys to keep the clock properly balanced. The movement operates 24 hours on each winding. It took over thirty months to complete the clock.



A clock built of straw.

Vacuum System of Gasoline Feed

SOME time ago the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN illustrated and described a system of supplying the carburetors of an automobile with fuel by means of a vacuum system in place of the common gravity or pressure systems. The new method uses a small auxiliary reservoir, which draws its supply from the main tank, locates it at the rear of the machine or under the front seat. It is the vacuum produced as the carburetor uses up the supply of gasoline that is utilized to draw the fuel intermittently from the main tank. As a supreme test of this type

of gasoline feed, the automobile shown in the accompanying engraving was fitted with an elevated front truck which tipped it to a sharp angle. At this angle the carburetor is far above the gravity tank under the front seat, so that it could not possibly get any gasoline from that source. The same is true of any cowl tank in the dash, and at this angle no pressure

could be maintained to pump fuel without appreciable breakage.

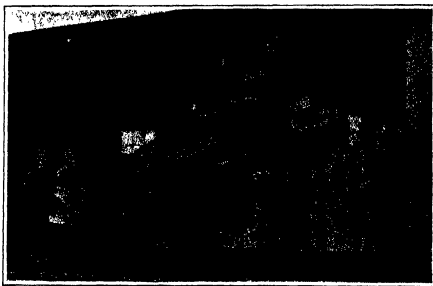
This form of electric loader is really a conveyor supported on two arms hinged from a post in such a manner as to be easily moved into a box car by hand coal or other loose material being conveyed into the car and piled to any depth by the machine with the least amount of breakage. The chute usually is on the loader side of the car and is flexibly attached so as to follow the loader in all positions. It is used to advantage for handling coal and similar material. The chute can be located on the opposite side of the car and a detector at the receiving end of the loader turns the coal as it comes from the chute in the direction of the belt, thereby reducing the breakage of coal and increasing the life and capacity of the belt. In loading coals, the loader is partly withdrawn and the chute placed on the side of the machine in position to fill the center of the car.

Ample fuel feed at any grade.

system could possibly force gasoline to the carburetor. And yet despite this sharp inclination the car was operated with perfect satisfaction with the vacuum system. The angle of the car, according to engineering tables of grade, is approximately the limit where gravity overcomes traction, and no car could climb a steeper grade.

Enormous Mass of Foam

AT first sight one would suppose that the mass of white shown beside the mill in the accompanying photograph is an ice jam. But it is on the wrong side of the mill dam, and, as the title indicates, it is foam instead of ice. This picture was taken on Rock Creek, Morrison, Ill. The foam was 85 feet wide, 40 feet deep, and 450 feet long. The ground had been covered with snow and there was a heavy rain and the weather was greatly disturbed the day before the mass of foam began to collect below the mill-dam. It lasted about three days, and then gradually broke up and drifted away. It remained at its greatest dimensions for about two days. The novel sight was witnessed by hundreds of people, and could be seen for over two miles.



Belt loader for handling lump lime.

The "Serpentine" Car

ONE of the greatest drawbacks in the handling of automobiles in the close traffic of a city, particularly where narrow streets prevail, such as in Boston, is the comparatively large radius required for a complete turn of the car. Some of the taxicabs in New York will turn in an ordinary side street, but by far the majority of motor vehicles need a street of the width of an Avenue to turn around in. To overcome this trouble two New Yorkers have designed a novel type of car which they call the "Serpentine."

Essentially the chassis differs from an ordinary roadster chassis merely in the arrangement of the four wheels. Instead of having these wheels in the orthodox fashion, in pairs at front and rear of the chassis, the "Serpentine" car has one wheel at each side in the center of the car, and one wheel at each extremity, front and rear. The steering arm is so arranged as to turn the latter wheels in opposite directions. As a result the car practically spins around on its center wheels, the front and rear wheels standing at right angles to the axle of the chassis. Traffic policemen stationed at important points, such as Columbus Circle, did not trust their eyes when the car showed up for the first time. The driver swung the steering wheel around just as the car reached the policeman, and it performed a pirouette of the most amazing swiftness. Before the surprised policeman could open his mouth it had darted off in a right-angled direction—after having described an arc of 450 degrees.

An Electrically Operated Loader

THE accompanying illustration shows the construction of a novel electrically driven belt loader for handling large



A car that can turn in its own length.

lump lime without appreciable breakage. This form of electric loader is really a conveyor supported on two arms hinged from a post in such a manner as to be easily moved into a box car by hand coal or other loose material being conveyed into the car and piled to any depth by the machine with the least amount of breakage. The chute usually is on the loader side of the car and is flexibly attached so as to follow the loader in all positions. It is used to advantage for handling coal and similar material. The chute can be located on the opposite side of the car and a detector at the receiving end of the loader turns the coal as it comes from the chute in the direction of the belt, thereby reducing the breakage of coal and increasing the life and capacity of the belt. In loading coals, the loader is partly withdrawn and the chute placed on the side of the machine in position to fill the center of the car.

In order to reduce breakage when starting to load, the conveyor is tilted toward the floor by turning a crank at the rear end of the machine. This is quickly and easily done because of the balanced construction of the loader. The jack for raising and lowering the loader to accommodate it to cars of varying heights is mounted on the loader post and can be easily operated by one man. This is only necessary for large lump coal.

The loader is made with 16-inch or 24-inch belt conveyor for loading sized coal or with 24-inch steel apron conveyor for

(Continued on page 390)



This is not an ice gorge, but an enormous mass of foam collected below a mill dam.

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

These inventions are open to all patentees. The notices are inserted by special arrangement with the inventors. Terms on application to the Advertising Department of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

Revolving to Appear.

CUFF BURTON—J. M. HANCOCK and E. M. BURTON, 123 South E. St., Detroit, Ind. The device connects the ends of cuffs of the flat type, that is, where the ends are superposed face to face instead of being lapped upon each other, and wherein the button is formed from a single strip of material bent upon itself in such manner as to frusly then the ends of the cuff.

INITIAL BUCKLE—L. RANDERS, 621 Broadway, New York, N. Y. The construction in this case permits of the letter plate being readily interchanged, insures their positive retention in position, and the form and arrangement of the face plate are such as to very effectively disguise its character as a means for holding letters, so that the interchangeable character of the letters is not obvious when the belt is worn.

PIN CATCH—MARGARET L. NIXON, 208 W. 103rd St., New York, N. Y. The construction in this case permits of the use of the hat pin with hats of different types, and with the body or band disposed at the outer side of the hat, the pin tongue extending through the hat and the collar of the person wearing the hat, and the point of the pin tongue being held by an S-shaped fastener.

SWAT BAND FOR HEAD GEAR—C. P. MASON and C. M. MASON, Avenue Charles E. MASON & Co., 810 Broadway, N. Y., N. Y. The sweat band consists of a lower strip of leather, chamois, or some similar material which may or may not be washed, and an upper strip with an upper strip of cloth primarily designed to match the interior of the hat or cap and to be sufficiently soft and flexible as to permit the headgear to be blocked with the sweat band therein, thus avoiding the usual creases or ridges in the crown where hats or caps are blocked with the wide leather sweat band, especially due to its stiffness.

Electrical Devices.

TORPEDO—G. F. HILBRICH, 976 Fox St., Bronx, N. Y., N. Y. In this invention the construction gives a visual sign as the mine passes through the water whereby the course of the torpedo may be easily followed. The propelling and controlling means may be adjusted so as to force the torpedo forward and at the same time cause the mine to move on.



TORPEDO.

an even balance notwithstanding the pull of a wire connected therewith. An object is to provide a torpedo which is propelled by power from the shore and controlled by the amount of current supplied, thus allowing the torpedo to be steered from the shore and exploded at any time regardless of its speed and depth or direction of movement.

DEVICE FOR IGNITING FUSES—J. H. REINER, Weimar, near Bochum, Germany. By the present invention substantial re-escape of fumes is avoided by using alternating currents of high frequency for igniting the fuses and by connecting the fuses to the conductor in such a manner that continuous electric currents or alternating currents of ordinary frequency, which may enter the conductor, are not able to ignite the fuse, as this can only be effected with the assistance of a particular kind of current.

Of Interest to Farmers.

BATTERY FOR FARMERS—P. KEMMER, E. D. No. 4, Grattan, N. Y. This invention provides a battery which is disposed above the grain pan and the straw rack, the battery being constructed with a drum having angular grooves in which are disposed rollers which engage and reduce grooves provided battery sides which are prevented from lateral movement by the sides of the angular grooves.

PNEUMATIC PACKER—Y. M. PRINCE, 307 Elliott St., Detroit, N. Y. This invention provides a packer for use in pneumatic stables, so designed that the straw may be delivered readily of the bin directly to the blades or racks, whence the control control of the bin is free and unobstructed to receive the straw and deliver it directly into the straw racks, thus avoiding the double motion of the straw being carried to the straw racks and then being carried back to the straw racks.

STRAW BATTERY—A. S. SUTHERS, Chicago, Ill. The improvement provides a new method of means of which the mixing of a cow

may be accomplished rapidly and economically and with no danger of injuring the animal. The device is of light weight and adjustable so as to permit the movement of the animal during the milking operation.

DAIRY REGISTER—R. L. LACHARRELL, ALBANY, N. Y. This is a device for keeping daily, monthly, and yearly records, being arranged particularly for cows, for the milk yield, and the character of the yield, of each of a plurality of cows, and the whole object thereof is to provide means for keeping such records in a simple manner, and wherein the record of each cow for at least fifteen days is visible day by day, the monthly record of each cow for the preceding year for comparison, the total record of each cow for the current month or less, the total yield of all the cows, and other matters of importance.

MARKER FOR CURVE PLANTING—R. H. MASON, Stratford, Ill. This invention provides a marker for corn planters, which can be easily and quickly attached to any make of corn planter, which is operable from the driver's seat, and which will mark on any kind of ground, rough or smooth, hilly or level.

Of General Interest.

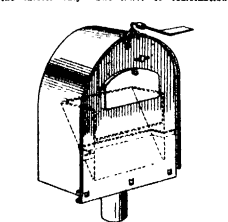
TOOTH BRUSH—C. E. CARROLL, Newport, Ark. By arrangement of the tufts or bristles, the gums are massaged and their free margins are cleaned during the ordinary operation of brushing the teeth, also, by the arrangement of the angles of the tufts of bristles to each other and to the teeth, the roots of the latter and adjacent portions of the gums are thoroughly scrubbed.

PACKAGING TIE—E. F. FORGARD, 1122 N. 4th St., Waco, Tex. One of the principal objects here is to provide a tie with which the ends of a string that has been passed around a package may be securely held, without cutting or abrading the string, which would thereby weaken the same.

STERILIZER—D. W. BUCKER, Boynton, Ill. The device is adapted for the simultaneous sterilization of a number of articles, such as drinking glasses for soda fountains, schools and other public places, wherein the articles are simultaneously washed or cleaned by boiling water, and wherein the articles are arranged during cleaning that the contents may easily escape from the glass, and wherein the articles are thoroughly protected from breakage.

SEA ANCHOR AND OIL TANK—L. KAHN, NEW YORK, N. Y. This invention relates to sea anchors and particularly to sea anchors provided with oil tanks and has for an object to produce a construction of anchor cooperating with an oil tank secured to the anchor which is adapted to supply oil to the waves previous to their striking the anchor.

MAIL BOX—C. F. VERMERE, Oak Box 201, Mooreville, Ind. This invention provides means manually operable for locking and unlocking the box, the lock mechanism being composed of a keyhole and key lock combined and having a middle or intermediate lock or latch. All keys are alike and are for use of the carrier only. The lower or combination



MAIL BOX.

lock is for use of owner of the box the combination lock automatically unlocks the latter, thus making the use of the key very seldom, as the intermediate lock is for use of both parties and works on a plan like a combination lock. The box is provided with a target that is automatically raised when the plan is open. The lock can be manufactured at a small cost.

METHOD FOR LOCATING LIQUID LEVELS—A. A. BARNES, Taft, Cal. The method has for its purpose the location of a liquid surface in a well, and has reference more particularly to the location of water entering an oil or gas well, to which well water is very injurious, and therefore a water strainer must be shut off from the well to make an oil or gas well exploitable.

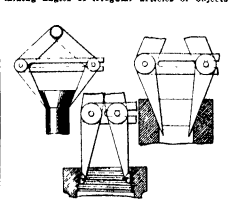
CULVERT FORM—L. H. TOWNS, Address 201, E. Whelan, Bury, Bury, Mass., U.S.A. This inventor provides a form consisting of sections that may be assembled to hold plastic material capable of hardening, as for instance, concrete, in the form of the proper shape, until the material has been hardened to a point where it will stand alone, and which then may be disassembled and removed to recast its resembling at another point.

FOLDING TOOTH BRUSH—L. KAHNA,

384 Alabama Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y., N. Y. This invention provides a brush arranged to permit the user to conveniently extend the brush for use or to fold the same in a hollow handle with a view to take up very little room and to allow of packing the brush into a hand bag, vest pocket, valise or other receptacle without danger of the bristles coming in contact with other articles.

Hardware and Tools.

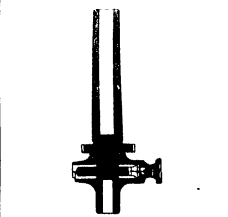
CALIPERS—ANTONIO V. BERNARDI, Bues, Cuba. The invention relates to calipers and the object thereof is to provide such a tool which is adapted for use as a point compass, exterior and interior cone calipers, for determining angles of irregular articles of objects.



CALIPERS.

for determining the overall diameters of exterior or interior screw threads, and for a multiplicity of purposes, and which may also be folded into a very compact form relatively as compact as a pocket knife, for storing when not in use.

ADJUSTABLE BORING TOOL HOLDER—W. C. MOORE, 1052 Lehigh St., Boston, Pa. This invention relates to metal working machinery and has particular reference to holders for boring tools. The invention provides a holder for a boring tool providing for delicate



ADJUSTABLE BORING TOOL HOLDER.

and accurate adjustments for various purposes, including the facilities for reacting a tool to the precise position in which the tool has been set previously, and also to provide precise degrees of adjustment for the boring tool for fine work purposes.

PORTABLE CIRCULAR HANDSAW—J. H. MARTIN, 130 W. 98th St., N. Y., N. Y. The invention provides a saw with mechanical means for operating the saw. An object is to construct the parts that the saw, which is



PORTABLE CIRCULAR HANDSAW.

of the circular type, may be conveniently replaced as may be desired, either by a new saw or with a saw of a different size, or with teeth of any type to meet the conditions of use. (See advertisement on page 391.)

LEVEL—T. COUGHLIN, 1208 Clay Ave., Bronx, N. Y., N. Y. This invention provides a level having a level member which is normally relatively displaced to a circular opening in a frame, an annular flange being provided having leveling offices at necessary in a separate dial and which register with threaded offices in the level member, so that screws which are provided may be displaced in the offices and in the recesses for holding the level member in adjusted position.

CONBATED IRON FASTENER—M. A. COLE, Havana, N. Y. This invention relates to devices for corrugated sheet metal; and an object is to provide a structure which may be quickly applied and removed. The invention provides a device in which a minimum number of parts are used without sacrificing any of the strength or retaining ability of the device.

AUTOMATIC RASH LOCK—J. H. BRATTON, Jones, Tenn. This invention relates to im-

provements in ash locks and more particularly to an improvement upon the structure illustrated in Mr. Barton's Patent No. 179,075. In that the device is automatic in its operation in engaging and holding the ashlock against movement that is to prevent the upper ash from being lowered and the lower from being raised.

Heating and Lighting.

PIPE SUPPORT—W. B. GRAY, 1327 S. 2nd St., Louisville, Ky. The present invention is that the device is automatic in its operation for its object to provide a device adapted to carry a certain character of pipe used in heating systems, or for other purposes wherein the pipe is subject to expansion and contraction.

AUTOMATIC DAMPER—A. W. ARNOLD, 1345 Randolph Ave., Chicago, Ill. This invention relates to automatic dampers of the type comprising one or more pivoted wings adapted to swing normally by gravity open in the path of the draft in a stove pipe or furnace flue and having means for varying the automatic closing operation of said wings according to the variations in draft in said pipe or flue due either to outside wind influence or draft caused directly by variations in heat within the stove or furnace.

THERMOSTATIC MEANS FOR OPERATING HOT AIR HEATING SYSTEMS—H. B. BURNETT, New York, Pa. This invention relates to improvements in devices for operating the registers of hot air heating systems, and an object is to provide a simple device which may be used in connection with a hot air heating system which will automatically open and close the register gates.

AUTOMATIC HEAT CONTROLLING DEVICE—A. P. BROWNE, New York, Pa. An object here is to provide a device which may be used in connection with a hot air heating system, and an object is to provide a device which may be used in connection with a hot air heating system which will automatically open and close the register gates.

Household Utilities.

EXTENSION TABLE—D. F. OLIVER, care of Hotel Ponchartrain, Detroit, Mich. The purpose here is to provide a table having slidable and hinged and extension leaves at the middle of the table and adapted when not in use to be folded within the table rim the arrangement permitting of ready movement of the extension leaves into extended position flush with the end leaves.

SHOWER—P. H. VOLKMER and KARL KREMER, care of the latter, 1281 Putnam Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y., N. Y. Among the principal objects which the present invention has in view are to provide a device which is long enough to accommodate variations in the rooms in which the bath is placed and to provide for variations in the height of the person with the service to which it is put.

DOOR HANGER—R. J. WILNER and G. POLKE, Address the former 60 Irving St., Portland, Ore. The invention provides a hanger especially adapted for use with a series of doors or windows for hanging the doors and windows together and for hanging the doors and windows to a track bar to permit the doors or windows to take a position in the same plane or in parallel planes.

Machines and Mechanical Devices.

VARIABLE SPEED GEARING—J. W. CAMPBELL, P. O. Box 40, Reno, Nev. The object here is to provide a transmission gearing by means of which various speeds may be imparted to the drive shaft, and in which the change from one speed to another is accomplished by means of clutch members without the necessity of shifting gear out of or into mesh with certain other gears.

CIGARETTE MACHINE—E. C. GALLUP, 231 Broadway, New York, N. Y. This invention provides a structure for the making of cigarettes from a continuous strip rolled to provide a wrapper and continuous filled with tobacco or the like, while the longitudinal edges of the strip are united so that the cigarettes may be



CIGARETTE MACHINE.

cut off from the proper lengths as the filled wrapper is fed from the machine. He also provides means for feeding the tobacco into a filler tube for subsequently discharging the tobacco into a wrapper which is closed and fed in a novel way into the machine.

INTERMITTENT TRANSMISSION MECHANISM—C. CAMPBELL, care of Rye Co., 33 36th St., Brooklyn, N. Y. The invention provides a new mechanical movement to convert a re-occurring into rotary motion, and is designed

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for different machines in which it is required to lock a driven rotary element at predetermined angles. A reciprocating member has a spring pressed transverse pin to engage teeth on the driven element and actuate the latter step by step. The device includes means whereby the driven element is locked against retrograde movement, or accidental forward movement, between the regular forward impulses.

ICE BREAKING MACHINE—A. G. Kouskous, Waco, Tex. The invention relates to ice breaking machines, and one of the principal objects is to provide a machine whereby cables of ice may be broken up into pieces of the desired dimensions, in a quick and accurate manner and with a minimum amount of waste.

BUTTON ATTACHING MACHINE—B. Kouskous, 172 Lorimer St., Brooklyn, N. Y. In the present patent the invention has reference to button attaching machines of that type which include a mechanism for pulling, driving, and clamping the staples whereby the buttons are attached to shoes, gaiters, leggings, and other articles. The machine is so designed as to be adapted for use with buttons of different sizes.

APPARATUS FOR DRYING MATRICES—URSHI FOR STEREOGRAPHIC PERSONS—C. W. Kouskous, Waco, Tex. The invention provides a device for automatically arresting the drum in a suitable position for taking out the matrices. The apparatus is further constructed, that by closing or opening the door of the drum, the driving mechanism for the drum is simultaneously put into or out of operation. Means provide that on opening the door the clock is closed somewhat, while on closing the door it is opened.

ADJUSTABLE TABLE FOR WIRE CLOTH RACKS—W. G. Newman, 660 S. Main St., Salt Lake City, Utah. An object here is to provide a table which is elevated or lowered and which may be locked in its shifted positions so as to form a cutting table and a measuring table for rules of wire cloth areas which may be of different heights at different portions of the rack.

AUTOMATIC GASOLINE SERVICE—S. F. Morrison, 2323 Kipling Ave., New Orleans, La. While the device is adapted for dispensing various liquids, the object primarily is to provide a means adaptable for supplying gasoline or the like for automobile use, at any time of day or night, and without requiring the presence of the owner or attendant to assist in such delivery.

ROLL MILL FOR HARD MATERIALS—H. Atkinson, Berlin, Germany. In this new mill an output of 3,500 kilograms of finished cement is obtained when only 10,000 kilograms of raw material are passed through the machine. This increase over existing mills is due to the fact that the rolls and grinding ring are kept free from fine material, so that the material which is still coarse is not subjected to the grinding action in a lot of material. A further advantage is that the transport apparatus has less material to deal with, so that low power is required.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.

ROTARY STEAM ENGINE—E. A. Mack, 427 E. Princeton St., Florence, N. C. This invention provides a rotary steam engine which is very compact, perfectly balanced, composed of few parts, not liable to get out of order, and arranged to run at a high rate of speed and to utilize motive agent to the fullest advantage.

Railways and Their Accessories.

MAIL, BAG, RECOVERING AND DELIVERING MECHANISM—H. F. Novak, 4426 South Liberty St., New Orleans, La. The primary object here is not only to facilitate the delivery of mail with speed and dispatch to and from trains at a high rate of speed past stations where no stop is scheduled, and posts and other points along the route, but to increase the efficiency and capacity of such devices, whereby large quantities of mail may be handled and delivered to the required recipients with the idea of producing a standard device.

RULL, POINT—G. H. Martin, 10414 West 2nd St., Oklahoma, Okla. One of the principal objects of the invention is to provide a joint so constructed as to securely maintain the rail ends in position, without the use of bolts and nuts, which, as is well known, have a tendency to become loose by the vibration given the joints upon passage of rolling stock therefrom.

CAR WINDOW CLEANER—A. J. Burgess, 2284 First Ave., Manhattan, New York, N. Y. The purpose here is to provide a simple, strong, and efficient window cleaner which can be easily and quickly attached to or removed from a window frame and whereby the outer surface of the window can be wiped from within without disturbing the window frame.

BRAKE RIG—J. E. Worawick, 215 N. Lawrence St., Montgomery, Ala. The shoe is for use with car of every kind, and especially for use with chain drive from wheels, wherein the elements constituting the shoe are so arranged that when the shoe is in contact with the wheel, a constant rubbing efficiency will result with a minimum of heat evolution, and wherein the shoe will draw the periphery of the wheel at every point except where the wheel is engaged by the nut except

for different machines in which it is required to lock a driven rotary element at predetermined angles. A reciprocating member has a spring pressed transverse pin to engage teeth on the driven element and actuate the latter step by step. The device includes means whereby the driven element is locked against retrograde movement, or accidental forward movement, between the regular forward impulses.

CHAIN SIGNAL FOR TRAILERS—J. E. McGowan, 30 W. 124th St., New York, N. Y. The purpose here is to provide a device whereby the uncoupled chains to a trailer or derrick may be quickly and easily located by the attendants, of by means of sounding for each. The invention provides a means for detouring when two such uncoupled chains are adjacent to each other, in the same row of chains.

Perforating in Vehicles.
PNEUMATIC TIRE FOR ROAD VEHICLES—K. H. Davenport, 24 Avenue Chambers, Southampton Row, London, W.C., England. This invention is designed to provide a tire in which the shutter ends of the segments are strengthened so as to meet the tendency of such segments to burst when in use. In combination with the segmental rubber tube of the invention, the inventor provides a faced on cover which allows of any punctured segments being removed and repaired.

DUMPING WAGON—J. J. McGowan, 48 W. 124th St., New York, N. Y. The improvement has for an object to provide a structure which may be readily dumped and again readily restored to its original position. It also provides a device for dumping the material contained in the wagon, and for automatically returning the wagon to its original position.

CHAIN TOOL—E. F. McGowan, Van Nuys, Cal. The invention relates to a non-skid or mud chain used on automobile wheels which may be tightened. The invention provides a tool including a double bar having a hook at one end to engage one end of the chain, and a lever provided with pawls for co-operating with the other end of the bar, carrying a hook for engaging the opposite end of the chain.

ASH CART AND CAN—H. Karvon, 126 E. 2nd St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a contrivance which will automatically bring into register the top of the can and the opening of the cart, so that the ash can be carried on during the upturning movement of the can to deliver the contents into the cart, and which will return the cart to its normal position when the can is turned to its normal position.

DEMOUNTABLE RIM TOOL—M. M. Harnack, 301 Henshaw Bldg., Danville, Va. The invention refers to tools for use in connection with demountable rims for motor vehicles and the like, and more particularly to a tool at which is attached to, and detachable from, a rim to provide for its detachment from a tire dismounted thereon, irrespective of the manner and means by which the rim is or may be demountably secured upon the wheel.

Designs.
DESIGN FOR A RAINBOW OR SIMILAR ORNAMENT—M. C. Ranshaw, 30 Irving St., Waltham, Mass. In this ornamental design the badge is represented by four large solid 7s crossing one another. In the center of which is a circle holding the legend LUCKY STARS. Between those words is a space marked by seven up and down arrows.

DESIGN FOR A WOVEN AND PRINTED RIBBON—H. J. Jacob and E. Brock, care of Johnson, Ogden & Co., 129 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. The ornamental design in this row represents a ribbon on which are bunched the characteristic flowers of the States of the United States of America.

DESIGN FOR A RADIATOR HOOD—D. McRae Livingston, 150 E. 30th St., New York, N. Y. In this ornamental design for a radiator hood there are three views. The first is a front presentation, the second a side elevation, and the third a rear perspective view. The design is highly original, graceful, and attractive.

DESIGN FOR A GLASS VESSEL OR SIMILAR ARTICLE—T. H. Campbell, care of H. H. Campbell Co., 40 South 4th St., Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. This is an ornamental design for a glass vase.

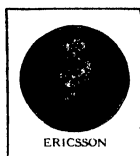
DESIGN FOR A KNITWEAR—A. Bennett, 123 Prince St., New York, N. Y. In this ornamental design for a sweater, there are two views of a round tufted cord ending in a tassel.

Notes—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the Scientific American for ten cents each. Please state name of a patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

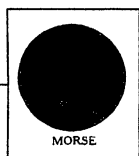
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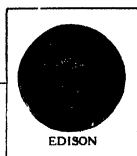




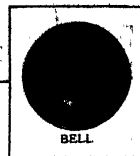
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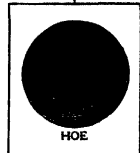
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WESTINGHOUSE



HOE



WILBUR WRIGHT



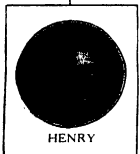
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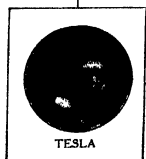
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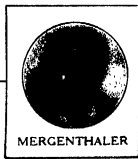
HENRY



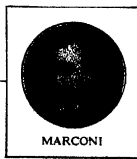
PARSONS



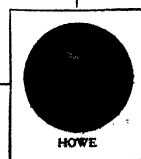
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The
70th Anniversary
Number of the
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June 5th, 1915

THE Scientific American was founded seventy years ago, at a time when the United States of America was industrially less developed than South Africa at the present time. Even territorially, it was not the same country we know now, for California, Texas, and the great Southwest belonged to Mexico.

During that long period of seventy years the Scientific American faithfully chronicled the technical and industrial progress which we Americans made. Its editors saw the advent of the reaper, the telegraph, the telephone, the great trans-continental railways, the laying of the transatlantic cable, the development of the giant steamship, the perfection of the phonograph, the glow of the first electric incandescent lamp, the coming of the motion picture machine, the miracles wrought by wireless telegraphy, and more recently the conquest of the air.

What an age of wonders it has been! What a transformation has been wrought upon the face of the earth! Surely no tale of the Arabian Nights, no fantasy of Jules Verne depicts marvels so amazing as those which the Scientific American has been the first to describe authoritatively as soon as they appeared. Who would have thought, seventy years ago, that with the aid of the X-rays we could look through a man's body, that friend could talk with friend from New York to San Francisco, that Niagara Falls would illuminate cities; that street cars would move magically through our towns without any apparent means of propulsion; that pictures would be sent

by wire from New York to Chicago, and that by means of the boundless ether a solitary passenger ship on a desolate ocean still keeps in touch with civilization.

It has been the privilege of the Editors of the Scientific American to know the men whose master minds have wrought these things, and to hear from their own lips the story of their struggles and their triumphs. Ericsson, Morse, Edison—the whole dynasty of inventive genius which has made the nation what it is—the editors have known them all.

Seventy years is a turning point not only in the life of a man, but in the life of any enterprise. It seems fitting that the occasion should be commemorated by the publication of a number which will review the progress that the United States of America has made in the three-score years and ten of our existence.

In June a number will appear which the Editors hope will do full justice to the great theme of American invention—a number which will transport us all back to the time when our fathers and our grandfathers still burned candles, when horses pulled street cars, when there were no automobiles and when the steam railway was a curiosity that people would travel miles to see. The motion picture machine of industrial progress will be turned backward, and the flickering film will make you wonder what the future will have in store if so much that is wonderful has happened in the past.

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**The Chalmers
dollar**

It used to be 960 miles from Chicago to New York. Now it is 20 hours.

How rapidly we shift—and better—how rapidly we shift our standards of measurement!

Motor cars have been in turn measured by appearance, design, construction, price, power.

Now these things are pretty well standardized in all the different priced motor cars.

The things by which the motor-wise man now measures is *cost of upkeep*.

You can get upkeep cost down to nearly nothing—but not if you get what you demand from a motor car.

And here comes the discussion about weight.

Someone asked Abraham Lincoln how long a man's legs ought to be.

"About long enough to reach from his body to the ground, I should say," replied Mr Lincoln.

And a motor car needs enough strength to carry its necessary weight—no more—no less.

Saving on gasoline and oil may be saving at the spigot, to run out at the repair bung hole.

Between any two cars—there are only a few dollars' difference in a season's oil and gas cost, but parts and repairs cost to beat the band.

Good tires are all adjusted to your car and sold on a guaranteed mileage basis.

So you should demand that your car should be heavy enough to stand up on country roads without danger or big repair bills; light enough to be reasonably economical of gas and oil.

Among this kind of motor cars, the Chalmers car is supreme when you consider the cost of the motor car while you *have* it, instead of its cost when you *get* it.

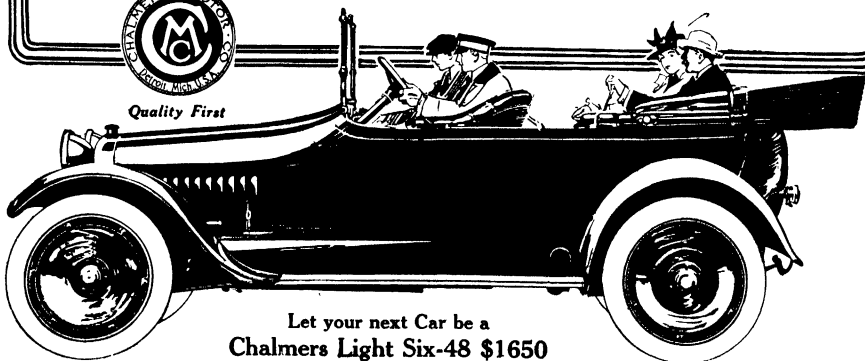
The Chalmers line for 1915 consists of 3 "Economical Sixes;" the New Six-40 at \$1400; the Light Six-48 at \$1650 and the Master Six-54 at \$2400.

Go to the nearest Chalmers dealer's and look them over.

Chalmers Motor Company, Detroit



Quality First



**Let your next Car be a
Chalmers Light Six-48 \$1650**

THE
70th Anniversary
NUMBER of the
Scientific American
June 5th, 1915

THE Scientific American was founded seventy years ago, at a time when the United States of America was industrially less developed than South Africa at the present time. Even territorially, it was not the same country we know now; for California, Texas, and the great Southwest belonged to Mexico.

During that long period of seventy years the Scientific American faithfully chronicled the technical and industrial progress which we Americans made. Its editors saw the advent of the reaper, the telegraph, the telephone, the great trans-continental railways, the laying of the transatlantic cable, the development of the giant steamship, the perfection of the phonograph, the glow of the first electric incandescent lamp, the coming of the motion picture machine, the miracles wrought by wireless telegraphy, and more recently the conquest of the air.

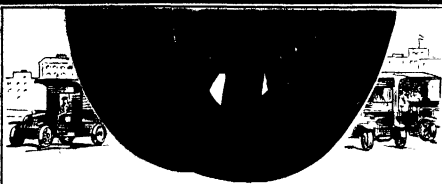
What an age of wonders it has been! What a transformation has been wrought upon the face of the earth! Surely no tale of the Arabian Nights, no fantasy of Jules Verne depicts marvels so amazing as those which the Scientific American has been the first to describe authoritatively as soon as they appeared. Who would have thought, seventy years ago, that with the aid of the X-rays we could look through a man's body; that friend could talk with friend from New York to San Francisco; that Niagara Falls would illuminate cities; that street cars would move magically through our towns without any apparent means of propulsion; that pictures would be sent by wire from New York to Chicago, and that by means of the boundless ether a solitary passenger ship on a desolate ocean still keeps in touch with civilization.

It has been the privilege of the Editors of the Scientific American to know the men whose master minds have wrought these things, and to hear from their own lips the story of their struggles and their triumphs. Ericson, Morse, Edison—the whole dynasty of inventive genius which has made the nation what it is—the editors have known them all.

Seventy years is a turning point not only in the life of a man, but in the life of any enterprise. It seems fitting that the occasion should be commemorated by the publication of a number which will review the progress that the United States of America has made in the three-score years and ten of our existence.

In June a number will appear which the Editors hope will do full justice to the great theme of American invention—a number which will transport us all back to the time when our fathers and our grandfathers still burned candles, when horses pulled street cars, when there were no automobiles and when the steam railway was a curiosity that people would travel miles to see. The motion picture machine of industrial progress will be turned backward, and the flickering film will make you wonder what the future will have in store if so much that is wonderful has happened in the past.

MUNN & COMPANY, Inc.
WOLWORTH BUILDING NEW YORK CITY



Truck Tires Free

**If the Goodyear S-V Does Not
Outwear Any Other**

This is to settle Truck Tire claims in a quick and a final way. Arguments don't settle things, and comparisons are costly.

For three months—April, May and June—we shall put S-V Truck Tires on as many wheels as you wish under this guarantee.

This Amazing Warrant

Equip opposite wheels, at the same time, one with a Goodyear S-V, one with any other standard make tire of like rated size, bought in the open market.

If the Goodyear S-V fails to cost less per mile than the other, we will return you its full purchase price, making the S-V free.

Get this guarantee in writing when you buy the tires. It will cover the life of them. Then you will know, beyond argument or question, which Truck Tire is best.

A Million-Dollar Offer

Unless the Goodyear S-V does excel, that three-month offer might easily cost us a million dollars or over. But we know to a certainty that, barring accidents, the S-V will win these tests. And the world will know, when the tests are ended, that Goodyear experts have solved the Truck Tire problems.

Took 8 Years

It took us eight years to attain this finis in Truck Tires. We built 29 types before reaching this one, and we built 74 models of this S-V type. Before making this offer, we tested 5,000 of the perfected tires and compared them with all other makes. That's how we know that you can't find a tire that will compare with S-V's in low cost per mile.

The S-V will win for these reasons: It gives you 20 per cent more available tread rubber. It gives you a shape which ends bulging, breaking or excessive grind. It gives you a compound which saves undue friction, taxing tire and power. It gives you a tire which can't creep. It is pressed on at a minimum of 50,000 pounds, without an auxiliary fastening.

It gives you an inseparable tire. By a secret process, the tread, the backing and the rim are welded into lasting union.

GOOD YEAR
AKRON, OHIO
S-V Truck Tires

Accept this offer in fairness to yourself. It will show you a way to save many a dollar, or the S-V tires are free. Ask our local branch to tell you where these tires and this warrant can be had.

THE GOODYEAR TIRE & RUBBER CO., Desk 132, Akron, O.
Makers of Goodyear Automobile Tires
We Make Demountable, Black, Gashless, Pneumatic and Other Types of Truck Tires

Goodrich SILVERTOWN

CORD IN NAME - CORD IN CONSTRUCTION

The Great Tire

that has won the highest regard without grand-scale exploitation or glittering appeal for favor. In this particular, if no other, the SILVERTOWN Cord Tire occupies a position as unique as it is individual and inviting.

For three years it has delivered a tire service with fewest limitations and greatest freedom from the common causes of tire trouble—All because of the exclusive

TWO PLY, RUBBER COVERED, RUBBER IMPREGNATED, CABLE CORD CONSTRUCTION

which involves a hundred perfected details—the logical result of continuous experience, experiment, and invention (in respect to pneumatic tires made of *two plies* of isolated strands) which we began in 1895, twenty years ago.

The construction is protected by United States patents controlled by the B. F. Goodrich Company.

**No Other Tires Embodying the Silvertown
Principles Are Made or Sold in the United States**

Bear in mind SILVERTOWN is the word that identifies the only cord tire that alone can employ the construction, methods and experience necessary for your expectations.

Why not investigate? There's a Goodrich branch in a hundred big cities and a Goodrich dealer everywhere

"If it isn't a SILVERTOWN, it isn't a CORD"

The B. F. Goodrich Co.

Factories: AKRON, OHIO
Branches and Dealers Everywhere

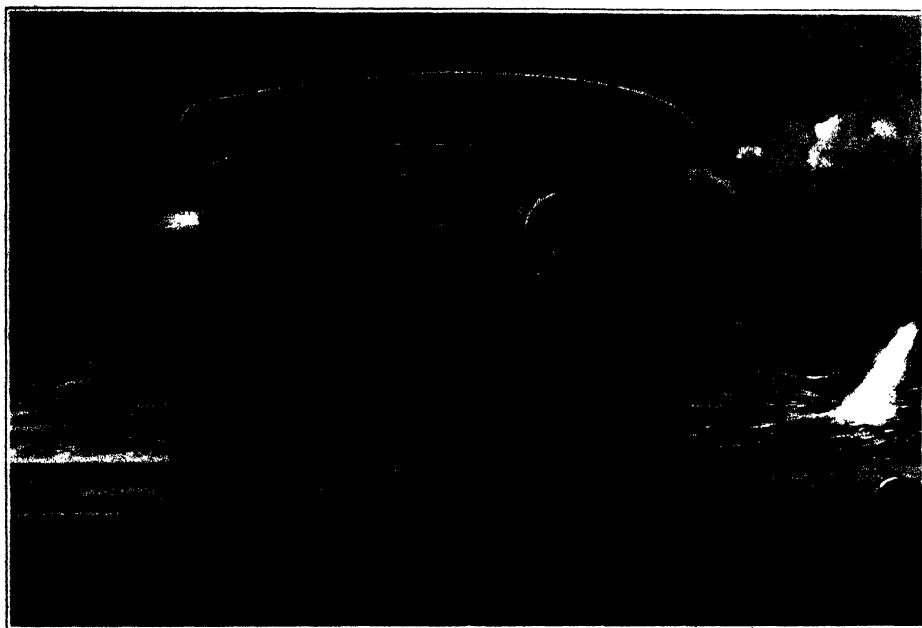
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SEVENTY-FIRST YEAR

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

NEW YORK, MAY 1, 1915

VOLUME CXLII
NUMBER 11[IS SENT AS A COPY
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Disappearing guns which it is reported are used on German commerce-destroying submarines.

The Submarine as a Commerce Destroyer

THE submarine in the role of a commerce destroyer has proved a surprise to the military world, and the Germans have again won through their initiative. But it was inevitable that this method of attack would prove too expensive if hits were to be made by the torpedo alone. The merchant craft of the allies were not slow in realizing the limitations of the under-sea boat when relying upon the mechanical fish as a weapon of destruction, and many have been the instances where signaling and full speed have made it possible for the ship of trade to dodge the oncoming torpedo.

Latterly, the U-boats have been halting their queries by means of gunfire and then have blown them up, after abandonment, by dynamite charges planted aboard where they would be likely to sink the merchantmen quickest. But this order of procedure has now become impracticable because of the greater alertness of the flotillas of British and French destroyers. Accordingly, the Germans are now sending the traders to the bottom by gunfire alone in many instances, and this method of attack is far more formidable than has hitherto been believed possible on the part of submarines. Its present climax is extremely significant, for it heralds a new stage in the offensive development of the under-sea boat.

It is a matter of common report that the German submarines that figured prominently in the early months of the war were equipped with two sorts of guns. One a 37-millimeter weapon rising from a fixed pedestal about a shaft of thick steel cylinder and the other, a more formidable piece, arranged to disappear into the superstructure and to throw a 12-pound projectile. This gun is a strong, low-powered rifle, having a caliber of 4.4 in. caliber, and its moderate range likely to prove an important handicap for a torpedo boat. But

again this meant exposure for the gun's crew, for the men had to come out upon the deck in plain sight if the submarine were running light, as she would of necessity have to be, to measure forces in this fashion with a surface fighting craft. To get under suddenly, the deck hatch might have to be closed before the men at the gun could retreat into the submarine.

On the 26th of March the "Crown of Castle," a British steamer, was sunk off the Kelly Islands by the German submarine "U-28," and she was sent to the bottom, according to her crew, by shell fire. But this attack, so it is reported, was not made by 12 pound projectiles, but by shell of 4-inch caliber. The 4-inch gun fires a shot weighing in the neighborhood of 33 pounds, and surely this marks an important advance in artillery for submarines. The "Crown of Castle" tried to outdistance her pursuer and to stray away from torpedoes, but the German commander not only had superior speed to draw upon, but he had also a surprise in the shape of this newest of under-water-boat guns. Now this development confirms a rumor of recent months that the Kaiser's submarines were being supplied with bigger guns and that these weapons were installed in a novel manner, in fact, so mounted that they would not be continually exposed to the corrosive action of salt water when the craft were running submerged. Further, the arrangement was such that the gun crews did not have to stand upon the open deck.

We are able to illustrate, from a reliable source, the housing, gun and mount, which is said to be identical with that employed by the Germans in their very latest and largest U-boats. It is quite manifest that the installation is a long stride forward in making the submarine more formidable and efficient, especially when used as a commerce destroyer or when called upon to put up a fight against the worst of her present foes,

the high-speed sea-going torpedo boats. More than that, the arrangement shelters the gun crews from aerial attack. The particular installation which we are able to show is that for a quick-firing 14 pounder, but the operative principles would be the same for heavier weapons, such as the 4-inch rifles which we are told some of the U-boats now carry.

The gun, with its superposed recoil cylinder and sheltering hood, is mounted upon a revolving pedestal provided with seats for two operators, one controlling lateral movement and the other manipulating the elevating gear with his left hand and firing with his right. The revolving pedestal, in its turn, is supported by a plunger elevator functioned by means of a pneumatic cylinder. The gun-hood is really the hatch cover, and when the weapon is lowered this cover is water-tight against a rubber gasket in the recess at the top of the hatch or barbettes. The gun pointers take their positions when the elevator is lowered, and rise with the rifle when the hatch cover lifts and the gun is cleared for action. The piece can be elevated and lowered in a few seconds.

It is perfectly plain that an installation of this character adds in fact and potentially much to the military powers of a submarine. Because guns of this sort can be worked in the semi-light trim a submarine need not expose so much of her hull or superstructure and, accordingly, should be able just so much quicker to seal up and disappear below the waves for greater security. It is equally evident that a disappearing mount of this nature can be housed beneath and within protecting armor of moderate thickness and a frontal shield set upon the gun, thereby greatly increasing the resistance against attack. In this we can see the first step in an evolutionary line which will blaze the way to the still larger sea-going submarine with its upper works in mail,

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles on subjects of timely interest. If the illustrations are sharp the articles short and the facts accurate, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

Scientific Solidarity in Wartime

IN the annual report of the United States Weather Bureau for 1907-8 it is recorded, as a noteworthy example of scientific solidarity, that during the war between the United States and Spain the weather forecasters at Washington continued to receive regular meteorological reports by cable from the official Spanish observer at Havana. We cite this episode as an instance in which the spirit of international comity among scientific men (or was it exaggerated Spanish politeness?) appears to have been inconsistent with the demands of patriotism. Presumably the weather reports from Havana aided the American Government in the task of protecting its fleet from the West India hurricanes which might otherwise have proved valuable allies of the Spaniards.

In Europe, during the present war, the interchange of weather observations that prevails in time of peace has been suspended between belligerent countries, while the reports that are still exchanged between friendly countries are withheld from publication until they have ceased to be of more than academic interest. The fact that German meteorologists no longer receive ended weather reports from the British Isles is said to have been directly responsible for the wreck of the two Zeppelins in Denmark last February.

It is evident that non-of science, unless they throw patriotism overboard altogether—must curtail their habitual relations with their colleagues in a hostile country in time of war, but it does not follow that these relations must be completely abandoned even for the time being, much less that future relations should be embittered by intemperate acts and words during the period of hostilities.

The European war will not last forever. When it is over, intercourse will necessarily be resumed between the scientific men of all the countries now embroiled. There are many scientific enterprises that absolutely depend upon international co-operation, and there is no branch of science in which such co-operation is not helpful. Will not many European scientists then have cause to regret the gratuitous stars they are now casting wholesale upon the science of the enemy? This campaign of vituperation has been in some quarters, as actively carried on as the military and naval operations.

We are glad to learn that a few, at least, of the co-operative scientific undertakings in which the belligerent countries are particularly active have not been seriously disturbed by this senseless war. The work of the International Latitude Observatories goes on as usual, the German regional bureau of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature continues to send bibliographic material to the central bureau in London, and the members of the International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature still record their votes as in time of peace.

Radium as a Fertilizer

A TIMELY bulletin has just been published by the Illinois Agricultural Experiment Station, at Urbana. In it Messrs. Cyril G. Hopkins and Ward H. Sachs report the results of two years' field

trials of radioactive substances applied as fertilizers, and also discuss the general question of crop stimulation versus soil enrichment.

After reviewing the contradictory results thus far obtained in properly controlled experiments regarding the effects of radium on plant growth—a subject which has already produced a voluminous literature—the writers point out that "efforts are being made to add radioactive substances to the list of commercial fertilizers and stimulants that farmers are used to buy," thus bringing the subject well within the purview of the State experiment stations, whose activities are not prompted by commercial motives. An analogous situation exists with respect to radioactive waters, the alleged therapeutic virtues of which have received careful attention from the U. S. Public Health Service.

The substantially negative results obtained in the experiments at Urbana will not surprise anyone familiar with previous experiments of the same character as reported in the scientific journals, rather than in the newspapers and the popular magazines. We need not dwell upon this feature of the bulletin, but we think it opportune to record the stand taken by the authors against attempts at crop stimulation in general as an ordinary agricultural practice.

Assuming radioactive fertilizers to be effective and dependable—which apparently they are not—the authors argue that "the effect would be that of a stimulant and the increase in crop yields would be secured at the expense of the soil. Thus the soil would not be enriched in fertility, but actually impoverished by such treatment."

This argument applies also to the still problematical methods of electroculture, and even to the practice of excessive cultivation by means of extra deep tillage, either with subsoil plows or with dynamite.

"Even if such practices were temporarily profitable, they might not be advisable, because they tend to make the soil poorer, and the same expense in time and money, if applied to phosphate, clover, or manure, which are highly profitable on our common soils, would tend toward positive soil enrichment and permanent preservation of fertility."

This is an important point, and one that has been almost universally overlooked. We believe, however, that there is a rather side to the question; for there are cases in which the advantages of forcing a crop into order to secure an early yield more than offset the disadvantages of a temporary depletion of the soil. Radioactive fertilizers and electrocultural processes will have their legitimate use whenever they become practical—if they ever do.

The Beginning of a New Epoch in the Motor Truck Industry

CLOSE observers of the motor truck situation in this country have been noting several tendencies of late which seem to portend an entirely new epoch in this industry—one that seems destined to have a far-reaching effect on the whole system of manufacture, sale, and maintenance of commercial motor vehicles. The change is being brought about, not only through economic causes, apparently, and will do so, it is believed, to offset some of the unsound conditions which have been more or less of a disturbing factor to the best growth of the industry ever since its inception.

To realize fully just what this change is and what its consequences are, one must go back and note how the commercial motor vehicle business actually began and how it has developed through its short span of years. The motor truck industry really had its beginning as a sort of side line to the pleasure car business. The early manufacturers found that there was a demand for light commercial vehicles which they could readily supply by merely fitting their standard chassis with lower gear ratios and putting on special construction types of bodies. In consequence of this development from the touring car, the same salesmen usually served for both lines, and not until very recent years has the commercial and light body thoroughly divorced from the pleasure vehicle line.

Pleasure car salesmen naturally did not probe very deeply into the traffic problems of their prospects. They were chiefly interested in getting sales regardless of whether or not their customers could properly care for and maintain their trucks after purchase. Even with the later system of selling through trained salesmen who make a more careful analysis of each customer's requirements can only be secured by employing competent, skilled drivers and mechanics as well as providing a proper equipment for the maintenance and repair of the vehicle. Failure to carry out these obligations often makes the otherwise most useful motor truck a veritable "white elephant" on its owner's hands.

Now, in order to successfully meet these necessary qualifications, the small motor truck owner (who has one or two vehicles only) must do one of two things: He must either employ one good driver-mechanic, be sure for his machine and also own or rent proper storage facilities, or he must pay some garage for its repairs, storage, and maintenance. In either instance his expenses are likely to be considerably out of proportion to the trucking facilities received, for in one case he really maintains equipment which is not sufficient for a much larger number of vehicles than he actually uses, and in the other he must pay regular garage rates with the repairman's profit added.

The question therefore naturally arises, Would it not be better for the small motor truck owner, if, instead of attempting to purchase and maintain vehicles of his own, he rent them from a trucking company, either regularly or by the trip? Wouldn't he really save money, to say nothing of escaping the worries and troubles of trying to maintain one's own transportation equipment? There are indications that not only the small user but also the manufacturers themselves are beginning to see the light and are rapidly coming to an affirmative conclusion in the matter.

From the manufacturer's standpoint, there is no question but that the present system of marketing commercial vehicles and keeping their owners satisfied is both wasteful and detrimental to the best development of the industry. The very fact that the small truck user will not, because economically he really cannot, properly maintain his vehicles, has forced the manufacturers to provide expensive traveling representatives, through branches and traveling representatives, at ruinous cost.

The large user can afford to own his trucks outright and properly maintain them because the necessary equipment and skilled labor cost is divided over several vehicles. Therefore, the free inspection and service of the manufacturer and his branches are not necessary, but for the small user, but he naturally takes advantage of it just the same, to the further discomfiture of the manufacturer. If this expensive feature of the manufacturer were to be cut off entirely, the big user would not give up his trucks, because to him they are not only economically practical, but well-justified indispensable to his business. The small user, therefore, the thorn in the flesh that is driving the manufacturer to tackle the problem from another angle, i. e., on the rental basis.

Theoretically, the advantages of the rental system appear very attractive both for the small user and the manufacturer. As far as the former is concerned, he should receive adequate motor truck facilities at considerably less cost than at present. His time and attention could be devoted strictly to his business, aside from the regular oversight of his traffic, schedules, routes, etc. He could secure a truck of proper capacity for each particular load instead of, for instance, trying to make a three-ton truck carry a five-ton load, as is likely to be the temptation under the present conditions, and he would be saved a considerable investment in rapidly depreciating equipment.

On the manufacturer's side there should be a lessening of the free service cost, for large centralized trucking companies would be fully as capable of caring for themselves as large private owners. The selling cost would be reduced because of the narrowing of the prospect field. At first, doubtless the more effective use of all vehicles under centralized trucking management might reduce the total sales somewhat, but the lower costs which such a system would make available should bring more customers, and consequently more demand for trucks.

Whether this development along rental lines will come in the form of subsidiary companies or branches of the manufacturers themselves or as separate organizations is of minor importance compared with the sound economic features of the movement in general. That it is destined to play an important part in the future of the motor truck business seems evident, and it would appear to be slowly evolving as a necessary step in the advancement of this important industry toward a firmer and broader foundation.

Canopus, the Center of the Stellar Universe.—The last number of *L'Astronomie* is chiefly devoted to the subject of "the giant sun Canopus." Though somewhat less bright than Sirius, on account of its vastly greater distance from us, Canopus is much the larger star. Its volume is supposed to be 2,420,000 times that of the sun, and its brilliancy 40,000 times. Walker's computations seem to show that Canopus actually occupies a central position in the stellar universe, as we know it. The sun is credited with a distance of 489 light-years from this central luminary, around which it is said to describe an orbit the plane of which is inclined at an angle of 20 degrees to the plane of the galaxy. The sun's last perihelion passage is stated to have occurred 6,940,000 years ago. The whole subject is, of course, highly speculative.

Electricity

Albert Medal Awarded to Marconi.—The Albert Medal of the Royal Society of Arts, England, which is awarded annually for distinguished merit for promoting arts, manufactures, and commerce, was presented to Guglielmo Marconi this year. The medal was instituted in 1863 when the Prince Consort was president of the society.

Electric Drive in a Paper Mill.—A paper mill at Maumee, Ohio, reports a saving of \$400 a month as a result of the introduction of electric drive. Previously this mill operated with steam power, using two 100-horse-power boilers. Now in place of being driven from long lines of shafting, the machines are individually driven by motors. Not only has this resulted in a direct saving of power, but it has been found possible to reduce by two men the regular force of workmen.

A New Alternating Current Fan has made its appearance in which variation of speed is obtained not by means of a rheostat, but by rotating the windings of the fan. The advantage of this is that the fan may be started at any position of the winding without danger of burning out by merely opening a push button on the fan. The energy that is consumed by the fan varies with its speed, which is not the case with the ordinary fan. When this fan is operating at full speed it takes 24 watts, and at the lower speed, it consumes about 7 watts.

Electric Air Brakes.—Electro-pneumatic brakes are soon to displace the air brakes used on the passenger trains of the Pennsylvania Railroad. This form of brake has been found to be superior to the weight of trains made up of all-steel cars. In long trains the shock and surging accompanying the application of the brakes has proved very objectionable indeed. In a twelve-car train it takes eight seconds for the full braking force to be felt at the last car. With the electro-pneumatic brake, the braking power will be exerted at the same instant on the head and within three seconds after the application of the brakes, the whole braking force will be exerted throughout the train.

Lamp Trimmers' Safety Signal.—A lamp trimmers frequently find it difficult to lower the lamp on a busy street without the danger of having the lamp crashed into by passing vehicles. The driver of a car is more apt to keep his eyes on the road than to look up, and sometimes the glare of the sun will prevent him from seeing a lamp that is hanging just high enough for his vehicle to hit it. Realizing this danger, a man in Minneapolis has devised a signal consisting of a tripod with two white signal wings on which red circles are painted. This the lamp trimmer places on the street under his lamp, and then he may lower the lamp without fear of a collision.

Cell Which Reverses Polarity When Illuminated.—In a paper read before the British Physical Society, Mr. A. A. Campbell Swinton describes a curious phenomenon in a galvanic cell having for one electrode a plate of zinc and for the other a thin copper, coated on one side with selenium and varnished with lacquer over the remainder of its surface. When these plates are immersed in tap-water the galvanometer shows that in the dark the zinc is electro-positive to the selenium, but when light falls on the selenium the polarity is reversed. If in place of the zinc plate, a plate of carbon or copper is employed, then the selenium proves to be electro-positive in the dark and electro-negative when illuminated.

Edison Batteries for Submarines.—The disabling of the submarine "F-4" in Honolulu Harbor, the cause of which at present writing has not been ascertained, has led to the surmise that some trouble might have been experienced with the batteries. Should sea water have come into contact with the sulphuric acid of the batteries, chlorine would have been generated. Of course sulphuric acid is not the only electrolyte that need be used in storage batteries. The Edison battery, for instance, uses a potash solution which gives off no poisonous gases when coming into contact with sea water. Public interest in the Edison cell has been aroused particularly by the fact that the new submarine "L-8," which was recently launched, is equipped with this type of battery.

Motor Motor for Dentists' Use.—An electric motor, even in small sizes, is quite heavy for the power it yields. For this reason dentists have been using a motor mounted on a bracket, and connected by a flexible shaft with the point of application of the power. Recently, however, a miniature electric motor has been devised for the dentist's use which is so small and weighs so little that it may be connected directly to the dental chairs and used as a hand tool, thus doing away with the cumbersome universal shaft. In place of the shaft a light electric cord connects the motor with a lamp socket. The motor is one of the smallest ever made for commercial use. Its weight is but 5½ ounces, and it is 1½ inches long by 1½ inches in diameter. It uses only 12 watts and operates at a speed of 15,000 revolutions per minute. It can be used either on direct or on an alternating current. A stop switch is mounted on the motor where it can be operated conveniently by the hand. The speed of the motor may be controlled by a foot-operated rheostat.

Science

The Non-magnetic Yacht "Carnegie" started March 6th on her fourth cruise, which is expected to continue for two years. During the period November, 1914-March, 1915, an attempt will be made to circumnavigate the globe between parallels 90 and 65 degrees south latitude.

Sven Hedin, the distinguished Swedish explorer, has been excluded from honorary membership in the Royal Geographical Society and from the Russian Imperial Geographical Society, on account of his pro-German attitude in connection with the war. Both bodies will probably be heartily ashamed of themselves after peace is declared. Patriotism and science should not interfere with one another.

Is Arsenical Spraying Dangerous to Birds?—It has been commonly reported that arsenical spraying of trees in New England in order to eliminate the gipsy moth has proved fatal to many birds, but according to Dr. L. O. Howard, Chief of the U. S. Bureau of Entomology, investigations fail to show any such result. The absence of birds from the regions where spraying has been practiced can be explained by the fact that the spraying causes a scarcity of insect food, and the birds are obliged to seek this elsewhere.

A Travel Course in Physiography is an interesting item in the programme of the forthcoming summer session of Columbia University. This course will take the form of a physiographic excursion to the western United States, conducted by Prof. D. W. Johnson, last year's president of the society. The party will visit the Tower, Yellowstone National Park, Glacier National Park, Crater Lake, the Yosemite Valley, Royal Gorge of the Arkansas, the Pike's Peak region, and probably also Lassen Peak and the Lake Bonneville region. The start is to be made from New York in July.

Modern Piano Wire.—Supplanting the hard, high-tension piano wire of old times in demand today for the highest grade instruments is today a second kind of absolute uniformity, and when out, it shows a clean, white steel. The piano makers have, by actual test, been brought to see that the softer wire has the greater artistic merit. The latter vibrates so evenly throughout, when actuated by the proper degree of energy, that a true fundamental tone results, with just enough of the octave to impart brilliancy, of the fifth to impart timbre and of the third and sixth to impart richness, and will be amplified by the sounding board.

The Redicacy of "Nephritic Wood."—Mr W. E. Safford recently addressed the Botanical Society of Washington on this subject. "Lignum nephriticum," or "nephritic wood," so called on account of its supposed medicinal properties, was obtained from Mexico and widely used in Europe in the sixteenth, seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. It is constantly mentioned in the scientific literature of those centuries. An infusion of the wood in water produces remarkable fluorescence, and this phenomenon was observed by the Hon. Robert Boyle in the seventeenth century. In modern times this wood has been nearly forgotten, scarcely a fragment of it is now to be found in drug collections, and its botanical identity has hitherto been altogether uncertain. It is now identified as *Epenkardium poly-stachyum* (Triglochin) Safford. Mr Safford exhibited specimens of the wood and botanical material and Dr. Briggs, of the Bureau of Plant Industry, showed the fluorescence of its extract in the rays of an arc light.

Agricultural Atlases of the United States.—A notable undertaking of the Office of Farm Management, U. S. Bureau of Plant Industry, is a large agricultural atlas of the United States, to which several other branches of the Department will contribute. This work will be published, in the first place, in the form of a number of separate monographs, which will ultimately be combined to form the complete atlas. Pending the completion of the large work, a similar work on a much smaller scale, adapted for use as a school atlas of American agriculture, will be issued—probably this year. This will comprise a series of maps and diagrams, accompanied by a brief text. The maps will present the following subjects: Relief; soils; climate; crops (distribution, seed-time and harvest, etc.); live stock distribution; size, value and tenure of farms; rural population.

Public Education and Cancer.—The campaign for public education which is now being undertaken by the American Society for the Control of Cancer should be productive of good results if the experience of Germany is any criterion. The campaign originally initiated in eastern Prussia by Winter of Koenigsberg for the instruction of all people, but particularly of women, in the early symptoms of cancer explained the value of the earliest possible surgical and medical treatment. In this campaign the co-operation of the laity and the medical profession on the one hand and the press on the other was enlisted with excellent results. When the campaign was started in the early nineties the cancer death rate of Koenigsberg had increased from 53 in 1880 to 110 in 1893. The rate continued to increase up to 1907, when it reached a maximum of 139 per 100,000 of the population. Subsequent to that year the rate gradually declined to a minimum point of 118 for the year 1912.

Aeronautics

Invisible Aeroplanes.—Of late there have been made attempts to construct aeroplanes of a transparent material, at least for all purposes where a canvas covering is used at present, such as the wings and the fuselage. One of the latest ideas of the kind is said to be an aeroplane which uses non-inflammable celluloid for the wings and other parts, and when flying at a few hundred feet in the air the apparatus is quite invisible, according to reports. A new muffling box on the motor serves to deaden the sound. One advantage of the transparency is that observations can be made in all directions.

A Reaction Helicopter.—A patent has been granted to Alphonse Papp and Didier Rouilly of Paris, France, No. 1,133,990, for a Helicopter, the improvement being applicable to all helicopter machines. In the improved helicopter the propulsion is effected by the reaction obtained from jets of air blown into the atmosphere through orifices or nozzles in the helicopter, on the principle of the aeroplane, the single propeller or screw of the helicopter having hollow blades or wings and the screw carrying blades means to propel air through the hollow wings and out of the orifices.

Three Aeroplanes for the Navy. It has been announced that the Secretary of the Navy is about to place an order for three hydro-aeroplanes with the Burgess Company, of Marblehead, Mass., at a contract price of \$11,500 each. Bids had been asked for the furnishing of three or six machines of 40 cylinders, but on the completeness of the proposals, and the extent to which the designs conformed to or exceeded the requirements, and owing to the character of the bids it was decided to contract for only three machines at this time. This is the first contract placed since Congress appropriated \$1,000 for aviation.

Fanblad-Lessons Aviation Motor. The new 100 horse-power type of motor is the class of light water-cooled motors, and its lightness is secured by a judicious grouping of the parts rather than by an exaggerated lightening of the pieces. The V-shape is here adopted, and there are two sets of 4 cylinders mounted on the crankcase at a 90 degree angle. Water cooling, which is common to each set of 4 cylinders, is accomplished by the adoption of longitudinal cooling wings over the water jacket, on the outer side, while the valves all are on the inner side or next the top of the motor, being driven by a single cam shaft. Bore 4.4 inches by 5.6 inch stroke, speed 1,500 revolutions per minute, weight 440 pounds, which gives the weight per horse-power as 4.4 pounds.

Firing Between Propeller Blades. A year ago on April 11th, 1914—see SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN—was illustrated a machine gun firing over the tractor screw on a monoplane. A German patent has recently been issued describing a means of shooting through the disk area of a propeller. The trigger of the gun is geared to the engine so that when a blade is in the line of fire a lock prevents the gun from being operated. Roland Garros said to have been slain and brought down by Tauben recently by firing between his propeller blades. The difficulty of the operation may be judged by the fact that the normal speed of a 600mm motor is 1,200 revolutions per minute. The builder of the Heinrich plane also proposes to arm the machine with a gun firing between the blades of the tractor screw.

Two Hundred Horse-power Anzani Motor. The latest Anzani motor is one of the most powerful that is in use for aeroplane work. It has 20 cylinders grouped around a circular crankcase, cylinder bore 4.2 inch and stroke 5.8 inch. Speed is 1,250 revolutions per minute. On this type there are used 4 groups of 5 cylinders, all cylinders being of the same size. On the barrel-shaped crankcase each group is moved along so that the cylinders are staggered with reference to the other groups, but viewed from the front, the effect is a star with 10 fore cylinders and 10 rear cylinders, while the side view shows each of the four groups lying in a somewhat different plane. Two cranks are used on the shaft, No. 1 being operated by the rods of 10 cylinders and No. 2 by the remainder. Weight of the Anzani motor is 982 pounds.

Stabilizing Apparatus for Flying Machine.—An automatic stabilizing apparatus, particularly of that class in which a pendulum is provided is shown in a patent No. 1,132,243, to O. Witkowski of Dusseldorf, Germany, the object being to provide an apparatus which will not be injurious to the flying machine. The pendulum when the flying machine changes its position in doing this the pendulum, which is designed for stabilizing the flying machine in a longitudinal direction, is provided with a plane or planes which have a rocking support on a transverse axis and are so connected with the body of the flying machine that they are set when the body is inclined at a certain angle, at a corresponding angle in order that in each position of the body the forces acting on the same are at an equilibrium, such forces being the pull of the propeller and the resistance of the front faces of the body of the machine and the pendulum. Thus in operation the air resistance of the pendulum is varied according to the inclination of the body to the direction of flight.

The European Infantryman's Rifle

Comparison of Mausers, Mannlichers, Lee-Enfields, and Other Weapons Used in the War

By Edward

C. Crossman



On the Whole the Great Military Powers Agree in the Demand They Make of the Service Rifle. England Seems to be the Worst Off, Because Her Troops Are Not Uniformly Armed

As Might be Expected the German Mauser is the Best Service Rifle Now in the Field. It has Been Adopted by Other Fighting Nations, Notably Belgium, Turkey, and Russia

THE British were caught in bad shape when the war broke out. They have clung to the old Lee action, taken up in 1880, and with many changes have used it ever since despite its weakness and the advent of better rifles. Evidently the hope of an automatic military rifle prevented them from disarming their troops of the old Lee and returning them with a better rifle, like the Ross or Mauser.

They now use the short Lee-Enfield in the regular army which is now on the Continent, a rifle using cartridges of five cartridges something like the clip of the Mauser, for reloading the Mauser magazine. Only the British rifle, having a protruding box magazine, holds ten cartridges or two clips at a time, against the five of nearly all other rifles like the Mauser and its American brother, the new Springfield, a Mauser with some changes.

Unhappily the territorials, or "militia," as we would call them, have the older long rifle, giving different shooting, and of course a nuisance were two forces of the two branches fighting on the same line. Both rifles are inferior in strength and simplicity to the Mauser. The British had an experimental rifle finished and a few ready for experimental issue when the war broke—a Mauser firing the 0.250 cartridge much like the Ross. Of course, it cannot be used, not being beyond the experimental stage.

The British Mix Their Rifles and Ammunition.

Worse still, the British have a mixed lot of ammunition, and this might cause bad mixups in giving sight settings and calculating the fire of troops. The regulars on the Continent are using the Mark VII, a splitter of 174 grains loaded into the same old 0.303 case, but giving 2,440 foot-seconds instead of 2,000, as did the old Mark VI, with blunt nose 215-grain bullet. This Mark VII is a fair cartridge, but there is not enough of it, and the British must fall back upon the Mark VI old style stuff, giving lower velocity, and worse than that, to be shot in rifles sighted and with sights graduated for the newer ammunition.

Take, for example, a regiment of the line, armed like the others with the short Lee, but supplied in the rush of a hot attack with the Mark VI or old ammunition. If the officers giving range and sight settings did not know and remember this and give a far higher sight setting to compensate for the lower speed of the old style stuff, the entire fire of this regiment would be wasted, because the bullets would strike the ground short of the mark. Mixed ammunition, like mixed rifles, is a faithfully bad thing in bad fighting.

The Mark VII is loaded with 40 grains of tubular cordite powder, a yellow, cylindrical-like stuff that comes in tubes or sticks just the length of the shell space behind the bullet. A bundle of the sticks is pushed into the cartridge, then the neck is formed by machinery and the bullet seated in this neck.

The British have bought a huge number of the Japanese service rifle, a modified Mauser manufactured in Japanese arsenals, but fear to send them to the Continent because of the great complications they would add to the already bad problem of supplying the right ammunition for the various types of rifles their troops already are using. Unless a complete unit, such as a division, can be armed with these rifles, sending them over would merely add trouble. The Japanese rifle is 0.25 caliber, the British rifle is a 0.303.

Very evidently the British have been badly blundered by the work of the despised German sharpshooters, and they lay most of the efficiency of these men to their telescopic rifle sights.

A number of men in every German company of infantry are supplied with the fine prismatic-telescope rifle sights, and with these to aid them in picking up, and aiming the rifles upon almost hidden foes, they do murderous work in their sniping.

The British have finally resolved to meet them on their own game, and have placed large orders in

America for telescopic rifle sights, depending mostly upon the makers of the telescope sight for the American army. In our own service the two best shots in each company of infantry are armed with rifles equipped with fine prismatic telescope sights, for just this sniping work.

On a well-lighted and defined objective, the telescope rifle sight offers no advantage to the man with normal eyesight, but in picking out a partly hidden or badly lighted mark, the telescope sight gives the rifeman the same advantage that a fine prismatic field glass gives the person using it. It is necessary merely to find the mark in the field of the glass, touch it with the needle point in the telescope field and squeeze the trigger.

The telescope mounted on the American service rifle, although not yet perfect, is probably the most carefully designed telescopic sight ever made. Short and compact, it is furnished with graduated elevating and traversing disks for the finest adjustments in range and windage. No other instrument of its sort approaches it, save the sighting telescopes used on field guns. Optically, it is hardly the equal of the German glasses.

The French "Lebel"—An Amusing Rifle.

The French use a rifle, the Lebel, that looks like the old woods rifle in department and army sale stores, and labeled Veteril or something similar to it. It has a tubular magazine in the forestock like an American repeating rifle, the receiver is nickel-plated, and, in all, it is the most amusing looking rifle of the whole collection. Its whole get-up is crude and child-like. Add to this a fearfully long triangular bayonet, such as the American army discarded twenty years ago, give the soldier carrying it a long blue coat like an overcoat and a pair of red trousers, and you've got a picture to make the gods weak from laughter.

The cartridge is quite interesting, with its solid copper or alloy head and the flat surface of the virtues of the sharp point, the French went still farther, and put on a tapering stern on their bullet, so it is a true boat-shaped bullet, instead of being cut off square behind like all other bullets. Thus, the bullet is given a streamline form, which even German ballistic experts admit cuts down air resistance. It weighs 170 grains and it leaves the rifle with a speed of 2,400 foot-seconds. It is quite as good as the English cartridge. The magazine is loaded, not with clips or chargers like the rifles of the others, but by the slow process of cranking in one shell after another into a tubular magazine like an American Winchester's.

The Russians and Their Modified Mauser.

The Russians use a modified Mauser, with ammunition of the old blunt nose type like the British Mark VI, velocity 2,000 foot-seconds. The bayonet, a triangular one, is always fixed, is very hard to remove, and has no scabbard. It is carried on the rifle at all times—a very clumsy, crude and senseless scheme.

The Belgians use the Mauser, with ammunition of the old blunt nose type, clip-loading, like the rifles of all the nations save France. In this system a clip or charger of five cartridges is pushed into a slot at the top of the magazine entrance. A push of the thumb drives all five out of the clip, down into the magazine, and the clip is thrown away. The caliber, like that of the Russian and French rifles, is practically 0.30.

The Turks use the Mauser of 0.50 caliber, and use to some extent the newer pointed bullets in this rifle.

The Austrians and the Germans are the best equipped of any of the nations in the rifle line. The Austrians use the Mannlicher, firing pointed bullets with a velocity of nearly 2,800 foot-seconds.

The New German Mauser—The Best in Europe.

The Germans use the latest type of Mauser, from which the American new Springfield was taken. The rifle, a clip-loader, weighs nine pounds. It fires spitzer bullets of 154 grains weight, with a velocity of over 2,900 foot-seconds. The rifle in its simple stilet-pointing arrangement, its finish, its accuracy, and the high speed of its bullet is superior to the rifle of any other nation

among those fighting. It has a long sword bayonet, usually carried in a scabbard at the soldier's belt. With its long barrel and long bayonet, it gives a stabbing length of 5 feet 9 inches with the bayonet on, beating the others save the long bayonet of the Frenchman.

The German soldier has eight inches the better of the argument over the British soldier when it comes to crossing bayonets, and the extra eight inches easily turns the battle in favor of the longer, if both men are of equal skill.

The Japanese, in true Japanese style, a people who lift everything they fancy and make it without regard to the laws of patents or copyright, make a rifle that is a Mauser in the points that are good, termed it "Yan 38." It fires a 0.25 caliber cartridge, with pointed bullet and a velocity of 2,900 foot-seconds.

The Canadians, in spite of being part of the forces of the British Empire, cast out the ancient and honorable Lee nearly ten years ago, taking the Ross, a rifle made by Sir Charles Ross of Scotland, in Quebec. Their present rifle, practically the rifle that sells on the American market for sporting use, fires the regulation 0.303 British army cartridge instead of the much better Ross product, the 0.260. This, of course, because of the necessity for using the same cartridge as the British troops.

This Ross is a straight pull rifle; that is, by an arrangement primarily like the familiar spiral screw-driver, the bolt with the locking lugs is revolved by pulling straight back on a bolt handle and separate sleeve, unlocking the bolt without the usual hair turn of a bolt handle, as on the Mauser, Krag, new Springfield, and Lee-Enfield.

The Rifles of Austria, Bulgaria and Greece.

The same principle is used in the Mannlicher straight pull of Austria, Bulgaria, and Greece. This type of rifle action is very fast, a snap back and forth of the wrist being sufficient to operate it, but it is more fitting for a long series of shots because of throwing the strains on only one set of muscles.

All the other rifles use what is called the turn-bolt, a long cylindrical bolt containing striker and main spring, carrying an extractor on the head, and having two steel lugs to lock against the explosion, working back and forth in grooves cut in the receiver. The bolt is locked by turning it a quarter round to the right, revolving the lugs in behind shoulders in the frame; it is unlocked in the reverse direction, hence the name turn-bolt, as opposed to the straight pull rifles of Austria, Greece, Bulgaria, Switzerland, and Canada. The chief virtues of these rifles is the strength, the simplicity, and the impossibility of jamming the mechanism more than a moment. All the essential parts can be removed for cleaning and repairs without tools.

This is true in the highest degree with the German Mauser, in the lowest with the French Lebel and the straight pull Mannlichers.

With these magazine rifles, fitted with magazine for charger loading, and having a wonderfully high rate of sustained fire, the problem to keep the men supplied with ammunition for an all-day's hot battle. The Japanese troops went into some of the battles near the Yalu and later, carrying 300 rounds of ammunition per man. Yet some of the soldiers were out of cartridges by noon. The weight of 300 rounds of the Japanese 0.256 cartridge is of this size, 360 times the weight of each cartridge, this being 350 grains. Each soldier, one therefore carrying, besides his regular pack and rifle, 174 pounds of cartridges.

The British soldier, carrying as much, is still worse loaded down, because of the greater weight of his ammunition. Using the old type of Mark VI, to which he is probably reduced by this time, his huge mussy 30 is probably reduced by this time to 350 rounds. With his soldier's one thrown within 400 yards of each other, as a second in case place of the British fighting, there is very little time to replenish the supply on the firing line from the reserve store as is laid down by all good war books.

The Rifles of European Fighters

They Have a Range of 4,200 to 5,200 Yards. But That Is Not Their Chief Virtue. They Shoot Flat, Thanks to Their Sharp-Pointed Bullets, and Flatness of Trajectory Counts for More Than Range in Shooting

Varied indeed are the rifles used by the warring nations. Germany's Mauser is the best, with the 155-grain bullet and initial velocity of 2,600 foot-seconds. The British mix their rifles and ammunition, which renders uniform sight setting difficult and confuses the troops. The old smoothbore musket of our civil war had a percussion lock, a bore of 0.50 to 0.58 and used bullets that weighed from 450 to 500 grains. Its range was limited and it was very inaccurate. The modern military rifle has a bore of about 0.30 and shoots a bullet of about 216 grains. Its effective range is considerably over 1,000 yards, and up to that distance it is wonderfully accurate.

The French use a rifle, the Lebel, that looks like the old wrecks sold in department and army sale stores. The Russians use a modified Mauser, with ammunition of the old blunt nose type. The modern bullet weighs less than one third of the old musket bullet, which means that a soldier can now carry a much larger number of rounds of ammunition. This is necessary as the repeating rifle uses ammunition so much faster. The old soldier loaded his gun from the muzzle one shot at a time. The modern soldier inserts half a dozen cartridges at a time, and simple mechanism loads the charges into the barrel.

The famous Mauser.

Used by Germany, Spain, Mexico, Turkey, and Belgium.

Top view of cow

Springfield rifle.

Top view Canadian Ross with telescopic sight

Canadian service rifle (Ross) with sporting stock

How the bolt of a rifle is kept from blowing out under a pressure of 50,000 pounds to the square inch. United States Springfield with solid lugs; Ross with screw lugs. These lugs engage recesses in the receiver of the rifle.

Full pistol grip on U. S. service rifle (Krag).

The Martini single-shot rifle, many of which are now in the hands of the guards at home and even in the trenches. It was abandoned in 1890, but passed into service again when the present emergency arose.

American Springfield a modified Mauser for which we pay \$1.15 royalty.

Mauser open, with clip of cartridges ready to be pressed into magazine shells are stripped out of the clip.

Bolt and mechanism of the new American Springfield made in our arsenals.

German telescopic sight on sporting Mauser. (Klein optical system.)

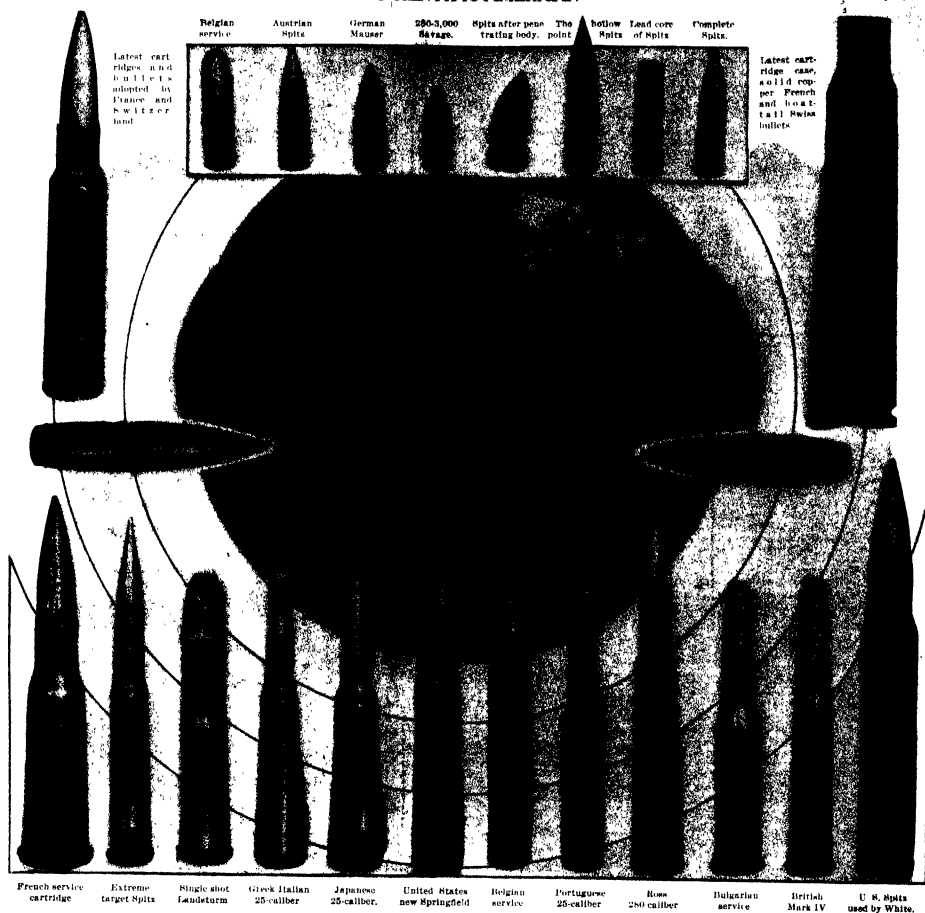
Four types of propellant smokeless powders.

Charge taken from American service cartridge, tubular grain of pyrocellulose.

Planks from French cartridge.

Flat strips of cordite.

Tubular cordite from British service cartridge.



The Bullets of the Fighting Nations

How the Shape of a Bullet Affects Its Flight

BAUK IN 1905 the Germans, prying around, as usual, in rifle experiments, discovered the ballistic fact that if you sharpen the bow of a bullet it cuts down air resistance, as sharpening the bow of a canal boat to a yacht bow cuts down the resistance of the water. Back in the 50's Col Jacobs, a British officer stationed in India, had discovered this, had proved it, and had called the attention of the world to the fact. For a half century, mathematical gentlemen, such as Bashford, had laid down the law that the point of a bullet made no difference in the flight of a bullet. It does make little difference in the ultimate range, but this is not considered in designing a fighting rifle.

The Germans found that so much did a sharpened point cut down the terrific resistance of the air, that they could shave down their army bullet from 215 grains to 154 grains and still overcome air resistance, and retain the same proportion of the original speed imparted by the rifle as with the old heavy bullet.

This meant, in turn, that they would greatly increase the velocity—the speed—of the bullet, which, in turn, meant that the flight of the bullet would be much faster, and, *even*, over fighting ranges, the chances of hitting men anywhere along the field were much increased. Errors in judgment were much less costly, because the bullet did not rise high enough to miss, anyhow. Setting sights or changing sights for changes in range

were obviated, because so flat flew the new bullet that for 500 yards or more a man kneeling would be hit anywhere from the muzzle to the 500-yard mark were the rifle sighted for 500 yards.

In other words, the new cartridge—the "S" bullet, it is called by the Germans—gave a danger space of more than 500 yards—500 yards of space from the muzzle of the rifle over which the bullet nowhere got up high enough to go over a kneeling man. This is the result of a flat trajectory or bullet flight, and this in turn comes from a high muzzle velocity, and this in turn can be had only from a light bullet. And light bullets are of no use if they fall off quickly from air resistance, and only the sharp point confers comparative immunity from this terrific resistance through which the bullet has to force its way.

Such is the reason for the sharp point bullet used by the Germans, the French, the Austrians, the British, the Canadians, and probably the Russians to some extent. The Germans termed it a "*Spitzgeschoss*," merely a pointed bullet. It is sometimes termed a "spitz" bullet, with a queer hybrid of German and English in the term, and English-speaking people usually term it a "spitzer," a sort of slangy corruption of the original word. But it is not a "spit ball," our San Francisco friends to the contrary notwithstanding.

The bullet is pointed, not unlike a neatly sharpened

lead pencil. It looks quite merciful, so much so that up rose multitudinous fools about the country with the announcement that this bullet was adopted because of its humane disposition.

The United States promptly took it up, calling in its new rifles, the new Springfield, and rechambering the barrels to fire the new ball. The change in this rifle threw out the old blunt nose bullet of 220 grains and with a muzzle speed of 2,200 foot-seconds and substituted a spitzer of 150 grains with a velocity of 3,700 foot-seconds.

The extreme range of the two sorts of bullets is 5,980 yards for the present spitzer, 4,200 yards for the old blunt nose bullet used in the Springfield.

But let me pause here and speak a fallacy common among the uninformed. The extreme range of a rifle—the distance to which it will carry when pointed at an angle of 45 degrees from the horizontal—has absolutely no bearing on its virtues. It is a by-product, not a virtue, not sought for by rifle designers, not cared for by military men, and absolutely not considered. The ballistics in military walks of life care not a whoop whether the bullet finally winds up 4,200 yards or 5,980 rods from the muzzle if the rifle is fired at an angle of 45. A rifle is no more to be judged by its extreme range than a horse is to be judged by the number of hairs in his eyebrow. Extreme range, we have said, is a

to accident; nobody cares what it is, because it is not used, but it is half of it ever used.

Proving a fighting rifle with a rifle that has a danger space of 1,000 yards but the bullet of which faded into thin air at 1,500, and he'd fall on your neck and call you brother, and probably try to pick your pockets of the plains of the new weapon. Fifteen hundred yards is extreme range for the military rifle in actual use, but very uncommon. A thousand yards sometimes sees the ball open, but often the ball hardly begins at this distance.

The thing for which all ballistics strive is a rifle that shoots very flat over fighting ranges which lie under 1,000 yards, to obviate sight changes, and to minimize the cost of errors in range judgment. After that the range of the bullet can go as high; infantry fire is not even sensibly affected by the ammunition—at ranges half as far as the rifle would carry. Therefore, the surest way to prove that you don't know the first principles of the military rifle is to begin to talk about its range. The two favorite questions of the proletariat—"How many does she hold? How far will she shoot?" The man that knows what is needed asks, "How fast can the magazine be recharged? How fast does she shoot?"

Now, the harmless little sharp point bullet, that promised to come through parties on the other side of the argument so gently that they would hardly mind it, turned out to be a little devil. Its evil disposition varies with the rifle in which it is used, due probably to difference of balance.

In the American Springfield it does just the opposite to what it promises. Because the weight is far back, because of its high speed, and because it is very easily upset, it proceeds to spin wildly on its fall when it hits tissue, if not to travel sideways like a hog to battle.

It rips and slashes and knocks things out of time by the shock it imparts. Once in a long while it behaves like a civilized bullet, but not often. It is very fresh and fish in its travel. Stewart Edward White records one bullet that struck a beast in the right shoulder, went through to the left, broke it, traveled down the left leg, came out on the side toward Mr. White, and hit the ground half way between him and the animal!

So the poor soldier may be shot in the watch pocket and have the bullet emerge under his left leg.

Roosevelt was the first writer to call attention to the peculiar disposition of this bullet. He took to Africa a lot of regular army spitfire bullets and some 220-grain soft point—dum-dum—jacket bullets. In two weeks he ascended the dum-dum bullets as being much less deadly than the regular spitfires used in the army rifle of the United States. Mr. White shot 165 head or African game on his first trip with the Springfield and a 105-grain spitfire bullet. He bagged 179 of the 165 hit, showing that the bullet wanted very little time in argument. Understand me, these are full-jacket, sharp point bullets, with the points untouched, and in no way designed to break up or mushroom. They do neither.

Jack London writes about the ripping, tearing wounds found on the Mexicans at Vera Cruz—all done by the little sharp point bullet in its staggering, tumbling, spinning course through the flesh. On the other hand, the old types of bullets, like those used in the Krag, and in the British 303 up to recently, long heavy, metal-tipped bullets of blunt point, make clean little holes, and give no such slashing effects.

So, knowing that the Germans, and the French, and the British, and the Canadians—and possibly the Belgians to some extent—all use the spitfire bullet, you can see that the Germans, not reading English shooting literature, might suspect from the effects on their men that the foe were shooting little buzz-saws, not bullets. Europeans have known for some time of the effects of these sharp point bullets. In Germany, should you? Quicker enough, the German spitfire bullet does not seem to give this slashing, ripping effect; the British report the same effects from those from the older type of blunt nose bullet, clean-cut holes.

Years ago the Russian Red Cross Society asked the Russian Minister of War to inquire into the effects of the pointed bullet versus the first time by the Germans and Austrians. The Red Cross people alleged that these bullets had been proved to be unstable, to tip on entering the body, and to keyhole—travel sideways. So the evil effect of the spitfire was a matter of public knowledge years ago, and it seems that the German bullet was not immune.

So, except for the looks of the thing, if the British choose to use their old Mark IV, hollow point, Zerkling bullet instead of their Mark VII spitfire, they will be doing the foe a kindness—by depriving from the realm of the convention.

Reporting for experiment on the tough Ottaulins wild goat, I have killed, with a companion, five goats with five shots from the heavy Springfield. Every one died instantly, yet not one was like any other in the effects. One eye slashed open alongside an ear hit with a giant bullet, and his entire internal anatomy exposed. Another showed an hairy effusion of exit or entrance, another had

a slash along the back where the bullet hit, as if he had been struck with a cleaver, the bullet had not been strong enough to make the hole; the bullet had not been strong enough to break the spine; while still another had a terrific slashing wound of exit to the shoulder.

The Nutritious Sugar-beet

THE sugar-beet, due to highly efficient breeding, yields under existing farm conditions the largest amount of digestible dry substance per acre of any crop grown. Northern Colorado, during the last decade, has produced an average yearly crop of about 12 tons of sugar beets per acre, containing 22½ per cent digestible dry substance and about 9.8 tons of tops per acre, containing 15 per cent digestible dry substance, or a total of 8,200 pounds of digestible dry substance per acre, if all of it could be utilized as a stock food. The immensity of this figure will be more apparent when it is realized that it would take a crop of 100 bushels of corn and 4½ tons of fodder per acre, or a crop of 8.2 tons of alfalfa per acre, to equal the quantity of digestible food produced by the sugar-beet. Although such crops of corn and alfalfa are possible, they are rarely, if ever, produced, while the sugar-beet crop mentioned has been grown on an average for ten years in the vicinity of Fort Collins, Col. In fact, during these years a large proportion of the growers have exceeded this average, while in favorable crop years the entire average has been considerably higher.

Of course, the cost of growing an acre of sugar beets is considerably higher than the cost of growing a like area of corn or alfalfa; but this is offset by the fact that the sugar beet, in the form of sugar, is a more valuable extract from the beet a portion of the digestible dry substance in the form of sugar, to the extent of from two to three thousand pounds per acre. The price obtained for the sugar covers the expenses and profits of farm and factory, so that the remaining food properties may be sold at prices below the level of equivalent available foods.

At present all of the available food value of the sugar-beet is not realized. This is due partly to the indifference of the farmer, partly to the fact that feeding on a small scale on the farm is not popular, and partly due to the recent establishment of the industry and the uncertainty that heretofore has discouraged the farmer from investing permanently the large sums necessary to obtain all of the food content possible in the most economical form.

A Substitute for Glass in Automobiles

FOR many years it has been one of the endeavors of automobile body manufacturers, especially of linen also and sedan bodies, to find a substitute for the dangerous glass, used as windows in these motorcars. Several types of "safety glass" have been proposed, but for some reason or other it has been found impossible to eliminate the splintering glass with its danger of cutting the passengers in a collision. In tops for touring cars, on the other hand, celluloid and mica have been used, but very unsatisfactorily, and the search continued use has been continued for the simple reason that nothing better so far has been discovered.

Now, however, a material has been brought out by one of the largest manufacturers of explosives in the world, under the trade-name *Celion*, which possesses some remarkable qualities. In the first place, it is almost unbreakable by ordinary handling. Sheets of this material can be bent backward and forward many times, without breaking, blocks of this transparent product can be subjected to blows without showing fractures; it can be produced in any desired thickness, up to half an inch, in plates measuring 140 by 90 centimeters. In rods and tubes the material can be had in desired thicknesses. Clear and completely transparent, light or dark colored, mottled or even black, it can be used for the manufacture of all objects now made of celluloid.

Its chief advantage over celluloid is its safety against fire. A sheet of celion may be ignited by an open flame, but the burning portion will melt and a few drops of the material will fall to the ground, it will not continue to burn. Its weight can be calculated for any desired thickness and size from the statement that a plate 80 by 140 centimeters, 1 millimeter thick, will weigh 1 kilogramme. Translated into inches and pounds, the material weighs about 2.8 ounces per hundred square inches of 0.04 inch thickness.

Celion is fastened by nailing it down, thin sheets by sewing on; it can be glued on by the use of "cellon-lack." It is used for telephones, electric switch boards, toilet articles, windows for automobiles and aeroplanes and dirigibles (see Zeppelin passenger ships), and is a perfect insulating material for all electric apparatus; can be cut and trimmed with an ordinary knife; warmed in hot water and then molded in any desired shape; is impervious to water, gasoline, petroleum, oil, turpentine, and gas.

Celion-lack, the new varnish made with celion as a base, promises to become invaluable as a varnish for

aeroplanes and balloon materials, because of its resistance to the influences of gasoline, oil, and water. Instead of reducing the tensile strength of these materials, celion-lack is said to increase it.

While at present there seems little chance of this material being introduced in the United States, the end of the present war will undoubtedly see its use in American industries. The process of manufacture is patented by Dr. Eichenberg, in Germany.

The Work of the "Scotia" in 1913

THE British government has just published in two volumes, one text and one of diagrams and charts, the detailed scientific results attained in connection with the ice patrol of the "Scotia" in 1913. It will be recalled that after the loss of the "Thetis" in April, 1912, attention was called to the question whether any steps could be taken to render Atlantic steamship routes more safe by establishing an ice patrol to the north of these routes, and in the following spring the "Scotia" was sent out experimentally for this purpose at the joint expense of the British government and the shipowners. The scientific staff included a hydrographer, a meteorologist, and a biologist. The expedition sent daily wireless reports on the state of the ice and the weather to the nearest observation station, where they were ultimately distributed to vessels and to the hydrographic and meteorological offices of the United States, Canada, and Great Britain. The scientific work included a wide range of hydrographic, meteorological, and biological investigations. Fog, which is no less important than ice in the area under investigation, was the subject of numerous observations, in which good use was made of meteorological kites. The whole undertaking was so successful that the International Conference on Safety of Life at Sea, which met in London in November, 1913, established an international ice patrol to continue on a larger scale the work initiated by the "Scotia."

The Current Supplement

MANY branches of modern science depend for their interpretation and explanation on the "ion," and a thorough understanding of ions and atoms, and their relationship, is indispensable to the modern scientist and necessary for the understanding of scientific literature. Many will find the lectures on this subject by Sir J. J. Thomson, the first of which appears in the current issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2652, for May 1st, 1915, absolutely invaluable. An article on vocational guidance is a particularly timely topic of modern welfare. There is an illustrated description of the operating mechanism of the U. S. collector "Jupiter," telling how wardships are caught at sea. How the rifling of the barrel of a dream affects the flight of a bullet is explained in a new and interesting article, with several diagrams. There is a discussion of the dyestuff situation. Notwithstanding all that has been written about the conduct of the great war few appreciate how widely the automobile-truck has been utilized and the great variety of different tasks which it is successfully performing. Something of this is told in the article on The Motor Truck in Modern Military Service. Another matter of interest is the description of the manufacture of gasoline by "cracking" crude oils. Much has been printed about the German "Taube" aeroplanes. An account of the evolution of this type, with a number of diagrams is given. An important subject is the formation of ozone in the upper atmosphere, and the article begins in this issue treats of experiments and observations made for determining this question. There are also articles on gaseous explosions, a steam-electric wrecking crane, the evolution of the elements, and a consideration of the work of Prof. Arthur von Auwers, the astronomer.

Hand Firing of Soft Coal

IT is not often that a Government bulletin attracts more attention or interest than should be accorded to it by the Bureau of Mines publication on Hand Firing Soft Coal Under Power-Plant Boilers. It chronicles the results of actual tests and seeks to so present the subject as to meet the need of men without technical education. So far as possible it avoids technical language, and it is so worded and illustrated that it will aid the work of practical firemen and should be a handbook of all engineers and firemen capable of following printed instructions.

To Old Readers of the Scientific American

THE June number of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN will commemorate the seventieth anniversary of the house of MUNN & CO. In that number we wish to give a history of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Old readers and subscribers who visited the editorial offices in the past are requested to send us their impressions, anecdotes, experiences, and the like. Indeed, any information at all relating to the old offices on Park Row will be gratefully received by the Editors.

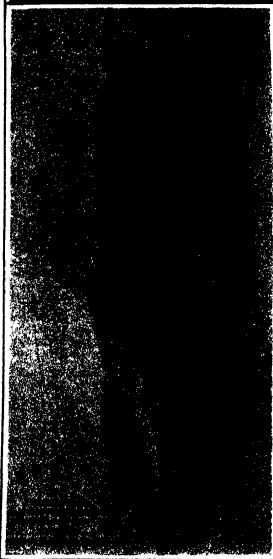


Fig. 1.—A Leon torpedo mine shown in section. The earlier form.

called because it can be ejected from a tube like a torpedo. It does not, however, move horizontally like a torpedo by its own power, but it can be set to oscillate more or less vertically beneath the surface at any desired depth. In the type shown in Fig. 1, the oscillating mechanism is regulated by means of compressed air in a chamber within the mine. The bellows are extended by increase of water pressure and contracted by its decrease. Water is admitted to the depth regulating chamber and expelled from it through the tube *t*, which communicates with the water sur-

By courtesy of *The Illustrated London News*

Fig. 2.—Showing how it oscillates in the water. The latest type of Leon torpedo mine.

THE French battleship "Bouvet" was stated by the British Admiralty to have been "blown up by a drifting mine" in the Dardanelles; while H.M.S. "Irresistible," "having probably struck a drifting mine," and H.M.S. "Ocean" "also having struck a mine, both vessels sank in deep water." It has since been reported, unofficially, that the type of drifting mine used by the Turks is believed to have been the Leon torpedo, two forms of which are illustrated on this page. That on the left (Fig. 1) is the earlier of the two, patented in 1907. Fig. 3 represents its latest development, and Fig. 2 shows how it oscillates vertically in the water. This mine was invented by Capt. Karl Oskar Leon of Karlskrona, Sweden. A torpedo mine is so

rounding the mine. The explosion of the mine is caused by impact with the two spring-pressed horns seen projecting at the top in Fig. 1. The mine shown in Fig. 3 floats almost vertically in the water. It sinks to a certain prearranged depth at which the propeller is automatically actuated to drive it up again. The action of the propeller can be made to begin and cease at any depth desired. The time during which the mine is to float can also be regulated.—[Drawings Copyrighted by the United States and Canada.]

SINKER OF THE "BOUVET," "IRRESISTIBLE," AND "OCEAN?"

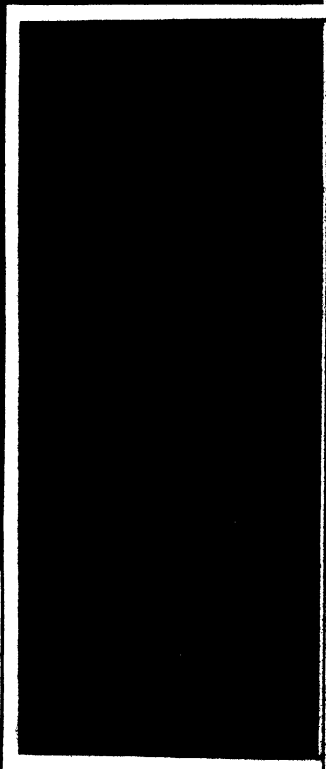


Fig. 3.—The latest type of Leon torpedo mine. A sectional diagram.

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications will be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld unless so desired.]

Military Preparedness

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I have been much interested in your articles on our military preparedness. I was a member of the cadet organizations at Pennsylvania State College, where I graduated a few years ago, and where I ranked as captain. I feel that your comments upon our training are true, that the training of such camps (summer training camps for officers) as you describe would be very good.

W. J. DUMM

Newark, N. J.

Military Drill in Place of Gymnasium

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I have read with much interest the article on "An Undeveloped Treasure Land" and am heartily in sympathy with them, as I believe are the majority of our people. I have wondered if the idea had ever been suggested, that the various State universities substitute a military drill for the gymnasium, or at least make it optional, and allowing the same credits as for gymnasium work. It seems to me that this would be of great benefit to the student and at the same time give us a large body of well-drilled men.

Boulder, Col.

FRANK THIEL.

Military Drill in the Public Schools

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

Now that the "fad" is to talk about "whether our standing army is sufficient or insufficient in case of war," I wish to suggest the following:

Instead of increasing our standing army so that we may have a stronger military protection in case of war, why not have military drill masters at our public schools and thus have every boy, from ten years up, trained to military tactics? Not only would it be of benefit to the youths from an athletic standpoint, but it will also create a drilled reserve of those who, as a rule, volunteer their services in case of war.

The cost to the Government of keeping drill-masters at the public schools would be comparatively with other means, very small. In order to create enthusiasm and interest among the youngsters, the furnishing of companies, regiments, etc., and promotion in rank should be given to those who deserve the same. This will keep the young ones interested in their military training as well as the rest of their school studies.

However, this is merely a suggestion, and if you consider it practical and sane, I will appreciate your comment on same.

MARTIN J. ZWERNER

A Letter from an Old Reader

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

It may be of interest to you in connection with your anniversary number, which I notice is soon to appear, to realize how important the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN was regarded by practical men in its earliest years. Along about 1881 or 1882, when I was an apprentice in the machine business at Baltimore, my preceptor, a man named Hixley, showed me a copy of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN and told me that I should subscribe to it, as it would be of assistance to me in my studies relating to the mechanics which I expected was to be my life's work. I followed his advice and subscribed to the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN and continued to read it for years with great advantage and with this pleasure at the time of life in writing you to such effect.

Washington, D. C.

R. C. GILL.

The Drug Habit

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

A recent note credited by you to a publication of the United States Public Health Service, and concerning the use of narcotic drugs, is likely to give a wrong impression regarding the prevalence of this condition, because the publication of the Public Health Service is based on data which have since been greatly extended.

Under the present system therein alluded to, our data are shown for about 2,000,000 addicts of the opiate. We estimate that this is about one half of the number in the State and possibly even a smaller proportion. Since this State has about 2 1/2 per cent of the whole population of the United States, if we assume that Tennessee has only the same proportion of addicts as the population we have about 225,000 addicts in that State, probably. The Tennessee being an especially bad State, and having decidedly more free from such addicts than those States where the pressure is heavier, only in Tennessee, we should add 50 per cent at least to the number, giving us in round numbers 347,500 addicts of the opiate alone. It is safe to say that there are 350,000 addicts of the opiate in the United States, and that they annually use about \$6,500,000 worth of the drugs unnecessarily.

This is very different from the 2,000,000 at which the figures have been set by somewhat sensational writers, but it is bad enough, as the addict of the opiate is ordinarily to be classed as a defective. The Harrison Act restricting traffic in these drugs was not passed a moment too soon, and appears to have accomplished an enormous amount of good, for, under our form of government, only national legislation on this subject will absolutely prevent illicit traffic in these drugs within the States.

The Food and Drugs Department of Tennessee is the enforcing agent of this law and the figures given above are taken directly from our books.

Nashville, Tenn.

LUCIUS P. BROWN,

Food and Drugs Commissioner
State of Tennessee

Construction of Selenium Cells

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I note your article on "Constructing Selenium Cells" in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of February 27th, 1913. Having constructed selenium cells for the past eight years, I think a few remarks from the pen of a man with this experience will be of interest to your readers.

In the above-named article you say that selenium cell constructors "will not employ any other metal than platinum." Permit me to correct this statement. Copper and nickel are used extensively on account of their being cheaper. The object of using platinum is that selenium forms selenides readily with all metals except platinum. It is these selenides that make the cell insensitive and useless. I have made several hundred cells, using copper, and I have never had any trouble with them; they are all in practical use at this very day.

Experimenters desiring to make selenium cells should

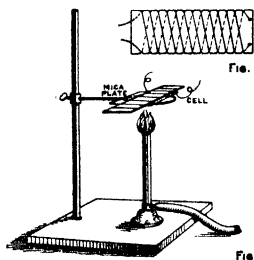


Fig. 1
Construction of selenium cells.

not make use of a slate base, as the metallic veins short-circuit the cells. The best material I find for a base is either soapstone, mica, or porcelain.

As explained by the writer in a recent issue of *Electrical Experimenters*, a selenium cell of the "Bixley" type can be made by taking a slab of the above named material, bifilar shape, 2 1/2 inches long and 1/4 inch broad, and beginning at 1/4 inch from one end, wind round it in the form of a flat spiral some No. 40 copper or nickel wire. The pitch of each turn of the spiral is 1/4 inch from its neighbor. Continue winding up to 1/4 inch from the outer extremity, then tie the two ends of the wire, by passing them through holes drilled in the slab. Now take a second wire and carefully wind this on beside the other, thus forming a second spiral, the turns of which are midway between those of the original one. Fix this as before (Fig. 1). Great care must be exercised that the two wires do not touch each other at any point. It will be well to make sure by testing this with a telephone receiver.

For the succeeding operation a retort stand at least 15 inches high is convenient. Fix the stand 15 inches above the base; on the pedestal place a Bunsen burner. On this ring (Fig. 2) lay a flat sheet of brass 1/4 inch thick, and on the brass a piece of mica (to save waste selenium). Place the embryo cell on the mica plate, having regulated by raising or lowering the temperature of the Bunsen burner. If the temperature is not high enough the selenium will begin to crystallize; if too high, the selenium will collect in drops, being apparently repelled from the surface of the cell. The tem-

perature should, in fact, be just above the fusing point of crystalline selenium. When a smooth surface is obtained, quickly remove the cell with pliers and let it cool. Its surface will now be smooth and lustrous.

The cell must next be annealed. The brass plate being cool, lay the cell upon it again, and adjust the burner at its lowest possible point. The selenium will now begin to crystallize, as evidenced by its surface assuming a dull leaden appearance. If crystallization has not begun in five minutes, raise the burner an inch or two. In five to ten minutes the whole of the selenium should be crystallized. Then gradually raise the burner until signs of fusion just begin to appear. This will probably take place when the flame is within three inches of the brass. Instantly remove the burner, and in about ten seconds re-crystallization will occur. Now fix the burner 1/2 inch below the point at which it was when fusion commenced, and let it remain for four hours, merely looking at it from time to time to ascertain that, owing to increase of gas pressure or other causes, the heat has not become too great. After four hours, begin cooling by lowering the burner an inch or two, and repeat this operation every ten or fifteen minutes, until the burner is at least four inches above the cell. The slightly lower gas flame at short intervals, until it is finally extinguished. When the brass plate is quite cool, the cell may be removed.

A cell made in this manner is found to have a resistance in the dark of from 50,000 to 100,000 ohms.

New York City.

SAMUEL WYNN

A "West Point" for Non-commissioned Officers

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

All but a few extreme pacifists will admit that the United States is not properly prepared in a military way for even the smallest war emergency. All but a few extreme militarists will admit that the United States does not need an enormous standing army. Between these two extremes, is not the following plan sensible, logical, and practical?

Should war be declared, the graduates of West Point will provide material for officers of the very highest type and training. The young men of America between 18 and 40 will provide material for the common soldier second to none in the world. The great lack will be in the non-commissioned officer.

I think it will be admitted that an army of recruits can be whipped into form by a West Point officer in a very short space of time when he is properly supported by non-commissioned officers. Upon the supply of non-commissioned officers will therefore depend the quality of the American army and the length of time necessary to form it.

I wish to suggest the organization of a second "West Point" for the training of non-commissioned officers. Men should be admitted to this academy upon the same competitive basis that is required for admission to West Point. They should be trained to become properly complementary to the regular commissioned officers. They should be educated to take charge of the humdrum tasks of war, the digging of trenches, the throwing of fortifications, bridging rivers, etc. They should be trained to drive engines and automobiles to guide aeroplanes, to erect wireless stations. They should be made adept, as a matter of course, in military drill. In short, they should be educated scientifically to fill that humble but vastly important place in army management which heretofore has been left to chance and costly experience.

But—and here is the real merit of the proposed plan—these should be so educated that the knowledge they acquire in the arts of war may be equally valuable to them in the arts of peace. Instead of training them solely for a war that may not come in their generation, their training should be such that they will have the scientific equipment to take a skilled man's part in the industries of the country.

In payment for this education, they are to be subject to the call of their Government. They might even be required to spend a short term of years in the regular army. But, depend upon it, if our Government will equip men with such a training on reasonable requirements, they will prevent the loss of young men from competing for the opportunity to enter such a school.

With trained and experienced officers and non-commissioned subordinates, an American army could be mobilized and trained in an incredibly short space of time. Then let the Government work more closely with our national guard, compensating the young men who are giving their time and energy to this thoughtful work. Let a system of medals be provided for excellence in sharpshooting by civilians and for military drills by citizen-bodies.

The result of this would surely be the creation of a great army of peace which could at short notice be transformed into a vast army of war that would creditably represent and defend the peace-loving people of the United States.

F. C. HUTZLER,

Secretary, Chamber of Commerce of Kalamazoo, Kalamazoo, Mich.

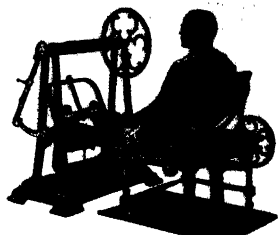


Pedal which bends and stretches the foot.

The Mechanics of Convalescence

Methods of Hastening the Cure of German Wounded Soldiers

By Walter Bannard



Exercising the legs.

MEDICINE and surgery have had a very serious task set before them in the handling of the vast hosts of wounded men in all the belligerent armies. It is to the credit of the members of the healing profession that both as individuals and organized bodies they are coping courageously and wisely with the great undertaking so suddenly thrust upon them. So far as known, they have never failed to give their Samaritan care impartially to friend and foe. Someone has said that the curative art is the only present-day branch of science which is benign to all men alike. There is sore need of some benign influence in the terrible struggle, for the injured men already under care may be far exceeded in numbers by those wounded in the coming days of the war.

Outside of inoculation for tetanus it is stated that no strikingly new treatment has so far appeared in the care of wounds and disease, unless the vaccine for typhus just announced should prove its utility. The work done has been largely the application of the advances of medical and surgical science in the cure of the ordinary ailments and accidents to which mankind is liable. These advances, though, have of late years been very great. There is shown all the advance, most important in surgery, in the prevention of blood poisoning, there are the increased knowledge of sanitation, the use of the Röntgen rays, and the benefits arising from other recent discoveries in the art of healing. Owing to all these improvements, we are told, large numbers of the wounded are rapidly cured and returned to the front.

It is not at all strange that the medical and surgical skill of times of peace should be so successful in the era of war. Rheumatism, pneumonia, and typhus are much dreaded diseases of camp and trench life, and the treatment of fractured bones or other bone injuries by shot resembles that of accidents to the bones in ordinary life. The main object in the surgery both of war and peace is to restore as completely as possible the natural functions of the injured parts, so that the improvements in the treatment of accidents made of late years can now be happily used to shorten the soldier's convalescence. Heat, light and electricity, which have all their successful applications in medical and surgical science, have been turned to good account, and mechanotherapy has proved of much value, especially in the after-treatment of injuries which leave stiffened joints.

The methods of mechanotherapy are not largely

used in the United States. This system of treatment had its origin in Sweden and its theories have been largely developed in that country and also in Germany, where the use of machinery in the cure of injuries to the bones, nerves, and muscles is widely extended both in hospital and private practice. Dr. Charles H. Jaeger, the well-known authority on mechanotherapy, states that, in reply to his inquiry, some six hundred institutions and physicians in Germany said they used mechanotherapy to hasten convalescence not only in affections of the joints, but also, in many instances, in diseases, as pneumonia and pleurisy, and after operations not referring particularly to joints. Most of them had been using this treatment for a considerable period of years, and convalescence, in the general opinion, was decidedly shortened thereby. One reason for the large use of mechanical methods in the treatment of injuries in Germany is the compulsory state insurance of workmen, which obliges the employer to bear the greater part of the expense of illness from accidents. This naturally leads the master to seek after methods for shortening the duration of the workman's inaction, and Germans debate that mechanotherapy has proved a good way of detaching the lazy worker who wants to live off the insurance fund. This form of treatment being of such general use in Germany, it is not surprising that the military hospitals there are largely equipped for it, as the illustrations show, a provision which now stands them in good stead.

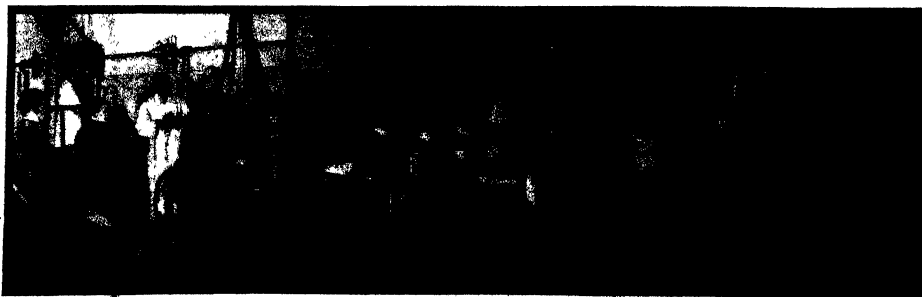
The mechanical treatment is generally an after-treatment, although it may begin before the injured bone or joint is entirely healed. It is based on the idea that lack of use leads to lack of nutrition and atrophy of the part, and its aims are the improvement of nutrition and the maintenance of functions. It seeks to attain these ends by massage and gymnastics. Various kinds of machinery are used which have different methods of maintaining movement, but the force of all is adjustable and the movement is defined. The movements are active, the patient taking part, passive, in which the patient is acted upon without his own exertion and resistant, in which the machine exerts a regulated resistance to the action of the patient. In these exercises the patient stands, sits, or lies, according to the treatment required, as may be seen from the illustrations. Among the apparatus used is machinery for bending, stretching, or rotating various joints which may be stiffened from trench-rheumatism or from a wound, machinery for expansion of the lungs, thus per-

mitting better oxidation of the blood after a shot in the breast; machinery for producing mechanically such operations as percussion, friction, kneading, or vibration. These last operations are also performed by hand massage. Hand massage is one of the cures of antiquity revived and scientifically developed in the latter part of the last century. The soldier of to-day has the benefit from it once enjoyed by the Roman legionary.

Other aids employed to hasten the cure of soldiers eager to be back at the front are electric light baths, currents of hot air heated and kept in motion by electricity, and electricity in various other forms, as direct and low-frequency currents, which aid in overcoming the paralysis of muscles or nerves caused by a wound. All men who are hurt in a war are not necessarily wounded. In a strenuous life calling for violent exertion many ordinary accidents may befall them, or they may be stunned or otherwise injured by the wind-concussion of the huge shells.

To-day plastic surgery allows the preparation of stumps which can support artificial additions much better than was formerly the case. Maimed soldiers, the melancholy aftermath of war, are not now condemned in as great measure as in past times to inaction and methods of earning a living that are only modified forms of beggary. The belligerent countries are already trying in various ways to meet the problem of equipping the cripples of war for their new conditions of life. In England convalescent crippled soldiers are being placed in homes for crippled children, where they can learn suitable ways of earning a living. The care of maimed soldiers in Germany was assigned last August, only a few days after hostilities were declared, to the German Society for the Care of Cripples, which immediately began to make plans for work on a large scale in connection with the authorities and private benevolent organizations. This journal gave some account not long ago of a book written by a one-armed German, who wished to show German soldiers similarly maimed how to walk on themselves. The same desire to help those of like affliction has led an English officer, blinded in the Boer war, to undertake the teaching of the independence he has gained to men who have lost their sight in the present struggle.

Although science and devotion to the task have wrought so many successful cures in this war, there are injuries which still baffle them. A doctor in an American hospital for the wounded is reported to have



Apparatus for breathing gymnastics and passive expansion of the chest.

A number of electric hot-air apparatus employed for treating stiff joints.

Apparatus for use in limbering up arms and fingers.

said that the staff had next to no abdominal cases. This would indicate that such patients are apt to die before reaching the base hospital.

The Government's Competition for a Naval Dirigible

By C. Dinsbach

THE British War Office transferred, some time ago, all its army dirigibles to the navy. In soliciting bids for naval dirigibles the American Government seems to have been guided in its policy toward the long suspected lighter-than-air machine by the identical considerations which influence the British—that only dirigibles may be depended upon for long-range overseas work. This theory is brilliantly vindicated by the German naval Zeppelins. According to a recent authentic statement, they cruise about over the North Sea as if it were a mill pond and simply shoot down interfering hostile seaplanes. This must be borne in mind to appreciate the published conditions of the American dirigible contest.

Appropriations by Congress are scanty, even for inexpensive aeroplanes, of undoubted utility, and with the memory of the sensational failure of the large British naval airship "Mayfly" still sufficiently fresh, it is not surprising that these conditions ask for a "simple" airship of pliant design, as dirigibles go. But it is rather misleading, when the Government calls this a Vedette type. This French term means essentially a small army dirigible, a "disguised aeroplane" of short range, almost as easy to provision, transport, store, and operate, but also of marked simplicity. Any reduction of the "aerial dreadnought's" resourcefulness finds there no more room than in the average aeroplane.

realize on a similar displacement. But in this way the first American naval dirigible, except that it will furnish a test of technical skill, materials and workmanship available in the United States (the clause stipulating continuous Government inspection of the materials and the building process seems very wise) will be useful only as a training ship. (The stipulation for a numerous crew seems moreover to make this special purpose clear.) But the conditions will not in themselves guarantee that the winning design may also be a proper stepping stone and model for larger units. They rather seem to invite the reverse. Obviously, for instance, the lightest aeroplane engine will be equal in a run of only two hours, and the temptation is great to doze in this way, decidedly poor dirigible practice—other difficulties of getting the most out of the allotted weight. It would be a very complicated undertaking to ponder all the advantages and disadvantages of a hundred different compromises to comply with the exacting conditions, but it may be safely stated that they generally lead toward the small, sturdy British "Greek Letter Type," with much lift for its dimensions, and permitting of a good deal of useful equipment, such as, for instance, the swiveling propeller specially demanded in the American competition, but slow and decidedly no model for enlarged units. Speed is the prime requisite in a dirigible, because head resistance increased with the square of the velocity and a true Astra-Torres Vedette of forty miles an hour on 150 by 27 feet has actually proved the best model for enlargements. It is easy to make use of the extra lift gained by increasing the size for supplying any amount of equipment, but to improve inherently slow speed by mere enlargement is a much less efficient proceeding. In any competition the system which favors

render its capture and control comparatively easy. The other patent was issued in 1911 to K. Buzsmüller of Krefenken, Germany, for a cartridge filled with a mixture of capside in an immediately gaseous form for narcotizing animals.

A Welcome New Scientific Journal

IT is a well-recognized fact that the progress of science is seriously impeded by an overabundance of scientific journals. Almost every scientific man finds that a deplorable amount of his time is given to the task of gathering together from scores of periodicals the *diversa membra* of the literature in which he is especially interested, and, to make matters worse, there is always a certain redundancy of such literature that wastes his vigilance on account of its out-of-the-way place of publication.

Hence, the advent of a new scientific periodical is not hailed with general satisfaction unless there are very special reasons to justify its existence. Such reasons undoubtedly authorize the appearance of the monthly *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, which began publication last January. In fact, the *Proceedings* at once takes rank among the few journals that are indispensable.

Not long ago we greeted the new *Journal of the Washington Academy of Sciences*, which so admirably epitomizes the progress of science at the capital as the nearest approach yet realized in America to an analogue of the *Paris Comptes rendus*. This characterization may be even more aptly applied to the new organ of the National Academy. Its aims, as announced, "will be to furnish a comprehensive survey of the more important results of the scientific research of this coun-



Motor-driven apparatus for massage of foot and back and percussion of arm; left, convalescent on riding apparatus.

Medico-mechanical treatment of members stiffened by wounds; passive extension of knee and trunk.

Renard, the ingenious designer of the first true dirigible, "La France" of 1894, excused his failure to follow up his success with these words: "What are two hours! A dirigible which cannot plough through the air for twenty hours is useless." Renard's opinion is revived in reading conditions which ask for only two hours' running at full speed.

In the true Vedette type every other advantage is, for good reasons, sacrificed to vital radius of action and speed, both so difficult to attain with a small dirigible.

Far from being a Vedette, the airship aimed at by the Government's conditions tends to become a "miniature Zeppelin," not the least by religiously obeying the much-debated "full crew law." From the four-man crew of a *Paravel Vedette* of 128 feet length, 25 feet beam; a *Sodize Vedette* of 134 feet length, 28 feet beam; an *Astra-Torres Vedette* of 156 feet length, 27 feet beam, with displacements ranging from 42,384 to 54,746 cubic feet, to the eight men crew demanded for the first United States naval dirigible of 175 feet length, 35 feet beam (and corresponding displacement with a *Paravel* hull of 81,186 cubic feet, with a *Sodize* hull of 90,727.50 cubic feet, and an *Astra-Torres* hull of 79,625 cubic feet) is not a short step. But the conditions also call for an inclined cot to serve as a boat. What that imposes the designers of Brucker's transatlantic airship have found out. There must also be swiveling twin propellers, double balloon control, combined with horizontal rudders, two motors, mooring arrangements, and, finally wireless and lighting equipment, and appliances.

Incidentally the first United States naval dirigible is to be a complete air modern automobile. To fulfill these exacting demands the speed has been reduced to less than four miles and the radius of action to less than one third of what a true Vedette could

speed (and incidentally a wide radius of action) must for any given size should be put at the highest premium. While there seems little doubt that the submitted designs will not be judged merely by their close conformation to the conditions, but by their general excellence, there is less assurance of competitors not being gulled too much by the more conditions. They would be justified if the competition were only for the best training ship. In a training ship the principal merit does consist of providing on a small displacement the accommodations and the equipment of a large craft. But in this way it becomes inherently a poor model to enlarge. In the details of the conditions due consideration has been given to modern experiences. The importance attached to mooring the ship to a mast in a fifteen mile wind, and to its ability to weather a formidable gale while thus anchored deserves special credit.

Perfecting accessories furnishes likewise a stepping stone to enlarged units where they are indispensable, only of less importance than insuring speed. Complications are even easier on a small scale owing to the relative strength of materials inversely increasing with size.

So-called Humane Bullets

WE are told in the current newspapers that Alexander Foster Humphrey of Pittsburgh has invented a bullet supplied with narcotic and antiseptic the former to relieve the pain of a wound and the latter to aid the healing operations. At least two patents have issued for narcotizing bullets, both especially designed for use in capturing the lower animals. One patent issued in 1910 to James Francis O'Byrne and Thomas A. Flood of Salt Lake City for a bullet carrying a narcotic whose anesthetic effect when shot into a fleshy portion of an animal would so affect it as to

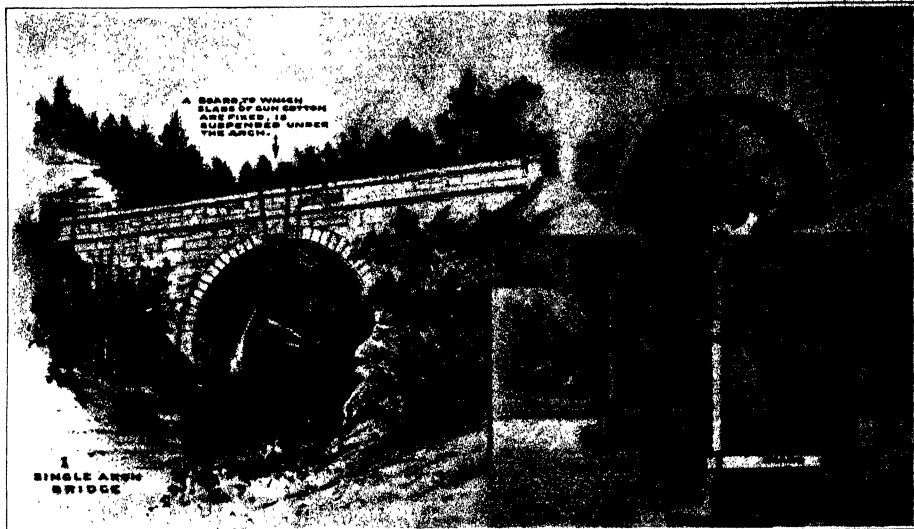
try. It is not designed to replace or displace any previously existing journal since its contents will be limited to brief advance notices of important scientific achievements, the more detailed reports of which will appear elsewhere. The maximum length of contributions is fixed at 2500 words. Authors are, however, cautioned to be concise in making clear the new results and to give some record of the methods and data on which they are based, as well as of the relation which the paper bears to previous publications on the same subject.

The managing editor is Prof. E. B. Wilson of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The American Hog in New Pastures

IT has remained for American brains and American capital to put to practical and profitable use that greatest of all problems of the hot low countries of Central and South America—the worn-out banana land. Experiments conducted by American planters have shown that hogs pastured on grass and fattened on bananas produce a superior, almost odorless (and finely flavored) meat. Hogs, it has been found, can be raised on the worn-out banana lands and fattened on the small, unmarketable bunches of fruit borne on these acres. So much for the banana land in the course of its deterioration.

When bananas may no longer be grown, the land will produce bountiful crops of sugar. Two thousand acres, near Ceiba, Honduras, the banana yield of which was long ago exhausted, has so responded to sugar cultivation that a sugar mill has been erected on the premises by the Honduras Sugar and Distilling Company, at a cost of half a million dollars, to take care of the resulting cane crop.



The Illustrated War News

Bridge destruction methods used by military engineers in the case of arched and girder bridges.

Protecting a Retreating Army

Effective Methods of Destroying Its Lines of Communications

IN times gone by, when armies were of comparatively small size and battles were largely hand to hand contests, it was frequently possible to subside the troops upon the supplies of the surrounding country, and as the weapons consisted of single-shot muskets or rifles and cannon of small size, it was not difficult to carry along a supply of ammunition sufficient for a considerable time. Now this is all changed, and continuous and rapid communication must be at all times maintained between the troops and bases of supplies of all kinds, for upon its supplies depends the effective power of an army, indeed a failure of ammunition in a modern war, even for a few hours, often means the defeat and possible surrender of a numerous army unless it can retire rapidly.

Under these modern conditions, when a retreat is necessary, one of the most effective methods for protecting the retreating army is to destroy the communications behind it, and the most common means of doing this is to destroy the bridges as they are passed, as this effectively cuts off the supplies of the following army which must wait until these bridges have been repaired or replaced, a work that often requires considerable time. The methods employed in destroying bridges in war time are described as follows in *The Illustrated War News*, published by the Illustrated London News.

Bridges may be roughly divided into three classes—namely, arched, girder and suspension. In order to demolish rapidly an arched bridge having a single span of masonry, it is usual to fracture the crown of the arch, after which the whole thing collapses. To effect this with the least possible delay a board to which slabs of gun-cotton are fixed is suspended under the arch. In contact with the stone-work, the slabs of explosive being fired simultaneously either by a time-fuse or electricity (see No. 1 top of this page). If more time is available for preparation, a hole excavated from the roadway down to the crown of the arch is charged with gun-cotton or dynamite, a time-fuse or electric firing-cable being connected, brought to the surface, and carried to the side of the road in a suitable channel. The whole excavation is then filled in, and the road can be used as long as necessary, but the charge can be fired and the bridge destroyed at any moment. The structure in this case has nothing to show that it is mined, and may therefore be blown up if desired while the enemy is actually crossing it. If sufficient time can be given to the work, a very complete demolition of such a bridge may be effected (see No. 2) by simultaneously exploding three charges (see 3) of dynamite placed in parallel trenches cut across the

bridge from the roadway down to the crown. In dealing with bridges constructed with steel girders carried on brick or stone piers, it is usual to destroy the piers by means of mines at the base (see No. 3), and to trust to the consequent fall of the girders so to damage them as to render them useless. When, however, it is thought desirable to fracture the girder itself, a charge of gun-cotton is placed below the top flange on one side, and another above the bottom flange on the other side of the center web, on a bed of clay in each case, the whole contrivance being kept in position by wooden struts. When the two charges are simultaneously exploded the girder is cut through.

To destroy a suspension bridge, it is usual to cut the cables in three places. This is done in each case by exploding two slabs of gun-cotton fixed at right angles to each other, the cable lying in the angle.

The interruption of railway traffic is a comparatively simple matter, a slab of dynamite exploded in close contact with a rail, or when fired between switch or cross-over points, causing such distortion and deflection of the metals as to stop the passage of trains.

What "Capturing" German Trade Means

IT is an easy enough matter to speak glibly about capturing German "diverted" trade, but an exhibition which has been open at the Cutlers' Hall in Sheffield recently deeply impresses one with what it really means. The *Engineer* of London points out very aptly that one of the outstanding features of this diverted trade is the making of steel castings for shipbuilders, but that manufacturers are faced with the fact that Germany has been supplying these things to some British yards at fully 50 per cent less than the figure at which they could be made in England. "We cannot say what such castings are costing at the present moment," says our contemporary, "but it is certain that steel prices generally have considerably advanced since the close of 1914, though if the trade is to be retained after the war British manufacturers will be bound to bring their prices nearer to the German idea than perhaps they care to contemplate just now. But the exhibition at the Cutlers' Hall is an absolute revelation in the way of values. A very comprehensive collection of German cutlery has been got together by Mr. Walter Tysack, under the auspices of the Cutlers' Company, and every article has been ticketed with the exact German selling price delivered in London, so that manufacturers who have essayed to invade German markets may see exactly what they have to fight against. The exhibition concerned the whole

of the industry, as, of course, Sheffield cutlery is made from Sheffield steel. Along with razors, scissors, and knives of the highest quality, there were pocket knives at 15 cents per dozen, two-bladed penknives at 6 cents and 8 cents each, Kaffir knives from 15 cents to 32 cents per dozen, champagne knives with two blades, cork-screws and cigar-cutters, at from 80 cents to 94 cents per dozen, cast scissors at 24 cents per dozen, folding scissors from 31 cents per dozen, large cutting-out and shear scissors from 12 cents to 24 cents each, fine hollow-ground razors from \$1.70 to \$6.32 per dozen, and safety razors in case with an extra blade at from 6 cents each upward. Some of these prices are actually less than the cost of grinding in Sheffield, and the whole display presents a problem to the cutlery industry as to how it can so shape its future method that the splendid opportunity now offered for capturing new markets may be taken full advantage of. Some of the lines are not worth Sheffield manufacturers' consideration, but many others are, and if it means a thorough reorganization of labor conditions, bringing them more into line with those prevailing, say, at Solingen—the Sheffield of Germany—and the introduction of the most modern machinery, even at the expense of the old handicraft idea, then it looks as if the old order must change, giving place to the new."

War and the Weather

THAT the weather is a most important factor to be considered by those responsible for the planning of a campaign has become very apparent during the last few months, for of late much has been heard of the difficulties that have resulted from heavy rains in France and the snows of the Carpathians, both of which have seriously hampered the operations on both sides. Winter conditions make the transportation of supplies and the moving of heavy guns matters of extreme difficulty that must be the subject of grave concern for the leaders, and undoubtedly every possible advantage has been taken of such advance information in regard to the weather as has been obtainable. These questions have been the most serious, although the difficulties of moving men, and their comfort in camps and trenches, have also depended greatly upon the weather. Whether Germany took into consideration the weather probabilities for the districts included in the western war zone when declaring war is not known; but this is very possible, as it is generally understood that she did not expect the war to last over two months, and the reports of bad weather in that district did not figure prominently in the news until late in September.

The Heavens in May

Determining the Difference in Longitude Between Washington and Paris

By Henry Norris Russell, Ph.D.

THE piece of astronomical work on which it seems of greatest interest to report this month is of quite a different nature from those which have engaged our attention recently, being a fine example of the use of modern methods and apparatus to obtain increased precision in the measurement of a quantity of fundamental importance. This is the difference in longitude between the Old World and the New—to be precise, that between Paris and Washington—which was re-determined by the use of wireless signals in the winter of 1913-14. French and American astronomers co-operated in the work, their observations being made in such a way that the difference of longitude could be found independently from the observations of either nationality. The results of the American parties, which alone have so far been completed for publication, are the object of our present interest.

Ever since the invention of the telegraph it has been a very simple matter, theoretically, to find the difference in longitude between any two places, however remote, which are in electrical communication with one another. It is only necessary to have standard clocks at the two stations to determine by observing the stars the errors (fast or slow) of these clocks at a given time, and then, by sending a telegraphed signal the instant of whose transmission is recorded by one clock, and of its reception by the other, to find by how many hours, minutes and seconds the clock at the eastern station (which, of course, is supposed to keep the local time at that point) is fast of the similar clock at the western station.

As every schoolboy knows, this difference of time can be converted into the difference of the longitudes, such as are recorded on our maps, by simply taking 15 degrees for every hour, 15 minutes of arc for each minute of time, and so on. Theoretically, therefore, this is one of the simplest problems imaginable; practically, it is one of the most complicated and difficult to solve with high accuracy. Some features of it, indeed, may now be said to be in a satisfactory state. Present day astronomical clocks, built with every possible regard for exactness, mounted in underground vaults where the temperature is kept constant from year's end to year's end, and inclosed in air-tight cases from which much of the air has been pumped out, perform so admirably that they can be trusted to carry along the time from one night's observation to another quite as accurately as it can be found on either night by observation, though over longer intervals of weeks or months it is necessary to keep track of the clock's behavior by observations on every clear night. The transit instruments with which are made the observations of the times of passage of stars over the meridian, are also capable of very accurate construction. By a suitable plan of observation, and by continual testing of the nature and amount of their small outstanding errors of adjustment, these can be almost entirely prevented from exercising any detrimental influence. But to eliminate the human factor, the personal peculiarities of the observer himself, is a harder task.

It is an old story that when the observer has to watch the transit of the star over the spider-lines in his field of view, and as it crosses each one, press the key which records electrically the exact moment, the difference of "personal equation" between one man and another may be very considerable. If he waits to see the star on the wire, making the act of pressing the key, he is liable to the error of half a second, which causes his hand to press the key his signal will obviously be late, and by an amount which will depend on his temperament and mental quickness. Or, relying this, he may form the habit of pressing the key just before the star gets to the thread, and may misinterpret the error and observe early. Worse than these things, there is the probability—often, indeed, the certainty—that this error will vary with such things as the brightness of the star and the state of vision of the observer.

An ingenious mechanical device, the "transit micrometer," has recently eliminated these errors. It consists of an apparatus which carries a small movable thread across the field of view, and automatically signals the instant when the thread passes the star in this

field. The rate of its motion is controlled by the observer, who devotes his whole attention to keeping it upon the moving image of the star, leaving to the automatic part of the device the responsibility of signaling when the star and the wire moving with it reach the standard position.

With this instrument, the personal equations of the observers are greatly reduced, though not quite abolished. Their remaining influence can be got rid of by having the observers at the two stations exchange places when half of the observations are completed. If before the exchange the combined effect of these personal errors of the observers tends to make the difference of longitude come out too great, after the exchange it will make it come out too small, and the average of the two determinations will be correct (unless, indeed, the personal equations of the observers change during the time covered by the observations, which, for experienced observers, is unlikely).

Finally, after all these difficulties have been surmounted, and the errors of the clocks at the two sta-

tions of a long series of half second "bursts," at intervals not of exactly one second, but of 99/100 of a second so that they gradually drew ahead of the ticks of the clock used for comparison (which were made audible in the observer's telephone). The times of exact coincidence of the clock beats with the beginning of the radio signals could be easily estimated and gave the means of making a very precise comparison between the clocks at the two stations. The over-sea signals were usually very faint and difficult to hear, but satisfactory transmission of signals in both directions was secured on thirty-eight different nights between November, 1913, and February, 1914, and transmission in one direction only on fourteen more nights. The final result of all the observations makes the difference between Paris time and Washington time 5 hours 17 minutes 36.658 seconds, with a probable error of only one three hundredth of a second.

As English and French astronomers have found that Paris is 9 minutes 20.832 seconds east of Greenwich, it follows that the difference of longitude between Greenwich and Washington is 5 hours 8 minutes 15.726 seconds, with a probable error of about one sixtieth of a second. This corresponds to 77 degrees 3 minutes 55.9 seconds.

This is 0.8 second less than the value given in the American Ephemeris for 1915 and previous years. The correction corresponds to a distance of 63 feet on the Earth's surface. The probable error assigned to the new result when reduced to the same measure, corresponds to but *three and one half feet* in the whole distance between Washington and Paris.

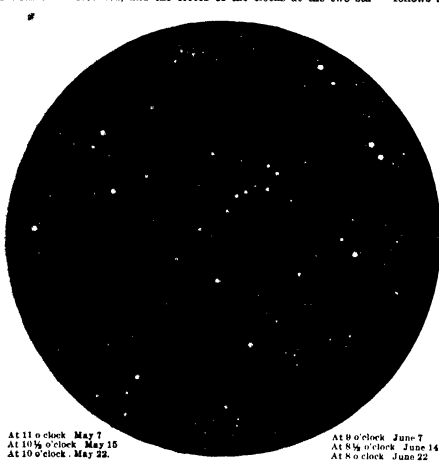
Another evidence of the amazing accuracy of this work is that it has been possible to measure the velocity with which the wireless signals fly through the ether. From the results of the thirty-eight nights on which signals were sent in both directions the combined transmission time in both directions across the Atlantic (3,829 statute miles) was found to be 0.0437 second—almost exactly 1/23 of a second, from which it appears that the velocity of the signals was 175,000 miles per second. The probable error of this result is 16,000 miles, or about 9 per cent of the whole. The velocity of light (with which theoretically that of the wireless signals ought to agree) is 186,280 miles per second, and the observed velocity of the wireless signals agrees with this within the error of its determination.

The Heavens.

The finest group of the evening sky is now to the eastward, where Cygnus shines, just risen in the northeast, with Lyra above, Aquila to the right and Scorpion farther on toward the south. Arcturus, brightest of all the stars of directly reddish hue, shines almost overhead. Hercules and Boötes occupy a great space between him and the constellations previously named. Virgo is in the southwest, with Hydra below her. The stars lower down, which in our latitude rise but little above the southern horizon, belong to Centaurus, and observers in latitudes bordering on the tropics, or within them, will see below these the two bright stars of the constellation, the easternmost of which, Alpha Centauri, is our nearest neighbor in space. Leo is the most conspicuous group in the west, Gemini (now partly set) in the northwest, and the two Bears and Draco in the north.

The Planets.

Mercury is in conjunction with the Sun on the 1st, and thereafter is an evening star. During the latter part of the month he will be easily visible in the twilight, especially about the 31st, when he is at his greatest elongation. He is in the western part of Gemini and appears to be about as bright as Procyon, and superior to Castor and Pollux. Venus is a morning star, in Aries, rising about 5.30 A. M. and still very bright, although she is now 130 million miles from Mars. Mars is also a morning star, close to Venus. On the 14th the two planets are in conjunction. Venus being a little less than a degree to the southward. The difference in apparent brightness is very great, Venus seeming to us about ninety times as brilliant as Mars. There are several causes which combine to produce



NIGHT SKY: MAY AND JUNE

tions accurately determined, it is necessary to take into account the time which the telegraphic signals take in passing from one observatory to the other. (In a direct overland line of reasonable length this is but a very short fraction of a second, but on long submarine cables it may be a very considerable fraction of a second before the electric current, introduced at one end, fills up—so to speak—the large electric capacity of the cable, and becomes strong enough to give a perceptible signal at the far end.)

By sending signals through the line first from one end and then from the other this "transmission time" may be cleared out by taking the average, but the slightest difference in the electrical conditions in the two cases will impair the precision of the result.

Wireless transmission of the time signals possesses certain obvious advantages. The speed of transmission is that of light, and, under favorable conditions, the signals sent out from a station close to one of the co-operating observatories can be received both there and at the transatlantic station, simultaneously, and without any intervening repeating apparatus.

This method, in addition to all the refinements of observation previously described, and many others relating to technical, but vitally important details, has been at the basis of the recent longitude work.

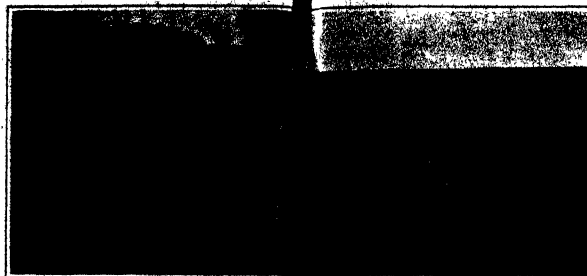
The powerful radio stations at the Eiffel Tower and at Radio, Virginia, across the Potomac from Washington, were put into service and signals sent in both directions after the observers at Paris had completed their observations of the stars, and before those at Washington began theirs. Each set of signals con-

(Continued on page 416.)



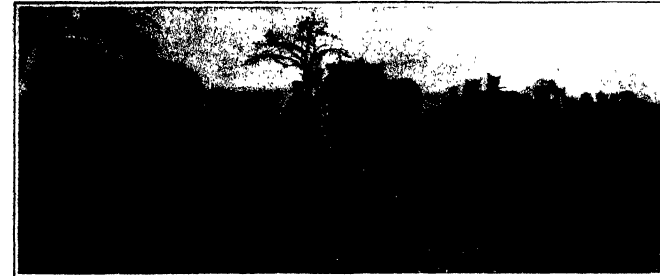
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A shipment of barbed wire to be used for German entanglements.



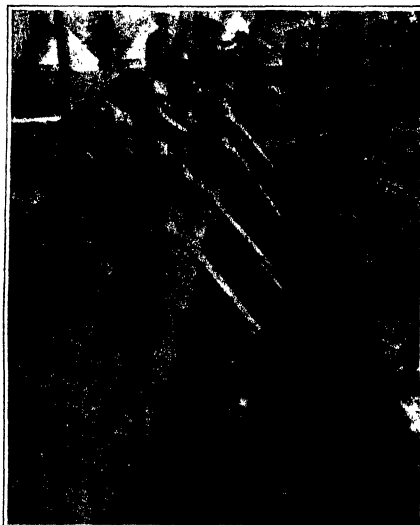
Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

Austrian howitzer shells, showing the time fuse which the moment of explosion can be accurately fixed.



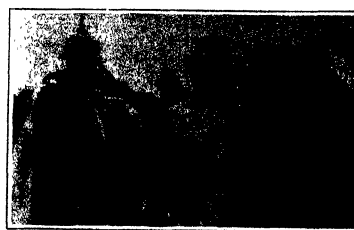
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The German army plowing for French peasants whose horses have been commandeered.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

British soldiers learning how to use the bayonet in trench fighting on the western front.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

The German Emperor on the eastern battle front cross-examining a Russian infantryman.



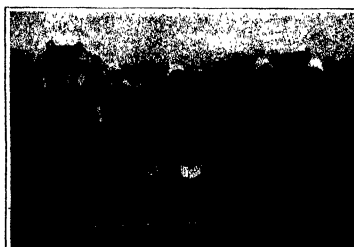
Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

Daylight signaling with a beam of light from an automobile searchlight outfit in northern France.



Copyright by Brown & Dawson

Printing a German paper (its name is "Hurrah") for the men in the trenches.



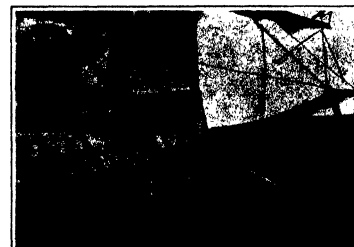
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The Germans will not permit these Belgian girls to work in mines, to the detriment of their health.



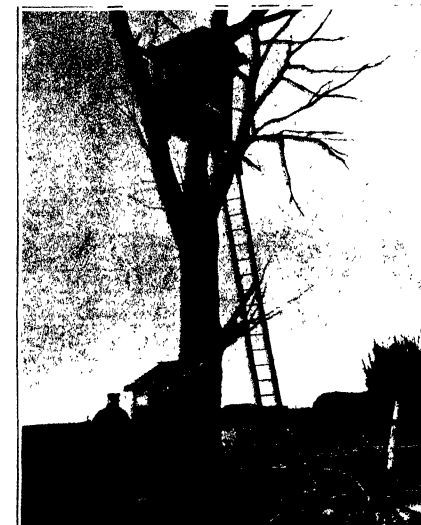
Photograph by Brown & Dawson

English soldiers bailing out of their trenches with long-handled tools.



Photograph by Brown & Dawson

A new bomb-dropping arrangement installed on a Voisin military biplane.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

To protect themselves from the inclement weather German soldiers have built tree houses from which they can observe the effect of artillery fire.



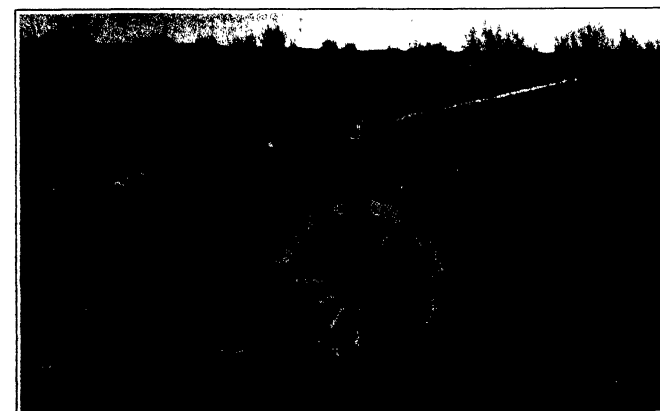
Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

The famous Austrian 30.5 Skoda howitzer, which has done wonderful work on the eastern and western frontiers.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

Austrian officers communicating with the firing line by telephone.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

This photograph, taken at Przemyśl, shows how the gun is lowered after it has been fired without exposing the crew.

RECENT PICTURES FROM THE FIGHTING FRONTS

Shoe-button Attaching Machine

A PATENT has recently been issued on a machine for attaching buttons with wire staples, which possesses many novel features and several improvements over present machines for performing this work. The new machine automatically makes, drives and clenches the staples, fastening the buttons to shoes, gaiters, leggings, and other articles. One of the advantages of the new machine is that it will take buttons of various sizes. If it be desired to attach a few buttons of a different pattern from those with which the magazine is stocked, the chute that leads from the magazine may be cleared by tilting it, so that the buttons will flow by gravity back into the magazine and then buttons of any desired design may be introduced into the chute by hand. The mechanism, which feeds the wire to the staple-forming parts, is arranged to operate only when there is a button in position to receive the staple.

The accompanying photograph gives a general idea of the machine, and the method of using it to attach buttons to shoes. The machine is operated by depressing a pedal. In the magazine there is a pick-up device consisting of a pair of plates separated sufficiently to form a slot in which the shanks of the buttons are received. At each operation of the pedal the pick-up device is lowered to the bottom of the magazine or hopper, so that the buttons will fall upon the two plates, and some of them at least will drop into proper position, with their shanks in the slot. As soon as the pick-up device reaches the bottom of the magazine, the magazine itself drops, separating the buttons therein and causing them to fall into the pick-up device. This also serves to jar off the pick-up device such buttons as are not properly located within their shanks in the slot. Then the pick-up device rises, lifting the magazine to the position shown in the photograph, and the buttons slide out of the pick-up device into the chute.

In the accompanying drawing is a sectional view of the mechanism which makes, drives and clenches the staples. It will be observed that the last one of the row of buttons in the chute is retained by a leaf spring 1. The faked ejector slide 2 is in its forward position having just been operated by the unflattened gear 3, to push a button out of the chute. This button is detained by the starwheel 4, while the button 5 is being affixed to the shoe. The shank of button 5 rests in the staple former die 6, and the wire has been threaded through the shank of the button. By mechanism not shown in our drawing, the wire is cut off to the desired length, and then it is bent forward to form a staple by means of a pair of fingers on the slide 7. These fingers, however, do not show in the drawing because the section is taken through the center of the slide, and the farther finger is largely concealed behind the staple driver 8, which operates between the fingers. The staple former is moved forward by the bell crank lever 9, which is actuated by the foot pedal. Further motion of this bell crank lever brings the extension 10 against the staple driver 8, causing it to push the button forward and force the staple point through the article to which the button is to be attached and against the anvil or clenching die 10. Of course before the staple driver can operate, the staple-forming die 6 must be lowered out of its path. This is accomplished by means of a member 11, which engages the die 6. When the driver 7 is moved forward, it rides over the upwardly projecting tooth of member 11, depressing the member and with it the die 6.

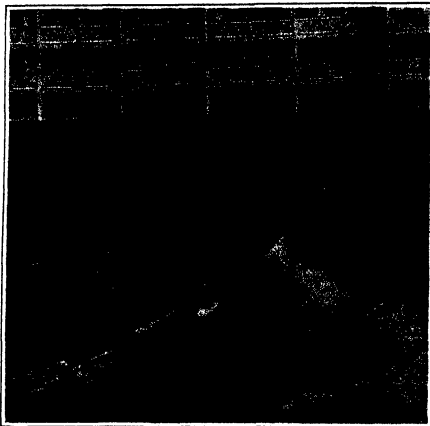
Most of the mechanism that feeds the wire to the buttons is cut away in our sectional view. But the actuating lever may be seen at 12, also a slide 13 that it raises and lowers. The reverse in which the lever 12 engages is so large that the lever may swing through its full sweep without lifting the slide. But a filler is introduced into the recess in the shape of an arm 14, which is connected by a system of levers with the buttonholder 15, so that when there is a button in position to receive the wire, the buttonholder 15 is raised, introducing the filler 14 into the slide 13. Then when the lever 12 swings upward, it lifts the slide 13, and through the proper length of wire through the shank of the button in the die 6. Should there be no button in the

die, the arm 14 would be retracted, and the lever 12 would operate idly without lifting the slide 13. Thus no wire would be fed to the mechanism to cause clogging or imperfect working.

The inventor of this machine is Mr. Benjamin Korkovsk of Brooklyn, N. Y.

Emergency Marine Gangway

WHEN the ill-fated "Volturno" wallowed helplessly in mid-ocean, her terror-stricken passengers had



Emergency gangway for embarking and disembarking passengers.

died on the afterdeck to escape the inferno of flame that raged within her, there were plenty of would-be rescuers about, but they were powerless to reach these unfortunates owing to the high seas. Only those who had courage to throw themselves into the sea and be picked up by a rescue boat had any chance at all while the storm raged, and then the daring saviors who went out in their lifeboats after these men and women had the greatest difficulty in disembarking the shipwrecked ones from their lifeboats to their vessels. Not many were saved even in this way, and for long hours the ships stood about the wreck hoping that the sea would subside and give them a chance to deliver the unfortunate men and women.

The ordinary method of lowering a lifeboat over the side of a vessel is attended with grave danger when a

ship is in distress. The same device can also be used to enable the passengers to disembark from the lifeboats and board the rescuing ship.

This system has the merit of being extremely simple and consisting largely of such spare and tackle as any ship is provided with. Two booms are used of a length which will vary with conditions. They should be long enough to provide an incline of about 35 degrees from the water to the gangway. At the outer end of each boom is a float large enough to buoy up the boom and make it ride on the surface of the water. These

booms support a wire net which serves as a gangway down which the passengers and crew may make their way to the lifeboats. The booms are kept properly stretched apart by means of any ropes as shown in the illustration. The network is provided with sufficient slack at the outer end to permit the stem of the lifeboat to ride upon it. In this way the lifeboat may be held firmly moored to the rescue net.

Ordinarily a ship in distress lies in the trough of the waves, and the disembarking of passengers takes place on the inward side. The action of the waves is then toward and from the ship, and by keeping the lifeboat bow-on to the rescue net it is in the best position to ride the waves. It will be noted that the floats are also of such shape as to ride the waves best in this position, for they run parallel to the booms they support. The inner face of each float is fattened so as to clear the lifeboat. Of course the lifeboat will rise and fall on the waves, but so will the net, hence there will be no interference to the embarking or disembarking of passengers. The booms are each provided with a set of rings and the net is readily attached to them by means of snap hooks. It is then drawn out to the end of the boom by means of suitable tackle. When not in use the net may quickly be removed, and the booms and boats together hoisted on board. With slight alterations the ordinary cargo booms of a ship may be utilized in this equipment.

Capt. McGray has recently secured patents on this life-saving apparatus, and he informs us that when he showed the invention to the captain of one of the rescue ships that took over a hundred people from the "Volturno," he said that it was the very thing he was trying to devise during those long hours of helpless watching, but he had not quite been able to figure it out.

Using the Talking Machine to Teach Music

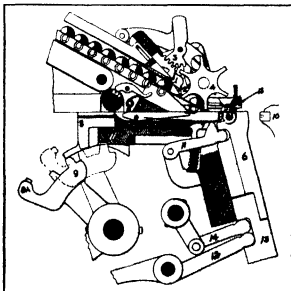
AS the result of a system of musical time-recording records for talking machines lately devised by Jules Louis-Eliot of Far Rockaway, N. Y., the prospect of after-school practice hours on the piano stool may be lightened for juvenile musical students. Mr. Louis-Eliot's automatic "coach" will hold no terrors of accidentals or rapped knuckles for "young hopefuls," but will be found to be of infinite patience and ever-ready to repeat the count or an example of instruction.

The principles contained in what the inventor terms his "scenario" may be interpreted on a set of double-disk talking machine records, or, the same result may be obtained in a condensed form by combining all of the musical counting or time recording on one record only. In the latter case, the 1, 2 count runs in one endless groove, or circle, on the record, the 1, 2, 3, on an inner groove, and so on until the counting is complete with six separate circles on one record. This principle is applicable also in making two or three records of the six methods of musical time recording, or counting, if so desired.

On one side of the record are aside is the instructor in oral text; on the other side is the oral count of beats, as: 1, 2, 1, 3, 5; 1, 2, 3, 4, etc. A concluding specimen of the oral instruction text is as follows: "For example, let us take the Frodo form (the record plays twenty bars). Now, when you consult the printed music you will notice that the quarter, or C (as it is printed), is barred. This serves to indicate that one should count in two. The record now sings as a teacher does the previously played item of the Frodo, emphasizing the count: 1, 2, 1, 3, 5. Then you."



Attaching shoe buttons by machine.



Details of the driving and clenching mechanism.

heavy sea is running, and it is not without danger even in comparative calm. Owing to the heavy load of a boat filled with passengers, and the great height of the boat deck above water, there is always the possibility that the boat may swing like a giant pendulum against the hull of the vessel and be crushed before it has a chance to reach the water.

Pondering upon these conditions, Capt. Arthur M. McGray has hit upon the scheme of using an inclined way, such as shown in the accompanying illustration, for the safe disembarking of passengers and crew from

May 4, 1914

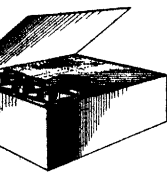
RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS.
These inventions are open to all patentees. The system are issued by special arrangement with the inventor. These are applied to in the Advertising Department of the Scientific American.

Musical Instruments.

TUNING TRANSFORMER FOR WIRELESS SYSTEMS.—R. B. COLLESON, 304 High St., Hartford, Conn. This invention relates to a tuning transformer for wireless systems and relates more particularly to a transformer of that type having relatively movable primary and secondary coils in connection with means for varying the effective lengths of the coils to obtain a wide range of tuning capacity.

Of Interest to Farmers.

FILTER FOR EGG CARRIES.—C. P. DALY, 2126 Amsterdam Ave., New York, N. Y. This invention relates to filters for egg carries and more particularly to an improved double-valved filter of such construction that



FILTER FOR EGG CARRIES

blocks incident to the shipping and handling of eggs or the fragile articles will not cause the breakage or injury thereto as is now commonly caused.

DEBUNKING APPARATUS.—R. E. ELLISON, No. 2 Chevy Chase Apt., Chevy Chase, D. C. An object here is to provide a device by means of which milk or other similar fluids may be economically and effectually dried. The invention provides means for drying milk which will do away with complicated apparatus and which can be run continuously thereby obviating the necessity of frequent delays for charging or discharging.

Of General Interest.

DIAPHRAGM SETTING FOR PHONOGRAPH REPRODUCTION.—P. THOMAS, New City, N. Y. By this invention full toned effects are obtained from the vibrations of the diaphragm and superior reproduction rendered possible, this through the use of reliable gaskets between which the peripheral edge of the diaphragm is clamped with a uniform and practically permanent compression, so that rattling of the diaphragm is positively prevented.

TOILET DISPENSING CABINET.—A. F. LARSEN, care of Kentley Co., 30 Church St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a structure which may be used in a number of ways and also used to dispense a number of different articles so that the device may be utilized in toilet rooms, lavatories and other places where toilet paper or towels are desired.

NON-REFILLABLE BOTTLE.—J. A. MARX, 844 Green Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y., N. Y. The inventor provides a bottle with a cap in its neck and having a central valve opening in which is normally disposed a plunger with a stem disposed in a central opening. In a guide having lateral openings through which the liquid may flow from the bottle and air may flow into the bottle to replace the liquid which has been therefrom.

AMALGAMATOR.—J. C. WOOD, care of E. N. WOOD, 1156 Monmouth Bldg., Chicago, Ill. This invention relates to improvements in amalgamators, and has for an object to provide an improved structure for causing the gold or other mineral matter to be separated while the aggregating matter is moving continuously through the device.

HAIR TRANSFORMER.—J. J. TROUBLE, 1855 Cherry St., Philadelphia, Pa. The invention relates to hair dressing, more especially false hair, and the main object thereof is to provide a transformer for women's hair, whereby the entire head-dress may be placed in position or removed therefrom, as a unit.

Hardware and Tools.

SHOWER.—G. F. WILSON, 978 7th St., Spout, N. Y. This shower runs with a single shaft blade. It will cut grass of any height, and also cut close to a wall or fence. There being no friction between blades, the mower will cut a wide swath than other mowers, with the same amount of power.

FOR AND COVER LITER.—E. P. PARSONS, care of Northland Lodge, 30 W. Broadway, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to books for use, particularly in connection with cooking utensils or cooking utensils. It provides an improvement of the same and also covers, the same being provided with various openings during the use whereby the heat of the cooking utensils may be applied to the food.

FISHING. care of Dr. C. Myron Kainzky, 207 Fulton St., Jamaica, N. Y. Among the principal objects which the present invention has in view are: To provide a guard arranged to prevent the contusion of fish between the said guard and the abrasive tool; and generally to provide a guard and holder therefor having a compact structure and a neat appearance.

WIRE BRACKET.—A. B. DILL, Lakeland, Kas. The invention relates to wire stretchers and the object is to provide a device of this character which is light and compact, which may be readily set up and taken down before and after the stretching operation, and which will be effective and durable in use for the purpose it is intended.

CARPENTER TOOL.—W. H. RANSON, Jr., and C. LAWRENCE, 203 N. Arisona Ave., Atlantic City, N. Y. This improvement relates to tools for the use of carpenters, stair builders, cabinet makers and others, and the main object is to provide a tool which is adapted for a wide range of use as a marking gauge, and also as a scriber, to mark work on regular or irregular lines.

Heating and Lighting.

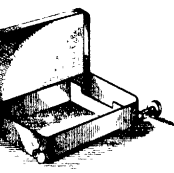
AIR FURN FOR FURNACES.—E. WINANS, New York, N. Y. This structure may be readily applied to furnaces for supplying the heated air thereto, as well as to a better combustion of the gases evolved from the gases in the furnace. The air feeding device may be built into the furnace or may be added to the furnace at any time.

Household Utilities.

WATER CLOSET.—W. F. SMITH, 25 Jarvis Ave., Troy, N. J. The improvement provides a closet arranged to combine the bowl and tank in one single integral structure, to render the closet exceedingly sanitary, to avoid leakage, to insure an effective flushing of the bowl and drainage of the accumulated moisture or overflow.

Chemical and Mechanical Devices.

CIGARETTE ROLLING MACHINE.—J. E. ROBERT, 91 Clinton Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y., N. Y. The object of this invention is to provide a machine for rolling cigarettes in a container to allow the production of a cigarette without danger of spilling the tobacco to permit of placing the proper quantity of tobacco

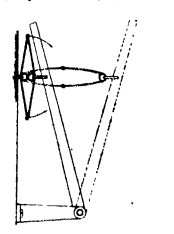


CIGARETTE ROLLING MACHINE

into a forming or filling tube to uniformly distribute the tobacco in the said tube, to pass the wrapper around the tobacco in the filling tube, and to allow of finally ejecting the finished cigarette from the tube without requiring opening of the container.

VARIABLE SPEED GEARING.—P. D. SMITH, Address Francis G. Wilson, 140 Park Ave., New York, N. Y. The invention relates more particularly to a gearing adapted to automobiles and other machinery, and provides means whereby rotation may be transmitted from a driving to a driven member at a variety of speeds ranging in a driven member from a reduction for every revolution of the driving member down to a standstill when the driving member is at full speed.

SPRING.—F. C. GREEN, Tusculum, Cal. This invention has reference to springs particularly to extensible springs having a transverse effect, and one of the main objects thereof is to provide such springs which allow



SPRING

extension up to a definite point, but beyond which will result in breakage of the parts. The invention provides such springs which will allow release to lateral position when relieved of tension.

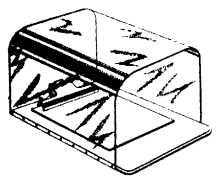
GRINDING MILL.—F. T. H. GILMAN, Reelink House, Longton, Stoke-on-Trent, England. The object here is to provide means for the grinding or milling of potter's and like materials whereby the same are prepared for the manufacture of, for instance, pottery. The feeding of the material and the water is regulated to suit the rate of outflow and the degree of fineness to which the material is to be ground and the required fluidity of the slurry of the ground and mixed product.

ATMOSPHERIC OPENING AND CLOSING APPARATUS.—G. M. HANCOCK, 25 Harmon St., Philadelphia, N. Y. The invention has reference to an opening and closing apparatus for doors or gates of that type whereby the door or gate automatically opens upon the approach of a vehicle and automatically closes upon the departure of the vehicle.

AUTOMATIC STUFF BOX FOR PAPER MACHINES.—W. F. FERRY, 32 Elm St., Hudson Falls, N. Y. The invention provides a stuff box for use in paper machines having means actuated by a float for regulating the flow of the stock to a paper machine and for returning the surplus stock to the chest. Means provide for returning the stock to the chest before it reaches the float.

Railways and Their Accessories.

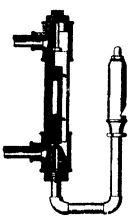
CLIP BOARD SHIELD.—J. A. LEE, P. O. Box 194, Brigham, Utah. The invention provides a transparent shield and covering adapted for attachment to a clip board that is to say, to a base provided with a clip or a clip board, it is to be understood, is meant



CLIP BOARD SHIELD

any equivalent base having means to hold paper to be written upon. This particular application to a clip board for holding a conductor's train book or a yard checker's train sheet or the like while checking trains in the rain, snow or wind.

AIR SIGNAL VALVE.—E. I. ELLISON, 1222 Guerrero St., San Francisco, Cal. This invention provides a valve in the train main air line which permits the actuation of a signal when a relief valve at one of a plurality of points is opened, said signal preferably being in close proximity to a locomotive engine.



AIR SIGNAL VALVE

door or to a motor of an motor car or train. The valve prevents the signal actuator from the train line to be caused by the pressure of air in the train line. The valve permits the actuation of the signal of a portion of the train line leading from the air reservoir to an open relief valve.

RAIL TIE AND FASTENER.—W. G. WILSON, Malden, Mass. One of the principal objects of the invention is to provide a cross tie with a rail fastener having means for securely locking the track rails against the tie. An im-



RAIL TIE AND FASTENER

portant object is to provide a fastener adapted to clamp the tie so snugly to the rail that all vibration will be reduced to a minimum and also to provide means for taking up wear between the fastener and rail.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.

INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.—J. J. HANSEN, Huntington, Ohio. The invention relates to engines of the four-cycle type, and

particularly to engines of that character wherein the admission of the explosive fluid and the exhaust of the spent gases are controlled by a single tubular valve which surrounds the piston of the engine.

METALLIC PACKING FOR PISTON RINGS.—J. HANSEN, care of Omaha Machine Works, 612 Ninth 14th St., Omaha, Neb. This invention provides a packing which will not require the numerous repairs that are necessary in the ordinary packing of this type but which will continue to pack effectively without the necessity of repair until such time as it is necessary for repacking all the packing itself.

INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.—F. D. CALKINS, care of New York Edison Co., Motor Co., Detroit, Mich. The invention has for its object the provision of means in connection with a rotary valve for controlling the admission and exhaust of the motive fluid for holding the valve in its position while permitting it to rotate and for compensating for wear in the valve or in the valve of the engine.

Pertaining to Recreation.

GAME.—C. H. SMITH, Walbridge, N. Y. The invention relates particularly to a game adapted to be played in a number of places and provides an automatic device whereby all of the players have an equal chance but where an unwise move is an opponent will be liable to produce disastrous consequences.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

ATTACHMENT FOR AUTOMOBILES.—F. N. SMITH, care of Northland Lodge, 30 W. Broadway, New York, N. Y. This improvement is designed to be attached to the wheels and wherein a housing is provided capable of attachment to and removal from the wheels and carrying the axle of the



ATTACHMENT FOR AUTOMOBILES

arranged in spaced relation and mounted for movement beyond the periphery of the wheel and normally lying within the periphery of the wheel, and wherein the mechanism is provided in connection with the dogs for extending the dogs at predetermined times.

SPRING.—J. J. HANSEN, care of New York Edison Co., Motor Co., Detroit, Mich. The invention relates to a spring which is adapted for use in connection with a wheel and wherein the spring is in the form of an annular spring coil, and wherein a separate coil spring and spoke elements to form a connection between the hub section and the cold spring.

BRAKE BLOCK HOLDER.—P. KROEMER, Master Cook. The invention relates to a holder for brake blocks or shoes, and the object thereof is to provide a device of this character which will permit of the utilization of any kind of a block to form the brake shoe and which can be readily mounted upon the train by means of which the brake is applied.

Designs.

DESIGN FOR A CLOCK FRAME.—J. P. STEINER, Address: 41 Hudson care Western Clock Co., 175 Broadway, New York, N. Y. In this ornamental design for a clock frame the frame is upright in form and outside the dial the effective features comprise ornate scroll work and flowers.

DESIGN FOR A DOLL.—C. H. SMITH, 222 E. 15th St., New York, N. Y. In this ornamental design for a doll the figure has arms and legs, a plain head face is surrounded by a long straight hair covering capped by a bow, and a dress with a single flower hangs from the doll's back.

DESIGN FOR A PARASOL.—O. M. WOOD, care of Arnold, Smith & Co., 25 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. In this ornamental design for a parasol the article has a long graceful handle and rod, on the latter is a frame of very slender rods, the cover ornamented with a highly original bouffe effect.

Note.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for ten cents each. Please state the name of the patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

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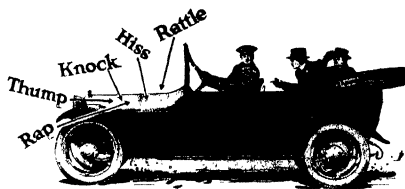
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Why worn motors never "come back"

YOUR smallest expense—lubrication—is your only protection against your heaviest expense—depreciation.

When motor wear comes, it comes to stay. The noises and rattle of worn-down motor parts grow worse, not better.

Metal worn off by friction is gone forever. That is why worn motors don't "come back."

A year's supply of the most efficient lubricating oil you can buy will cost you very little more than the cheapest oil on the market—maybe five dollars a year.

As a matter of fact, poor oils "use up" or "wear out" much more quickly than efficient oils—and so cost more than they appear to. And the very fact that they quickly "wear out" should be a warning signal.

Poor "wearing oil" means a quick wearing motor.

It is worth your while then to have a cheap oil and risk serious and permanent depreciation in the value of your car?

It is part of our daily work to analyze the lubricating problems in large manufacturing plants, all over the world, and to specify the oils which will most efficiently meet the conditions in each case.

The same thorough engineering analysis has been put into the study of automobile lubrication.

The condensed lubrication Chart on this page is more than interested advice. It represents the best engineering practice based upon extended scientific research.

Among motorists who are intelligently watching expense, this Chart has for years been a standard guide to correct lubrication. If your car is not listed, a complete Chart will be sent at your request.

A plain question you must decide is this: Will you buy correct lubrication—or pay ultimately for the costly penalties of incorrect lubrication?



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Correct Lubrication

Explanation: In the Chart below, the letter opposite the car indicates the grade of Gargoyle Mobiloid that should be used. For example, "A" means Gargoyle Mobiloid "A." "Arctic" means Gargoyle Mobiloid "Arctic." The recommendations cover all models of both pleasure and commercial vehicles unless otherwise noted.

Model	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915
Model A	A	A	A	A	A
Model B	A	A	A	A	A
Model C	A	A	A	A	A
Model D	A	A	A	A	A
Model E	A	A	A	A	A
Model F	A	A	A	A	A
Model G	A	A	A	A	A
Model H	A	A	A	A	A
Model I	A	A	A	A	A
Model J	A	A	A	A	A
Model K	A	A	A	A	A
Model L	A	A	A	A	A
Model M	A	A	A	A	A
Model N	A	A	A	A	A
Model O	A	A	A	A	A
Model P	A	A	A	A	A
Model Q	A	A	A	A	A
Model R	A	A	A	A	A
Model S	A	A	A	A	A
Model T	A	A	A	A	A
Model U	A	A	A	A	A
Model V	A	A	A	A	A
Model W	A	A	A	A	A
Model X	A	A	A	A	A
Model Y	A	A	A	A	A
Model Z	A	A	A	A	A
Model AA	A	A	A	A	A
Model AB	A	A	A	A	A
Model AC	A	A	A	A	A
Model AD	A	A	A	A	A
Model AE	A	A	A	A	A
Model AF	A	A	A	A	A
Model AG	A	A	A	A	A
Model AH	A	A	A	A	A
Model AI	A	A	A	A	A
Model AJ	A	A	A	A	A
Model AK	A	A	A	A	A
Model AL	A	A	A	A	A
Model AM	A	A	A	A	A
Model AN	A	A	A	A	A
Model AO	A	A	A	A	A
Model AP	A	A	A	A	A
Model AQ	A	A	A	A	A
Model AR	A	A	A	A	A
Model AS	A	A	A	A	A
Model AT	A	A	A	A	A
Model AU	A	A	A	A	A
Model AV	A	A	A	A	A
Model AW	A	A	A	A	A
Model AX	A	A	A	A	A
Model AY	A	A	A	A	A
Model AZ	A	A	A	A	A
Model BA	A	A	A	A	A
Model BB	A	A	A	A	A
Model BC	A	A	A	A	A
Model BD	A	A	A	A	A
Model BE	A	A	A	A	A
Model BF	A	A	A	A	A
Model BG	A	A	A	A	A
Model BH	A	A	A	A	A
Model BI	A	A	A	A	A
Model BJ	A	A	A	A	A
Model BK	A	A	A	A	A
Model BL	A	A	A	A	A
Model BM	A	A	A	A	A
Model BN	A	A	A	A	A
Model BO	A	A	A	A	A
Model BP	A	A	A	A	A
Model BQ	A	A	A	A	A
Model BR	A	A	A	A	A
Model BS	A	A	A	A	A
Model BT	A	A	A	A	A
Model BU	A	A	A	A	A
Model BV	A	A	A	A	A
Model BW	A	A	A	A	A
Model BX	A	A	A	A	A
Model BY	A	A	A	A	A
Model BZ	A	A	A	A	A
Model CA	A	A	A	A	A
Model CB	A	A	A	A	A
Model CC	A	A	A	A	A
Model CD	A	A	A	A	A
Model CE	A	A	A	A	A
Model CF	A	A	A	A	A
Model CG	A	A	A	A	A
Model CH	A	A	A	A	A
Model CI	A	A	A	A	A
Model CJ	A	A	A	A	A
Model CK	A	A	A	A	A
Model CL	A	A	A	A	A
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Model CO	A	A	A	A	A
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Model CT	A	A	A	A	A
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Model CZ	A	A	A	A	A
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Model DJ	A	A	A	A	A
Model DK	A	A	A	A	A
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Model DM	A	A	A	A	A
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Model DS	A	A	A	A	A
Model DT	A	A	A	A	A
Model DU	A	A	A	A	A
Model DV	A	A	A	A	A
Model DW	A	A	A	A	A
Model DX	A	A	A	A	A
Model DY	A	A	A	A	A
Model DZ	A	A	A	A	A
Model EA	A	A	A	A	A
Model EB	A	A	A	A	A
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Model EJ	A	A	A	A	A
Model EK	A	A	A	A	A
Model EL	A	A	A	A	A
Model EM	A	A	A	A	A
Model EN	A	A	A	A	A
Model EO	A	A	A	A	A
Model EP	A	A	A	A	A
Model EQ	A	A	A	A	A
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Model ES	A	A	A	A	A
Model ET	A	A	A	A	A
Model EU	A	A	A	A	A
Model EV	A	A	A	A	A
Model EW	A	A	A	A	A
Model EX	A	A	A	A	A
Model EY	A	A	A	A	A
Model EZ	A	A	A	A	A
Model FA	A	A	A	A	A
Model FB	A	A	A	A	A
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Model FD	A	A	A	A	A
Model FE	A	A	A	A	A
Model FF	A	A	A	A	A
Model FG	A	A	A	A	A
Model FH	A	A	A	A	A
Model FI	A	A	A	A	A
Model FJ	A	A	A	A	A
Model FK	A	A	A	A	A
Model FL	A	A	A	A	A
Model FM	A	A	A	A	A
Model FN	A	A	A	A	A
Model FO	A	A	A	A	A
Model FP	A	A	A	A	A
Model FQ	A	A	A	A	A
Model FR	A	A	A	A	A
Model FS	A	A	A	A	A
Model FT	A	A	A	A	A
Model FU	A	A	A	A	A
Model FV	A	A	A	A	A
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Model FX	A	A	A	A	A
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Model FZ	A	A	A	A	A
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Model GC	A	A	A	A	A
Model GD	A	A	A	A	A
Model GE	A	A	A	A	A
Model GF	A	A	A	A	A
Model GG	A	A	A	A	A
Model GH	A	A	A	A	A
Model GI	A	A	A	A	A
Model GJ	A	A	A	A	A
Model GK	A	A	A	A	A
Model GL	A	A	A	A	A
Model GM	A	A	A	A	A
Model GN	A	A	A	A	A
Model GO	A	A	A	A	A
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Model GQ	A	A	A	A	A
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Model GV	A	A	A	A	A
Model GW	A	A	A	A	A
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Model GY	A	A	A	A	A
Model GZ	A	A	A	A	A
Model HA	A	A	A	A	A
Model HB	A	A	A	A	A
Model HC	A	A	A	A	A
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Model HE	A	A	A	A	A
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Model HG	A	A	A	A	A
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Model IF	A	A	A	A	A
Model IG	A	A	A	A	A
Model IH	A	A	A	A	A
Model II	A	A	A	A	A
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Model IU	A	A	A	A	A
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Model JZ	A	A	A	A	A
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Model KL	A	A	A	A	A
Model KM	A	A	A	A	A
Model KN	A	A	A	A	A
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Model KP	A	A	A	A	A
Model KQ	A	A	A	A	A
Model KR	A	A	A	A	A
Model KS	A	A	A	A	A
Model KT	A	A	A	A	A
Model KU	A	A	A	A	A
Model KV	A	A	A	A	A
Model KW	A	A	A	A	A
Model KX	A	A	A	A	A
Model KY	A	A	A	A	A
Model KZ	A	A	A	A	A
Model LA	A	A	A	A	A
Model LB	A	A	A	A	A
Model LC	A	A	A	A	A
Model LD	A	A	A	A	A
Model LE	A	A	A	A	A
Model LF	A	A	A	A	A
Model LG	A	A	A	A	A
Model LH	A	A	A	A	A
Model LI	A	A	A	A	A
Model LJ	A	A	A	A	A
Model LK	A	A	A	A	A
Model LL	A	A	A	A	A
Model LM	A	A	A	A	A
Model LN	A	A	A	A	A
Model LO	A	A	A	A	A
Model LP	A	A	A	A	A
Model LQ	A	A	A	A	A
Model LR	A	A	A	A	A
Model LS	A	A	A	A	A
Model LT	A	A	A	A	A
Model LU	A	A	A	A	A
Model LV	A	A	A	A	A
Model LW	A	A	A	A	A
Model LX	A	A	A	A	A
Model LY	A	A	A	A	A
Model LZ	A	A	A	A	A
Model MA	A	A	A	A	A
Model MB	A	A	A	A	A
Model MC	A	A	A	A	A
Model MD	A	A			



Touring in The Eight-Cylinder Cadillac holds new fascinations

THE greatest boon the Eight-Cylinder Cadillac confers upon the American people is that it removes the strain and the weariness from long distance motor travel.

If ever a nation needed the relaxation, as well as the exhilaration of motoring, this nation needs it. And if ever a motor car was at once both stimulating and soothing, that car is the Cadillac "Eight."

Men and women all over America are awakening to this delightful discovery.

The roads of the continent are calling to them with a new charm and a new insistence.

The Cadillac "Eight" has supplied the last necessary link in the chain of causes which constitute the thing called luxury.

It sets the traveler free from taut nerves, from tense muscles, and from constant concentration on the performance of the motor.

All the glorious tingle of a noiseless flight through space is there in increased measure.

But the strain is gone—gone, and forgotten, because the flow of power is so continuous and so quiet that you are scarcely conscious that the engine exists.

There are no convulsive movements of the motor, no noise of straining and labor, no irritating vibration—because there is no lapse or halt between Cadillac power impulses.

You relax and rest, in the Cadillac "Eight," because the unpleasant reminders of intermittent power are removed.

You forget the engine, you forget the mechanical system which is carrying you forward—and luxuriate in a sense of serene well-being and comfort.

The mind is released from its thralldom to the car, and turns a thousand times more often to the beauty of the road, of the sky and of the landscape.

The joy of touring is not only a greater joy in the Eight-Cylinder Cadillac, but it calls into being a new set of physical and a new set of mental sensations.

Heretofore, no matter how gallantly your motor mounted a hill, you were conscious every moment that it was climbing,—that it was laboring.

Now, you only know that the hill was high because you saw it before the mount began—or looked back after the crest was reached.

The old sensation is now exactly reversed.

Then, the car fought against the hill and triumphed over it—now, the hill seems to melt away before the car.

You can now travel almost continuously on high gear—under throttle control.

The power-application is so fluid that the effect, when you accelerate the speed, is very much as though you had "turned on" the power, as you "turn on" water by opening a spigot.

As far as sound and vibration are concerned, the engine does not seem to be energizing at all.

The car simply glides from one rate of travel to another, without perceptible effort or hesitation.

The result is that the mind is lulled into repose and the body obeys the impulse of the mind.

All the niceties of Cadillac construction supplement and simplify and emphasize the luxurious action of the Eight-Cylinder engine.

The latter might be ever so perfect and still fail of its full efficiency if the car as a whole were not manufactured in every minute part with relation to the requirements of the motor.

Cadillac thoroughness is responsible for the accuracy of every function which might contribute to the efficiency of the engine.

And, too, the spring suspension, and the deep soft upholstery share the task of resting and soothing mind and body—the two work to that end in continuous harmony.

More than eight thousand Cadillac owners are now enjoying these marked elements of ease which confer a new charm upon motoring.

Our information would indicate that nearly all of them experience the same impulse—a renewed and irresistible call to long distance touring.

With rough roads largely robbed of their terrors, and good roads made almost doubly delightful—with hills no longer to be dreaded and gear shifting practically eliminated—with a new and astonishingly active acceleration, always to be relied upon—touring in the Eight-Cylinder Cadillac becomes an unalloyed delight.

A Complete line
of Cadillac Cars
and a demonstrating
chassis are exhibited
at the Panama-Pacific
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San Francisco, Calif.

Styles and Prices

Standard Seven passenger car, Five passenger Salon and Roadster, \$1975.
Landaulet Coupe, \$2500. Five passenger Sedan, \$2800. Seven passenger
Limousine, \$3450. Prices F. O. B. Detroit.

Cadillac Motor Car Co. Detroit, Mich.

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A good, lively spring in effect tries to shoot you out of the car as a bow shoots an arrow. That's the way a spring works. Now imagine a giant finger pressing its cushioned tip gently on the spring and easing it back as you ease back a taut bow. No recoil—no jar—but just a lengthening of the motion.

That is the way the new, Automatic Hartford Shock Absorber works. It reduces

Automobile Manufacturers are now using the finest springs that can be made. If you want more comfort, you must use Hartford Shock Absorbers.



Makes Every Road a Boulevard

car motion to long, undulating waves—even on rough, country roads. The Hartford controls and equalizes spring action.

The Hartford is automatic in that it works progressively. For normal movements the springs are entirely free of control. When the spring action goes beyond normal control, it automatically increases as the action increases. This is accomplished by a multiple disc construction, these discs engaging progressively.

Let us send you a book which discusses the whole question of shock absorbing. It will tell you why the Hartford is standard equipment on so many prominent cars and why 95% of the racing drivers use it. You will not know the ultimate of car comfort until you ride on springs controlled by Hartford Shock Absorbers.

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Jewett City, N. J.

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Philadelphia, Portland,

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Box freight cars, 20 to 30 tons, dependent on bulk.

Flat cars:

- (a) One gun, two caissons, field artillery.
- (b) Three caissons, field artillery.
- (c) Two caissons and one battery or store wagon, field artillery.
- (d) One gun, one caisson, heavy artillery.
- (e) Two guns, heavy artillery.

(f) Three caissons, heavy artillery.

(g) Three caissons, field artillery, or supply, or three ambulances, or two.

(h) One position on flat wagon.

(i) Forty-eight wagon bottoms, knocked down; or thirty-six if caissons are used.

(k) Six ambulances, knocked down, tops not removed.

(l) Thirty tons freight.

The following table shows the cars required per unit of organization:

TABLE I.

	Personnel, etc.				Cars Required.						
	Men	Animals	Vehicles	Grass (rations)	Personnel or Transport	Cavalry	Baggage (horses)	Box	Stock	Flat	Total Cars
Infantry Regiment	1,913	171	22	6	48	6	5	11	8	78	120
Cavalry Regiment	1,808	1,456	26	8	29	9	8	67	9	9	139
Artillery Regiment (field)	1,198	1,164	104	24	9	23	0	9	56	66	181
Artillery Regiment (horse)	1,198	1,568	107	24	10	24	10	9	78	46	177
Artillery Regiment (heavy)	1,286	1,346	107	24	10	27	10	0	68	64	178
Artillery Regiment (mountain)	1,165	1,186	107	24	7	21	8	14	90	...	118
Battalion Engineers (Inf)	614	166	12	2	12	3	4	8	4	6	59
Battalion Engineers (Cav)	298	370	11	2	7	2	4	19	4	...	32
Battalion Signal Corps (Inf)	176	202	18	2	4	2	2	10	5	...	36
Battalion Signal Corps (Cav)	176	204	11	2	4	2	2	10	5	...	34
Divisional Train (Inf)	1,006	1,036	387	11	16	11	85	97	18	18	386
Divisional Train (Cav)	609	1,213	161	7	10	7	17	66	10	116	116

The above table shows the cars normally required by the different units of a large force, such as a field army, excepting ponton battalions, aero squadrons, and the headquarters of brigades and divisions.

In compiling the table, the divisional river (War's Railway Manual, 1914), trains of both the cavalry and infantry divisions were assumed "knocked down," all other vehicles being shipped "set up," and a reasonable regard was given to keeping units together in convenient train sections, without separating the troops of any unit from their animals and material.

Can our roads handle such masses of men and material? We can judge this from Table II, which shows the rolling stock of the principal railway systems of the United States east of the Mississippi River (War's Railway Manual, 1914), and from Table III, a memorandum of the cars required for an American field army, composed of units in normal proportions.

All the foregoing data are official, and were furnished by an officer of the regular Army.

TABLE II

	Cars						
	Locomotives	Passenger	Baggage	Box	Stock	Flat	Total
Penn'd & R. R. System	7,033	4,277	706	84,676	4,229	8,419	99,307
N. Y. C. & H. & M. R. System	4,415	3,724	67,865	2,106	10,871	84,688	104,669
So. Ry. & N. & W.	1,561	338	223	19,040	2,329	2,878	24,069
Seaboard & Atlantic Coast Lines	1,162	497	249	21,374	188	8,292	40,390
I. C. C. & O. & T. P.	2,570	624	317	40,127	400	2,943	44,881
Totals	18,398	9,627	1,098	274,079	10,268	33,782	330,239

TABLE III

	Passenger	Baggage	Box	Stock	Flat	Total
27 Regiments Infantry	1,296	102	145	207	216	3,166
9 Regiments Cavalry	333	81	72	603	91	1,179
6 Regiments Field Artillery	192	54	54	338	370	909
1 Regiment Heavy Artillery	37	10	9	68	54	178
1 Regiment Horse Artillery	34	10	9	78	46	177
1 Regiment Mountain Artillery	39	8	14	60	...	112
4 Battalions Engineers (Inf Div. etc.)	56	8	10	32	16	122
1 Battalion Engineers (Cavalry)	9	2	4	19	4	38
4 Battalions Signal Troops (Inf etc.)	24	N	N	40	30	100
1 Battalion Signal Troops (Cavalry)	6	2	2	10	4	24
3 Divisional Trains (Infantry)	81	33	108	201	84	507
1 Divisional Train (Cavalry)	17	7	17	66	10	116
Totals, 368 Locomotives and	2,115	386	448	1,900	776	5,625

Statistics of Baseball

By Arthur Macdonald

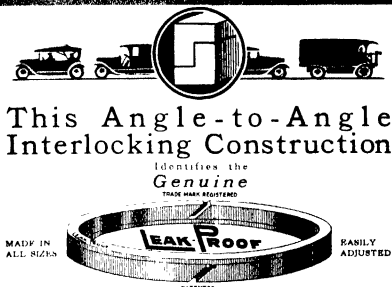
If everything which takes place in the game were recorded, we might have proper statistics of baseball. A few data in addition to the official records have been gathered.

It is estimated that approximately 20 per cent of balls batted fair result in safe hits.

Of 10,074 batted balls, 3,602 or 36 per cent were fly balls, 3,771 or 37 per cent were grounders; 344 or 3 per cent bunts; and 967 or 9 per cent were line drives. Out of these 10,074 batted balls, 2,097 or 20 per cent were scored as base hits. Of the 3,602 fly balls, 741 or 20 per cent were safe, and only 18 or 4/10th per cent were muffed, showing practically that the major league catchers catch almost every ball they can reach.

Of the 5,171 ground balls, 424 or 8 per cent were scored hits. Of the 844 bunts, 155 or 18 per cent were safe, and of these 155, 114 or 74 per cent were handled by the fielders. Out of the 967 line drives, 741 or 77 per cent were safe, showing that to be the least kind of ball to knock.

In a number of games (not given), 10 plain hit and run games were played; 11 of these attempts, or 10 per cent, resulted in clean hits, 8 of which, or 11 per cent, enabled the runners to take extra bases; 27 of the attempts, or 40 per cent, advanced the runner at the expense of losing the batter at first base; 7 per cent resulted in better situations, and 3 per cent of these strikes-out or 4 per cent resulted in the runner being doubled with one base; while 2 per cent of the attempts were



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THIS design is not accidental. The exact fit and perfect bearing of this ring, which makes it a leak-proof ring in fact, cannot be obtained by any other form of construction.

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(178 pounds) and the shortstop the lightest (137 pounds) in weight. These left-handed are the heaviest both among the players in general (175 pounds), and in the case of the left-handed pitcher (177 pounds) as compared with those pitching right-handed (174 pounds).

Some apparent discrepancies are due to the fact that it was impossible to obtain figures in all cases.

As might be expected, the outfielders are lighter in weight (171 pounds) than the basemen (174 pounds).

Those who bat left and throw right-handed seem to be lighter in weight (170 pounds) than the average (174 pounds).

It is evident that the leading players of the highest class would have excellent physical and symmetrical development, as indicated by the figures for heights and weights in the table. Differences, therefore, between their measurements have more significance than if compared with ball players in general.

Proposed Statistics of Fines and Grounders.—In consulting with official scorers, I find that no systematic account is taken of fines and grounders, and so it is not possible to determine whether or not the clubs knocking the fewest fines and the largest number of grounders relative to the number of games are in general winners. Such data and many others not yet recorded, when carefully studied, might show a principle or general trend of law, which might change some of the rules, plays, and methods now in vogue.

Table 6 gives a tentative classification of fines and grounders which might be recorded.

TABLE 6

Fines and Grounders

High fly to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Long fly to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Line fly to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Knuckle fly to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Pop fly to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Home run grounder to right, center or left infield, or outfield

Home run fly to right, center, or left infield, or outfield

One, two, or three base hits to right, center or left infield, or outfield

Swift grounders to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Slow grounders to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Grass cutters to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Chop balls to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

Bunts to right, center, or left infield, or outfield, or foul

If at the end of the season a player should find that he has been knocking more high flies, or undesirable kind of hits than he had any idea of, or that a large per cent of his bunts had failed of their purpose, such unexpected knowledge might help him to find the cause and apply the remedy.

In short, if we desire to determine more definitely the general laws of the game, most successful kind of plays and tricks and to what extent they should be followed, and to settle disputed questions, as already emphasized, everything that takes place in the game from beginning to end should be recorded.

It may seem to some that so many details would be useless, but in all scientific inquiry it is presuming to assume to know in advance what facts are important and what ones are not; only the omniscient can do that.

But it may be said that there is danger of making the game too exact to be interesting. There is, however, no probability of this, since at best, owing to the complexity and unexpected changes of the game, there will always be a sufficient number of unexpected events to relieve the supposed scientific monotony.

TIME AND PLACE OF BIRTH OF MAJOR LEAGUE PLAYERS.

TABLE 7

Time and Place of Birth.

Leading baseball players in the United States:

Total number selected..... 186

Those born in country..... 90

Those born in city..... 96

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

Those born in city..... 90

Those born in country..... 96

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The Danger of Delay in Cancer

THOUSANDS of lives now needlessly sacrificed to cancer could be saved if the patient would go to the surgeon as promptly as does the average person attacked by appendicitis. Nor is there any reason why the cancer patient should not seek this, the only safe treatment, with the same high degree of confidence in the outcome that is now common among those suffering from the other more fashionable disease. Unfortunately, the evidence is only too clear that a different attitude toward cancer prevails and occasion many preventable deaths. The almost superstitious dread of the disease and unwillingness to admit its existence or to seek medical advice in time are well known and difficult obstacles to progress in its control. Proof of this fatal neglect is found in the experience of a prominent surgeon who recently studied his case records in order to obtain definite information as to the delay in the average case (of sixty-five recent patients, thirty-five were men and thirty were women. Further study of these sixty-five cases showed that after the first discovery of suspicious symptoms the men had waited an average of 12.2 months before consulting the doctor, and the women had waited, on the average, 11.9 months, practically a year's delay in all cases. Many other surgeons could produce very similar records. Winter, of Koenigsberg, Prussia, the pioneer in the education of the public in regard to cancer, examined the records of 1,062 operable cases and showed that 87 per cent of these patients could and should have applied for treatment much earlier, when they would have had a far higher chance of recovery than was actually the case.

To the delay when the symptoms are manifest must be added the previous indefinite period after the beginning of the disease and before the patient realizes the trouble. This period can be shortened by education. Fortunately, the symptoms of cancer are present rather early and can usually be recognized if the patient understands their importance. In too many instances, however, the disease is not suspected until the symptoms are pronounced or until there is a tumor of considerable size. If we assume that this period averages six months, and then add the year's delay for which the patient is responsible, we find that the average patient does not seek advice until at least a year and a half after the onset of cancer. This precious time, thrown away, means, if not a fatal outcome, at least a serious instead of a minor operation.

In the present state of our knowledge of malignant disease it cannot be too frequently emphasized that the hope of curing cancer is to be found in its earlier recognition and in prompt and competent surgical treatment. The unfortunate patient who, because of ignorance or unreasoned fear or the blameworthy of quacks, hesitates to seek proper advice should realize that in this delay he or she is recklessly throwing away a splendid chance of cure.

"The Moon is a Dead Planet"

Is this common statement true? A long discussion was precipitated at a recent meeting of the British Astronomical Association by an article published by Prof. W. H. Pickering in the November, 1914, number of *Popular Astronomy*, in which the writer appeals to astronomers—and especially amateurs, because "scarcely any professional astronomer look at the moon nowadays"—to report their observations of apparent changes on the moon, so that "we shall at length nail that ancient falsehood that the moon is a dead planet." Prof. Pickering began asserting the existence of vegetation on the moon more than twenty years ago, and has been writing on this subject at frequent intervals ever since. The same idea had been favored by certain earlier astronomers, notably by Sir William Her-

schel. Yet the unqualified statement as to the complete sterility of our satellite is repeated in almost every newspaper on astronomy. The subject is still a moot one, and the discussion above mentioned indicates that few members of the British Astronomical Association share Prof. Pickering's views. The latter astronomer publishes in the March, 1915, number of *Popular Astronomy* an article on "The Meteorology of the Moon," in which he details numerous observations of apparent patches of snow, ice, mist, etc., on the moon.

A New Explanation of Boreholes

THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT of January 18th, 1915, contained an account of the mysterious explosive sounds common in various parts of the world, and known under scores of names, the most familiar being *boreholes* (or *brontides*), *mistwifters*, and *barical guns*. The latest attempt to explain these phenomena (or some instances of them) is due to W. M. Kriebe, who states the fact that the cannoning in the North Sea right of January 24th and in the airship attack on the English coast, January 19th, was heard on the coast of Holland, the distance being of the order of 100 to 120 miles. Kriebe invokes the Wegener hypothesis of the existence of an "echo" from a surface of discontinuity supposed to exist in the upper atmosphere, some fifty miles above the earth. Although Wegener's hypothesis appears to be altogether fallacious, the new fact that such remote cannoning was heard along a coast where mistwifters are often reported suggests that these sounds may frequently be due to ordinary explosions, such as blasting operations, target practice of warships, and the like, under atmospheric conditions insuring audibility at a greater distance than usual. It appears that the behavior of the "echo" coast are in the habit of saying, when mistwifters are heard, "They're shooting in England," which may be an accurate statement.

Some Adjudicated Patents.—The Mygatt design patent No. 37,967 for a prismatic glass reflector has been held valid and infringed by the Mygatt v. Schaffer 218 Fed. Rep. 827 while in the suit between the same parties the Mygatt patent No. 40,182 for a design for prismatic glass reflector has been held void for anticipation by design patent No. 40,140 to the same inventor. The Weston patent No. 589,649 for corrugated metal cover has been held valid and infringed in Hilliwell v. McPherson 218 Fed. Rep. 839; the Smith patent No. 692,935 for a wet replenishing mechanism for looms was held void for anticipation in Crompton & Knowles Loom Works v. Stafford Company 218 Fed. Rep. 841, the Mygatt patent No. 939,062 for an integral shade-reflector of glass held void and infringed in Mygatt v. Schaffer 218 Fed. Rep. 827; in Karl Kiefer Machine Company v. Unionwerke A. G. 218 Fed. Rep. 947 the Kiefer reissued patent No. 1,015,328 for a filter No. 707,122 for a filter pulp packing machine for packing filter cake for beer filters was held valid but not infringed; the Kiefer patent No. 993,780 for a filter claim 1 was held valid but not infringed; the Kiefer patent No. 1,015,328 claims 14 to 17 inclusive for a filter were held void for insufficient description and want of statutory affidavit and claims 23 to 25 inclusive for a filter cake held void for lack of novelty and the Kiefer patent No. 1,022,254 for a filter for straining beer was held void for lack of novelty in view of the prior art.

"Manufacture" and Range of Equivalents.—In *Thacker v. City of Baltimore* 210 Fed. Rep. 909 the court held that an arch of a bridge or like structure is a "manufacture" within the meaning of the patent law; also that, however limited the range of equivalents to which a patent is entitled, equivalency must be determined with the nature of the invention. Also held that the Thacker patent for a reinforced concrete wall was valid and infringed.

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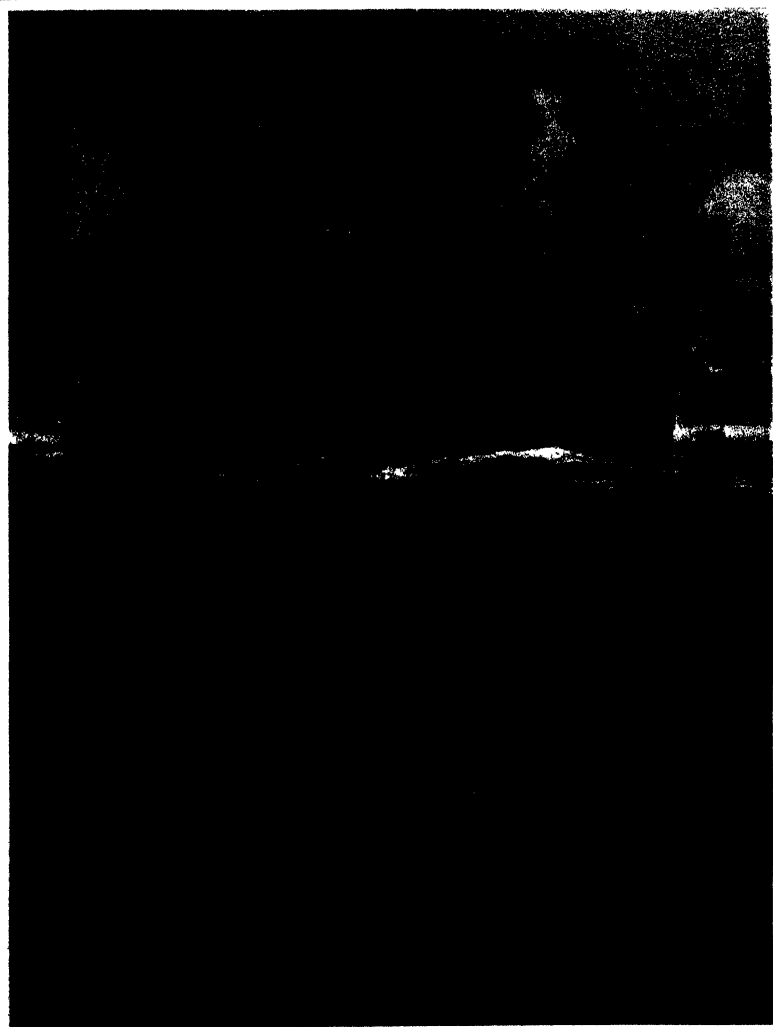
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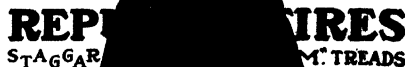
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NEW YORK, MAY 8, 1915

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Hand Grenades

By Edward C. Crossman

BACK in the days of the muzzle-loading musket used by the armies of the world, it was not surprising to find the hand grenade in common use. With the gun as slow to load as a modern coast defense gun of largest size, of little power, inaccurate, and used in a manner that deprived it of half its possible usefulness, the hand grenade was an instrument that compared quite favorably with the musket for making the gentlemen on the other side of the argument as uncomfortable as possible.

In those days the hand grenade was merely a hollow iron shell, with a fuse that the grenadier lit from his always glowing match, and then lofted into the assemblage of the persons not agreeing with his government. Sometimes it was nicely timed, and when so timed it left a considerable gap in its immediate neighborhood. At other times its targets snuffed out its fuse, or else picked it up and hove it back to its sender, which was manifestly not playing the game fair. Inside the shell, of course, reposed a quarter or half pound of black powder, which is quite sufficient to distribute jagged bits of cast iron casing with considerable celerity.

In these days, however, of rifles sighted up to 2,500 yards, and having the extreme range of $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles; of clip loading magazines that enable an accurate and sustained fire of twenty-five or thirty shots a minute; of machine guns that chatter forth shots at the speed of an agitated pneumatic riveter on a steel framed building, and of long-range field guns, the mere mention of a hand grenade is sufficient to provoke snickers among the listeners. The British "Musketty Regulations," containing a grave discussion of the hand grenade and how it is to be used, was as funny as *Puck* or *Judge* to those reading it, and not believing in the possibility that $2\frac{1}{2}$ -mile rifles could be brought down to the dull level of trench fighting at 50 yards range.

Now with the war nine months gone, and the trenches of the Allies and their German friends bobbing with each other at the distance of 50 yards or so, students of warfare have made some astonishing discoveries. One of them is that while a rifle of $2\frac{1}{2}$ -mile range won't hit a man with his head snugly down in a pit 50 yards away, a missile cannily lofted across the intervening space into the pit, may do with the aid of gravity just what the bullet failed to do because of its failure to respond suitably in the game to the blandishments of the gravity diva.

The Westons, with their usual love for thoroughness, evolved a short-barreled exaggerated howitzer of range 50, but of appalling power and accuracy. All they ask of this little gun is to heave a tiny handweight of high explosive into the air for enough for them to fall

into the trenches of the other fellows a couple of hundred yards away, or even less. Here is the old hand grenade again, but of heavier weight, and with a little powder to do what the husky arm of the old grenadier used to do.

Also the true hand grenade is come into its own once more. If the belligerents keep on, we'll see the Germans advancing in Macedonian phalanx formation, and the Allies hastening out to meet them disguised as old-time Roman legions. The poor flat trajectory rifle has to hang its diminished head and confess that its very flatness of flight prevents it from curving gently over the edge of the other gentleman's home in the ground and seeking him out.

The British hand grenade, a large number of which they had in service when the war broke out, consists first of a piece of cane with a metal head on it, containing the bursting charge of lyddite, and the detonator or exploding arrangement to act when the grenade strikes. The handle and head are 10 inches

long over all. Attached to the end of the cane handle is a 3 foot bit of cloth, the tail, to make the grenade fly true and insure that it strikes head first, on its detonator, after which the cute little affair takes care of itself and those around it.

The grenade, with its detonator and its safety devices to prevent premature discharge in carrying it, form quite a complicated and expensive bit of machinery.

Normally the machine is carried by a hook, handle downward, at the soldier's belt. When the time seems ripe to transfer its affections to the other fellows, the soldier unhooks it from his belt, turns a cap at the head of the grenade until the word "remove," inscribed on the cap, is exposed and in line with arrows on the body of the grenade and then removes the safety cap. Then the detonator is placed into position on the side of the grenade and given a turn to lock into position in the studs provided for it.

The tail is then unwound from the handle, the cap is replaced and turned to the position of the safety pin locking the detonator plunger is withdrawn, and the machine is ready to throw.

The soldier is instructed to throw it at an angle of not less than 35 degrees with the ground, both to give it the required range and to insure the machine, biting on its head and firing from the impact it may be thrown under or over-handled. The soldier is told to be sure that the 3-foot tail does not become entangled with him or any other object as it leaves his hand.

In actual service the machine is always ready for service, unwinding the tail, withdrawing the safety pin, and turning the cap to "Fire," being all that is necessary.

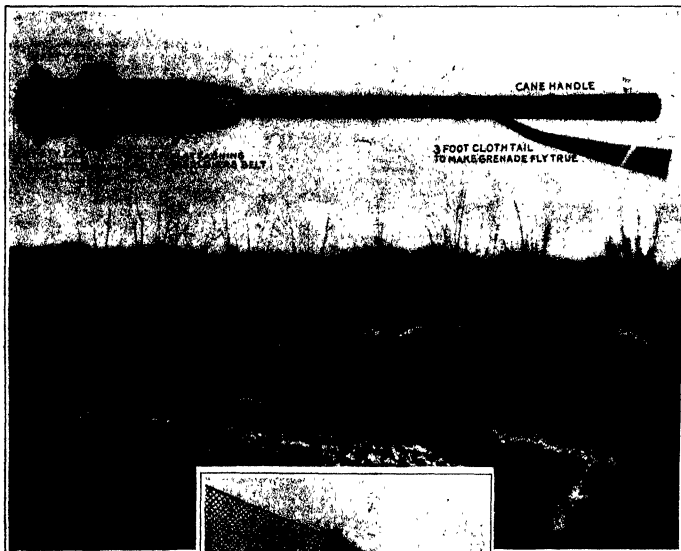
The bursting charge of lyddite is sufficient to

ades into the enemy's trenches.

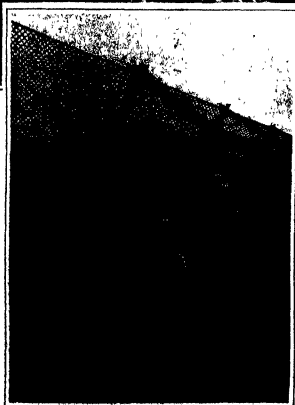
blow the steel head into bits and kill the men standing close by. The explosive is similar in its action to gun cotton, but is made of carboic acid and nitric acid, being of a form of the better known pteric acid. The French melinite and the Japanese shimose are similar explosives under another name.

The grenade differs from the old type in that it is fitted up with percussion cap or detonator, sensitive to shock, to explode on impact with anything after it is set to "Fire," while the bursting charge, due to the great improvement in explosives, is five or six times as powerful, weight for weight, as the old-fashioned black powder formerly universally used in missiles of this character.

The trench fighting in Belgium and northern France has shown the full effectiveness of these miniature bombs, and it is not unlikely that the soldiers of Uncle Sam may find themselves drilling now and then in the gentle art of heaving an infernal machine full of high explosives across a few yards of ground, instead of learning how to hit things at 1,000 yards with the out-of-date rifle.



* Practicing throwing hand gren-



Not protection against hand grenades.

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The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

Strategic Positions of the Contending Armies

In analyzing the situation in a given theater of military operations as to the opportunities offered to armies of occupation, the first step must be to determine all the strategic possibilities, and then to eliminate those that for one reason or another, cannot be applied to the particular case at hand. To apply this principle to the situation as it exists on the western front of the war in Europe, these conclusions must inevitably be reached.

First, that inasmuch as one flank of each army rests on the North Sea and the other on the Swiss frontier, a general flanking operation by either belligerent is impossible, second, as the country in rear of both the German and the Allies' lines is literally checked with both railroad lines and excellent state roads, no general movement against lines of communication or supply can be undertaken. This restricts the number of possible moves that can affect the general line to but one, a flanking operation, namely a given section of the existing line, preceded by a frontal attack of sufficient power to break through. In other words, it must be a hanking operation, followed by a movement against the flank of the broken line at the point of rupture. Local successes attained through operations against a supply line are possible, and will result in a retirement of small sections of the line, as, for instance, a successful move against the Metz-Philippine Railroad in the Woerthe district. The cutting of this road would compel the German line from Etain to St. Mihiel and thence to Pont-a-Mousson to fall back on Metz so that from Etain the line would run east to Metz and thence south along the Lorraine border. The general effect of such a move would be practically nil. The Germans would occupy a hundred square miles less of French territory, but their new line with Metz in the center would be stronger than the old.

All the fighting that has taken place this spring in the northern section of the line from Arras to Dixmude has had for its object an ultimate flanking move. St. Etienne, Neuve Chapelle, and Hill No. 99, east of Lillebeck, were all fought for the purpose of heading back the German line at these points, and by increasing the pressure, to force the German right wing, in order to straighten out their line, to fall back to some point on the North Sea west of Ostend. The general plan followed in each case was the same. A large concentration of men and guns was made at the point of attack. An attack was then launched against some other point. When the line in front of the true objective was weakened to reinforce the point of attack, the real attack was driven home. The present German advance along the Ypres Canal, in its final analysis is likewise a flanking move. The object to be accomplished is, first, to force the retirement of the British from Ypres, which is the key to the Yser district, and then the withdrawal of the entire left flank from Belgium, thus opening the way to Calais and the consequent command of the Straits of Dover. This move is the most important that has yet been made in the west ern theater since, if successful, it will be the first

of results. It is therefore of interest to study the conditions that will bear directly on its success or failure.

During the winter Germany has increased her field force by about five hundred thousand men. This brings her to the point of maximum strength. The losses that are now being sustained and that will be sustained as the fighting progresses cannot be replaced. Germany, as well as the Allies, is short of ammunition, and therefore for months, instead of taking the offensive, has remained on the defense and so conserved her supply until all was considered in readiness for her strong offensive effort. Many of this last levy of troops have been brought up to the Ypres-Dixmude line and are now engaged, so there is but a small reserve on which to fall back. Germany, therefore, must succeed in the present battle or acknowledge herself unable to maintain a sustained successful offense against the Allies' line. The result must be a return to the defensive state she has occupied up to the beginning of the battle of Ypres. Her offensive power will be permanently impaired, if not destroyed. In such a contingency Germany's only hope of averting defeat will be to play for a stalemate. An army that cannot deliver a strong attack cannot know victory.

On the other hand, Germany's organization and the consequent control by her commanders of the troops over the men in the ranks is undoubtedly developed to a finer point than is the case with the Allies. This is illustrated by the difference in the result accomplished when their opponent's line has been broken. At Neuve Chapelle, St. Etienne, and Lillebeck in the rush forward by the Allies that followed the breaking of the German line, but a comparatively small advance was made beyond the German trenches before all control of the officers over their men had gone and the advance disorganized. In striking contrast was the German advance through the break in the Allies' line at Lange-march. This advance was steady, systematic and well organized, and control and control was never lost. The attack has been temporarily checked, it is true, but by the force of strong reserves brought up by the Allies, not by an inherent fault in the German organization. This is one of the most potent factors in a successful offensive campaign. Without it, the enemy's reserves, held well in hand, striking a force that an advance has disorganized and thrown into confusion, can often turn victors into defeat.

In the eastern theater of operations the situation is somewhat confusing, owing to the contradictory nature of reports issued from the various headquarters. Certain elements of the general situation are, however, known with fair accuracy. There are several separate and distinct battle lines, extending generally in a huge semicircle from the Niemen to the Rumanian frontier, where it is crossed by the Pruth River. The first line, which is involved in the operations around Warsaw, the Mazurian Lakes and East Prussia, extends from the Niemen to the Rawa River. There is then a break, the second line beginning at about the Nida River, the break being spanned by large cavalry patrols. From the Nida the line runs south to the Carpathians, and then east along the crests to the Stry River. The third line runs along the Stry toward Mukachev. The fourth is along the Pruth, north of Bukovina Province. The only line that is really active is that section running along the ridges of the Carpathians, where the battle for control of the passes has been raging since the fall of Przemyel. Every effort of Russia and the Germanic Allies is concentrated along this line, to the almost complete disregard of the other portions of the eastern theater.

The keynote to the Carpathian battle is Tisza Pass, around which the most terrific battle of the war has been going on for nearly six weeks. If Russia cannot force the passage of the Carpathians here, the eastern Carpathian campaign will be a failure. Russian possession of the railroad is absolutely necessary as a line of supply to her army, as it moves forward down the southern slopes of the mountains toward the plain. But, judging solely on the measure of progress of this section that the campaign has permitted to come through, Russia is no nearer her accomplishment than she was several weeks ago.

As matters are now, therefore, on both fronts the end of the war, in so far as it may be concluded by force of arms and not by political or economic considerations, is a long way off. There is but one factor that may hasten its end, and that is Italy's advent into the main arena. Italy may well prove to be the balance of power. The invasion of Austria, across the Julian Alps, by a million and a half fresh men, well equipped with artillery and plentifully supplied with ammunition, would eliminate Austria completely from military considerations and, by destroying one of Germany's main lines of supply outside of her own borders, would do much to bring matters to a conclusion on both fronts. In any event, however, the present indications are that the west will never bring about the war's conclusion. If decided by arms at all, the decision will be made in the eastern theater.

Typhoid Fever

TYPHOID fever has fourth place on American mortality lists, coming after only tuberculosis, pneumonia and cancer. It takes among us the place of the "Asiatic Guest," which the European peoples have from time immemorial so cordially and so unnecessarily entertained. Both these diseases are "injection infections" contracted in absolutely no other way than by swallowing food and drink (the latter mostly water or milk) contaminated in various disgusting ways, with either the cholera vibrio or the typhoid bacillus. Dirty fingers and the filthy fly are the chief intermediaries. Scientifically speaking, nothing can be simpler than the prevention of these infections. The application of the principles is, however, of great practical difficulty. For example, there is the cook, Typhoid Mary, a carrier of the germ, who, although she declared she never herself had the disease, has, nevertheless, in those migrations from family to family peculiar to her caste, through a number of years disseminated the infection to some score or more of sufferers. There have indeed been typhoid carriers who have had the disease forty years previously and have continued through all that time being a menace. It is computed that one fourth of the people who have had typhoid are carriers; that, disease or no disease, one in every thousand of us is a latent carrier. Such infections are self-limited; their quarantining time is fixed. But you cannot quarantine a typhoid carrier a whole life time, any more than you can frame an indictment against a whole nation. The great trouble with Typhoid Mary has been her perversity, exceeding even that which obtains in her most temperamental of relatives. She has never conceded herself a menace; she has not obeyed the sanitary directions given her; she would not wash and disinfect her hands as required; she will not change her occupation for one in which she will not endanger the lives of others; under an assumed name she had competed with the Wandering Jew in scattering destruction in her path. The authorities, who are amenable to reason, conscientious, careful and scrupulously clean, need not endanger anybody's existence.

However, the American people have surmounted difficulties a thousandfold greater than any typhoid fever presents. The elimination of this infection depends largely on the fact that the individual cannot protect himself without the aid of the constituted authorities. Typhoid disappears most surely in that community where such authorities know their business and are determined to go about it until they have accomplished it. And the better the citizen body hold up their hands, the quicker and the more thoroughly the benevolent job gets done.

The best insurance against typhoid is, after all, to get inoculated against the disease, as all sensible people are now vaccinated against small-pox. Especially is this well to do when there are typhoid epidemics; and for commercial travelers, motorists, tourists and vacationists who may in the most suburban ways contract typhoid and become typhoid carriers. And since this is a disease of all ages, of all seasons, youth and early manhood and womanhood, our young people going to boarding schools and colleges should certainly submit to this preventive measure before leaving home. It is considered that the protection is effective for at least two years, and may indeed immunize for life. When the inoculations are made in the afternoon outward sessions are likely to have disappeared by the following noon. A series of three successive inoculations are made a week apart. Deaths have been alleged to be due to such inoculations; but in every such case the death has been found by the authorities, on autopsy, to have been due, not at all to the inoculations, but to some disease in no wise related to or affected by this anti-typhoid preventive measure.

Radium and Cancer

EUROPE, where the popular fad about radium and its applications appeared earlier than it did here, has already been devastated by the appearance of great numbers of diaphanous and fake, money-getting, radium-cure establishments conducted by persons who possess little or no radium, and have no knowledge of its use. These people promise cures, but are, in reality, unable to obtain even those palliative effects which are possible from radium. Much harm has also been done by the honest and educated enthusiasts, who have been led by premature confidence in the curative effects of radium to the excitement of witnessing the temporary relief of symptoms and decrease of painful tumors which it undoubtedly produces even in advanced cases. Statistical evidence to support the advice and warning to seek early operative treatment has been collected by Mr. Frederick I. Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance Company of America. According to Mr. Hoffman the recorded experience of the best hospitals goes to show that patients who seek relief by radium cure seem to offer the only hope for cure. These cures are distinctly encouraging, and show that at least the initial loss of life in such operations is very low.

Science

A Manual of the Flora of Washington, D. C., and Vicinity is being prepared by a number of Washington botanists, under the direction of Messrs. Hitchcock and Coville, of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. It is expected that a preliminary edition, to include the flowering plants and ferns, will be published in the spring of 1916, and it is hoped that later editions will include all cryptogams.

Leffingwell's Explorations in Alaska.—According to the *Bulletin of the American Geographical Society*, Mr. Ernest de K. Leffingwell has completed the extensive explorations and surveys of the northern coast on which he has been engaged for some years, and is now preparing his results for publication. He has mapped about 150 miles of the coast, including many islands, on a large scale, besides making soundings in the adjacent waters and mapping the broader geographical and geological features over an inland area of about 80 square miles.

The Yangtze River.—Some estimates of the discharge of this great river and of the amount of sediment it carries have recently been published by Prof. Konrad Kellback, of the Berlin School of Mines, who visited the river in September, 1913, when the stage of water was unusually high. From measurements of depth made at Wusung, Nanking, and Hankow, and estimates of width and velocity, this authority concludes that the discharge below Hankow (860 miles from the mouth) amounts in time of flood to 3,540,000 cubic feet per second. The annual mean is estimated at 1,738,000 cubic feet per second. Filtration measurements made at the mouth, near Wusung, taken in conjunction with the above figures for discharge, indicate an annual transport of sediment at the average rate of 37,500 pounds per second, or a total of 864,000,000 tons per annum.

Banana Juice for Snake-venom Poisoning.—The latest alleged remedy for snake-venom poisoning is banana juice, according to a statement, who reports in the *South African Journal of Science* that, within a year past he has received outtings from newspapers and magazines on this subject from every snake-infested country of the world. Although companies have been formed with a view to extracting the juice from the banana stem and placing it on the market as a sure cure for snake-bite. In view of the marvelous cures reported, Mr. Fitzsimons conducted a series of experiments on animals of various species, in each case injecting the venom of a cobra, puff-adder, or other deadly serpent, and administering a copious dose of the alleged antidote—before, after or simultaneously with the poison. The juice of the plantain variety of banana was also tried. No antidotal effect whatever was obtained. The author explains that in the cases reported as cures sufficient venom had not been injected to cause death, and the patient would have recovered as quickly without treatment. It is a common occurrence for large poisonous snakes to deliver a full bite and not shed sufficient venom to cause the death of even so highly susceptible a creature as a fowl. Moreover, a snake will sometimes bite the leg of an animal or man and miss its aim, and its venom will be shed harmlessly upon the ground; then perhaps in a second or two it will strike again, this time driving its fangs home, but injecting either no venom or too little to produce fatal results. About 60 per cent of the victims of bites by venomous snakes recover without the aid of any treatment.

Fossil Bacteria Discovered.—Marvelous as were the discoveries of such pre-historic monsters as the Mammoth, the Mastodon, and the Megalosaurus, they are now eclipsed by recent investigations which show the most minute microbes and bacteria in fossil form. The ancestors of our modern infectious disease germs and microbes have been found in fossils of the earliest life on the earth. Fossil bacteria have been discovered in very ancient limestone rocks. Dr. Charles D. Walcott, secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, in Gallatin County, Montana. For some time Dr. Walcott has believed that these bacteria existed, and mention of the fact was made before the Botanical Society of Washington on April 6th, 1915, when attention was called to their existence in association with fossil algal deposits of the Newland formation. This belief was based on the fact that the most important factor in the deposition of these ancient limestones was also mentioned by Dr. Walcott in a preliminary publication of the Smithsonian Institution. At that time, however, no definite bacteria had been discovered, but in thin sections of limestone from the collections made in 1914 the microscope now shows these very minute forms of life, some 20 to 30 million of years old. The bacteria were discovered in thin sections cut from an algal form included under the genus name *Gelatinaria*, named after the great American geologist Gifford. The bacteria consists of individual cells and appeared in chains of cells which correspond in their structural appearance with the cells of Micrococcus, a genus of bacteria of to-day. The world has believed that life began in the form of life but now we see that it began in the form of life in the days of world

Automobile

Keeping Car Cushions Cool.—William A. Daniels, of Dermott, Ark., in a patent No. 1,135,161 provides at the rear end of an automobile brackets for a spring curtain roller, the shade of which can be drawn forward whenever desired and secured at the front end of the car so the cushions of the car will be protected from the sun when the machine is standing empty with the top down.

Combined Automobile Signals.—In a patent No. 1,135,048 A. N. Pierman of Newark, N. J., combines with an ordinary rubber bulb horn an electrically operated signal device whose circuit closure is operated within the bulb, the two parts being so constructed that when in city traffic the reed or bulb horn can be operated, while the electrically operated horn may be brought into play for use in the open country.

Combination Lock for Trunks.—A simple and effective combination lock for trunks or automobile boxes consists of the usual hasp lock having below it a small button carrying figures for the combination. On the plate are two imitation rivet heads spaced at each side of the main button, but one of these heads is movable. To open the lock, the combination is turned, then the left-hand rivet-head is slid to one side, and this action causes the lock to open. The combination button is of solid make-up in itself, and is further protected by the projecting rivet heads on each side. Such a device affords 1,000 combinations and is the subject of a French patent.

Motorcycle Batteries in War.—The present war in Europe is the first opportunity which motorcycles have had to show their worth as light artillery. A British machine gun battery is composed of a touring car for the commanding officer, two motorcycles with sidecars, on which Vickers light machine guns are mounted, two reserve machines, which are fitted with all the necessary accessories, and a spare machine. The touring car and sidecars loaded with ammunition. In addition to the six motorcycles, there are usually three large touring cars, loaded with additional ammunition, rifles, provisions and equipment. The battery is accompanied by a lieutenant on a very fast racing motorcycle.

Safety Tire Valves.—Among the things "not to be invented" should be listed so-called "safety tire valves," which are designed to permit only a maximum pressure of, say, 75 pounds, at which the valve opens enough to let a certain quantity of air in the tire escape. Tire experts call attention to the fact that if a car is left standing for a couple of hours, as often happens, with one or more tires in the direct glare of the sun, the pressure in these, due to the heat is liable to rise far beyond the "danger point." If the tire valve opens at this time, and the sun sinks beyond the horizon to permit, on permitting the tire to cool off thoroughly, the tire is more likely to be run insufficiently inflated.

Heavy Trucks and Bridges.—One of the most gratifying results of the present war excitement in Great Britain is the action of the House of Lords, providing for a general strengthening of the bridges along the main road of motor traffic. These bridges were mostly under the management of the big railroad companies, and the heavy truck traffic did not appeal to them enough to cause them to expend either money or labor in strengthening the bridges. The heavy traffic in motor trucks for the British War Department has brought the question of strong bridges vividly before the people, and strong pressure is being brought by the courts, officials of the government and the press on the railroads. The result is that bridges are rebuilt all over the country.

Finding Tire Penetrations.—An ingenious little device known as "detective" serves to localize punctures in bicycle tires and can even be used on automobile tires. It is no longer required to immerse the tire chamber in water, this being often very inconvenient or even impossible, and to pump out, neither is it necessary to remove the pneumatic tire from the wheel, for the small device is run along the surface until the leak is found. The "detective" is a small metal box of suitable shape whose under side embraces the tire and here is closed by wire gages. Radially the box is divided into four or more compartments and in each one is a small amount of water. When brought upon the leak, the pressure of the air acts upon the down, and this localizes the leak at once.

Europe Will Be Flooded With Cars.—American motor cars are to be thrown into Europe, particularly into Germany and France, immediately after the war is ended, in a manner which will make all former American "invasions" pale into insignificance. One of the largest of the automobile companies is known to be preparing to send no less than 10,000 touring cars and roadsters into the German market, within a month after the war is ended. Other companies plan a like invasion, and the export business in American motor cars will be such as simply to swamp the frontier. Great Britain already sees the writing on the wall and has already begun to make the trade men and the dealers to the large manufacturers, imploring them to try to produce a small, standardized car in large quantities, to sell for about \$700 or less.

Astronomy

The Royal Observatory of Belgium, at Uccle, near Brussels, is the most important astronomical institution lying within the "war zone," and, as we have previously recorded, its activities have been partially maintained by its German captors. Its late Belgian director, M. Lecointe, has written a letter to the French Academy of Sciences stating that he is now in Holland. He had served in the war as a major of artillery in the Belgian army, and took part in the retreat from Antwerp.

Transit of One Star Over Another.—A note by Prof. Wolf, of the Königstuhl Observatory, describes the rather unusual case of a star which has been carried, by its proper motion, directly over another, as seen from the earth, within the last few years. The eclipsing star is of the 13th magnitude, and has the somewhat rapid proper motion of more than a second of arc per annum. The eclipsed star, of 15th magnitude, was formerly southwest of the other but is now on the opposite side of it.

A New Harvard Photographic Map of the Heavens.—It is announced that Harvard College Observatory will publish a new photographic map of the entire sky, consisting of prints from negative taken at Cambridge and Arequipa. This set of charts will, in a sense, supplement the set published some years ago, as the center of each plate in the new series will coincide with the corner of a plate in the former one, thus bringing out many faint stars which failed to appear at the corners of the large field (30 degrees square) on account of distortion. The original series comprised 155 plates and showed about 1,863,000 stars, ranging down to the 11.5 magnitude.

A New Spectral Line was Shown by the Solar Corona, as photographed at certain stations during the eclipse of August 21st, 1914. The Spanish party at Theodora, in the Crimea, secured a spectrogram on 12 plates taken 13 seconds apart, showing a contact with a 12 seconds exposure. This showed a new line in the corona, of a length of which is 6,378.7 + 0.036 Å. A note in the *Comptes rendus* on the results of the expedition from Meudon Observatory, which had its station at Ström, Sweden, states that the plates taken there show a brilliant and intense new radiation in the red part of the spectrum, the measurement in this case being given as 6,374.5 + 0.2 Å.

Lowell Observatory Photographs of Saturn. Photographs of Saturn taken at the Lowell Observatory on March 12th, both by the director and Mr. E. C. Slipher, confirm visual observations in revealing that Cassini's division is visible in part above the contour of the ball by about four tenths of its true width. This enables the astronomers of Saturn to be deduced from the photographs, a preliminary reduction of which shows that oblateness to be about one ninth. As the required visual observations are of the greatest delicacy and demand for such detections the most favorable conditions, the possibility of making photographs of this order of nicety is an advance both of scientific and general interest.

Comparative Drawings of Mars.—One of the most important contributions to Mars has yet been made to the fascinating question of the Martian canals. Prof. W. H. Pickering's Eighth Report on Mars, published in *Popular Astronomy* for April. Early in the year 1911 it occurred to this astronomer that it might be a good idea at the following opposition to secure from several recognized experts simultaneous and independent drawings of the planet, and to compare these, as one step toward determining just how much may be regarded as definitely known regarding the markings on the Martian surface. More specifically, it appeared desirable to obtain a permanent record of the planet's appearance at the coming opposition, for comparison with similar records in connection with all future oppositions, since it is known that the appearance of the planet varies from one to another, independently of its seasons. The observers who took part in this programme were Rev. P. E. R. Phillips, Ashford, Surrey, England, Messrs. Lowell and Slipher, Flagstaff, Ariz., Prof. A. E. Douglas, Tucson, Ariz., and Prof. Pickering himself, at Mandeville, Jamaica. The drawings, which are published with the report, represent sections of the planet corresponding to central meridians of 0 deg., 90 deg., 120 deg., 180 deg., 240 deg., and 300 deg. Martian longitude. They are surprising both in their agreements and in their differences. As usual, many more canals were seen at the Lowell observatory than elsewhere. Twenty-four canals were so clearly seen and accurately drawn by the three observers as to leave no doubt of their being identical in the several drawings. Twenty-one were seen by two observers, and thirty-five by one apart from the Lowell observations. The drawings reveal an interesting case of shifting canals, Cigros and Taurus having apparently traveled some 300 miles across country in about three weeks. Prof. Pickering mentions previous cases of shifting canals, including one recorded by Schiaparelli. "Such observations," he remarks, "while perhaps favorable to the idea of intelligent direction upon Mars, do not strengthen the theory of irrigating ditches."

A Mother Ship for Submarines

A Combined Salvage and Drydock Vessel

By Robert G. Skerrett

EIGHT years ago the Fiat-San Giorgio started the naval world by turning out submarines capable of making fourteen knots an hour on the surface. Since then they have shown engineering initiative in inventing and building a special type of dock designed for the testing of submarines at the surface but simulating all of the hydrostatic conditions incident to deep submergence, thus doing away with the uncertainties that characterize the ordinary method of testing these boats

the hoisting, testing, and repairing of a submersible 190 feet long. The forward end of this ship-cum-dock is permanently sealed, but the after end is provided with a globular caisson, which can be removed and swung aside so as to flood the cylinder and to admit a submarine. The under-water boat reaches this dock entrance from the stern of the mother ship, which at that point is of a catamaran hull. The cross-section A illustrates this, while section B shows the dock farther

nation then as a volunteer had to have a good set of front teeth in order to tear the brown paper from the cartridge. Now, a European soldier can pass an examination if he has no teeth at all. They are now carrying a gun that will shoot to kill at 2,000 yards. That gun will shoot ten times as frequently and is ten times as destructive as the guns the volunteers carried fifty years ago.

"Our field cannon—the largest that we carried—was a 25-pound Parrot gun. Now they are using a gun that will carry for six miles. Our guns were all muzzle-loaders. Now the man who operates a machine gun is behind armor plate; he is protected. Our trenches were thrown up over night. Now they are having trenches built from five to six feet deep, and they are covered with an impervious substance to prevent the havoc of exploding shells. Our armies on both sides were in clear view of each other. Now the armies on both sides are all out of sight, not to be seen.

"Let me call your attention to this fact, that to-day the two armies confronting each other in France and Belgium and the two armies confronting each other on the Russian border have not practically changed their positions for two months. What was the truth about our army in the great civil war? Take the army of Gen. Sherman, whose base of supply was at Louisville, Ky. It fought its way first to Nashville, from Nashville to Chattanooga, from Chattanooga to Rocky Face Mountain, from Rocky Face Mountain to Atlanta, from Atlanta to Savannah, from Savannah up the coast to Raleigh, to the close of the war. How many miles did that army march? Eleven hundred and twenty-five miles. In the Atlanta campaign of 110 days we made an advance of one mile a day—110 miles from Rocky Face Mountain to Atlanta in 110 days.

"Here is another consideration. How many distinguished major generals and brigadier generals have lost their lives in this war? Is there a gentleman on this floor who can name a single brigadier or major general who has been killed in battle in this gigantic European war? They have a line over 100 miles long in the army of the west and over 100 miles long in the army of the east. They have a battle line of over 200 miles, and we read of desperate bayonet charges every day. There cannot be any successful bayonet charges when they carry guns that will kill at a mile, because every column would be annihilated before it reached half a mile. If I were a betting man, which I am not, I would bet my month's salary against a Panama bond that you could not find five soldiers in any field hospital in France, or Germany, or England, or Russia, or Hungary who are wounded with bayonets. We read of the terrible destruction in these battles. They have fought forty great battles, according to the reports. I venture the assertion that they have not lost 25 per cent of their armies in battle.

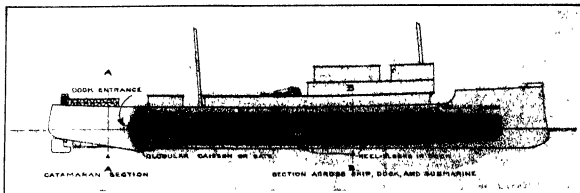


Fig. 1.—Diagrammatic view of ship, showing position of submarine in the testing dock.

for water-tightness by lowering them without anyone allowed to leave the ship in waters 200 feet deep. The Laurenti dock has already proved its value in Italy.

Now, the same progressive firm has designed and built an extremely novel mother of station ship for submarines, and again the Italian engineers have blazed the way. This new craft is at once a supply base, a place for the refreshment of the wearied crews of submarines, a repair base, a testing and dry dock, and a speedy salvage vessel capable of raising one of her sunken flotilla and able to carry the latest craft into port. Other nations have salvage ships for submarines, but there their utility ceases, and besides, they are clumsy and of very moderate radius of action and speed.

As a basis for this many-sided adjunct to submarine service, the designers planned a mother ship for a flotilla of six submarines, each of about 750 tons submerged displacement, the idea being that while four of the boats should be actively engaged, two of the group could be held in reserve and made thoroughly fit for relieving their active sister craft. Thus, if occasion required, all six of the submarines could be sent to sea, but under normal circumstances a third of the force could be undergoing repairs or receiving any other attention which the exigencies of their duties might impose.

The mother ship in question is a craft having a normal seagoing displacement of about 3,000 tons, capable of developing a sustained maximum sea speed of four teen knots an hour, and at a cruising speed of ten knots an hour carrying sufficient fuel to give her a radius of action of 4,000 miles. The vessel is fitted with twin screws, and each shaft is actuated by a heavy oil Diesel motor developing something like 1,100 horse-power. These motors using the same fuel as that which she carries in her supply tanks for refilling the fuel chambers of the submarines. Indeed, the idea is that the men qualifying for submarine service shall first learn the management of the mother ship's internal combustion engines by way of a preliminary training the operation of the motors for the under-water boats being substantially identical.

In order to save the motive mechanisms of the submarines as far as possible, the mother ship will charge the batteries of the submarines as well as fill their tanks with compressed air, and will hold in reserve enough cells connected to refit two submarines in a few hours. The station ship will have a machine shop and foundry provided with facilities that will make possible all ordinary repairs, and she will carry a large supply of reserve fittings in addition to a store of thirty-six torpedoes. The mother ship has a battery of six powerful rapid-fire guns and should be quite strong enough to hold off a flotilla of destroyers. The mother ship will have a complement of 321 and, in addition, have ample accommodations for 120 men from the submarines. She likewise boasts a commodious sick bay.

The ship has two hulls, the outer one of homogeneous iron, and the innermost cylindrical hull of high-tensile steel. This latter hull is really a Laurenti testing dock. This tubular structure has an overall length of 210 feet and a diameter of 22 feet, with available space for

forward and a submarine resting upon the blocks.

With us, it is customary to subject our submarines to but one deep-water test, and thereafter the Navy Department takes it for granted that the boats will be able to withstand hydrostatic pressure 230 feet under the surface of the sea should accident take them there at any time during their active careers. This does not take into account the structural weakening due to wear and tear. Our submarines should be frequently tested under conditions of deep submergence, but this is impracticable with our existing facilities. But if we had a ship such as we have been describing, one that could be sent from base to base with regularity or reasonable frequency, then all of our submarines could be tested safely and speedily with all of the crew aboard, or with enough observers inside, who could watch for leaks and test valves and pumps and other emergency apparatus under conditions physically duplicating those of deep submergence. In this fashion, any ill effects of time and service could be readily detected and promptly remedied without waiting until the hour of accident to disclose the fatal blemish.

For salvage duty, the mother ship is equipped with a number of powerful winches for lifting a sunken submarine. In addition to these, she carries two special boats for diving service and, of course, all of the needed suits and apparatus for the divers themselves. The loss of the "E-4" and the manner in which the salvaging of that craft has helped should emphasize our own need

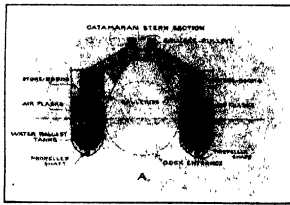


Fig. 2.—Section on AA Fig. 1, showing dock entrance.

of a mother ship or mother ships patterned after the sort the Italians have given to the world.

War Then and Now

IN the course of a debate in Congress recently, Representative I. R. Sherwood of Ohio took advantage of the opportunity to tell the House of his experience in the war of the rebellion, and he drew interesting comparisons between the way war was conducted fifty years ago and present practice, but toward the end he apparently forgets the changed conditions that he was discussing. He said:

"I carried a musket that was estimated to kill at 600 yards. I would load that musket by five motions. I carried forty rounds of ammunition, every round done up in brown paper; and the man who passed the exami-

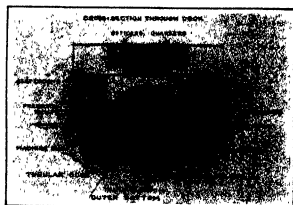


Fig. 3.—Section through dock taken on BB Fig. 1.

"Why, my friends, at the battle of Franklin, where I happened to be just at the right of the Franklin Pike, in a battle line of two and one half miles, twelve Confederate generals were killed or mortally wounded, all on the front line of battle, in five hours' fighting. Do you know of any general being killed while leading charging columns over in this European war? There is quite a characteristic difference therefore between the commanders of our armies in the civil war and of those over across the ocean."

The Occultation of One Jovian Satellite by Another is a somewhat unusual phenomenon. An instance observed November 24, 1914, at the Observatory of Jolim, is recorded by M. Quénisset in *L'Astronome*, with pictures of the successive stages. For about 30 minutes the two disks were seen as one.

Measuring Atmospheric Comfort

It is well known, in meteorological circles, that human estimates of temperature often differ markedly from the records of the thermometer, and that this instrument is a rather poor index of atmospheric comfort. The human sensation of temperature depends, to a great extent, upon the rate at which heat is dissipated from the body, and this is regulated not merely by the temperature of the surrounding air, but also by the humidity and the air-movement. Some years ago United States meteorologists introduced the expression "sensible temperature," to denote the temperature felt at the surface of the human body; whether regarded as a subjective phenomenon, which may be estimated according to an arbitrary scale of sensations, or as the actual temperature of the skin, as measured by a thermometer in contact with the latter. In the United States the sensible temperature was at one time regarded as identical with the reading of the wet-bulb thermometer, but this idea has now been discredited.

About ten years ago Mr. W. F. Tyler of the Chinese customs service published extensive observations on the subject of comfort and discomfort under various meteorological conditions and introduced the term "hyther" to denote the combined effect of temperature and humidity. Prof. Cleveland Abbe of the Weather Bureau has also investigated what he calls the "curve of comfort."

The last annual report of the U. S. Public Health Service records some investigations made under the auspices of that service at the Boston Institute of Technology, in co-operation with the New York State Ventilation Commission, upon the physical factors which influence the dissipation of heat from the body. In this connection an instrument has been devised at the Hygiene Laboratory in Washington for recording the state of atmosphere as it affects this process, which, says the report, "is a complex function of humidity, temperature, and air-movement," and the instrument in question, called the "comfortometer," has for its object the proper balancing of these factors, and the recording of a single index of comfort. "The instrument is not yet perfected."

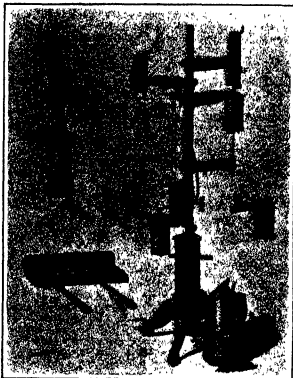
Although not mentioned in the report in question, it is a fact that a large number of instruments for measuring atmospheric comfort have already been devised by various experimenters. One of the most ingenious of these was constructed forty years ago by John W. Osborne of Washington, who described it at the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1875. Osborne also stated the problem of measuring atmospheric comfort, or sensible climate, with a facility that has never been surpassed. "The body of a healthy man," he says, "is a mass of hot matter, cooling, and having lost its heat perpetually supplied by physiological changes, in quantity sufficient to maintain a uniform thermal standard of about 98½ deg. Fahr. And, whatever the causes of this loss may be, we say when it is rapid that the weather is cold, and when slow that it is hot. In the one case the functions are called upon to make up the deficiency rapidly, and in the other to facilitate the dispersion of the body's superfluous warmth."

In order to measure the very irregular fluctuations in the dissipation of heat under the influence of varying atmospheric temperature, humidity and wind, from the body, and hence the difficult task performed by the human organism in maintaining a constant internal temperature, Osborne constructed the apparatus shown in Fig. 3. Here *A* is a cylinder of "bond" or bank-note paper, supported by a brass frame. This is filled with hot water from the vessel *B*, while an agitator inside the cylinder (shown separately at *C*), which is kept in motion by clockwork, *D*, mixes the water and keeps its temperature uniform throughout at a given moment. *E* is an overflow attachment. By means of the thermometer, *F*, and a pair of stop watches, *G*, the rate at which heat is lost from the wet surface of the porous paper can be accurately determined. Osborne's observation with this instrument demonstrated the striking differences that often exist between the rate of heat-loss from the cylinder (representing the human body) and the temperature of the air as ordinarily measured.

Quite analogous was the "deperdimenteter" of A. Etche, which consisted of a porous vessel containing water, the temperature of which was maintained constantly at blood-heat (98.6 deg. Fahr.) by a gas-jet provided with an automatic regulator. The amount of gas burned in a given time served as a measure of the cooling power of the atmosphere. The problem was taken up anew by Dr. J. B. Allen, who published in 1912 a description of his so-called named "psychrometer," which also measures the loss of

heat from a surface kept at 98.6 deg. Fahr., but uses electrical heating and measurement.

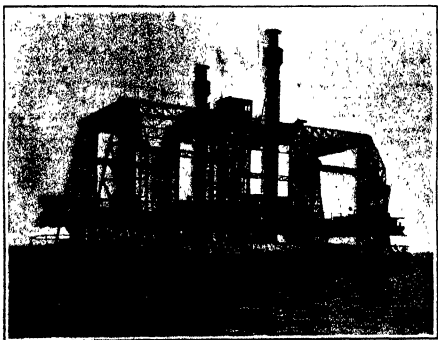
In the same year (1911) Dr. F. Frankenhäuser published in the *Zeitschrift für Biometeorologie* an account of an instrument called the "homotherm" (Fig. 1), for measuring the cooling effects of the atmosphere under different conditions of temperature, moisture, wind, solar radiation, etc. This consists of a small copper cylinder, filled with water, in which is plunged the bulb of a thermometer. The cylinder is heated over a lamp and then exposed in the atmosphere to be tested. The instrument is so constructed that a fall of one degree registered by the thermometer corresponds to a loss of



Measuring atmospheric comfort.

one gramme-calorie of heat per square centimeter of exposed surface. The cylinder may be covered with a cotton jacket, either dry or wet, to represent the clothed human body and the effects of wet clothing. With this instrument Frankenhäuser found that the wind movement accelerated cooling more rapidly than a marked fall in the air temperature. His experiments indicated that temperature is a far less important factor in climate, from a hygienic point of view, than is generally supposed. His apparatus can be arranged for continuous observation, with permanent registering and heating apparatus.

Finally, Prof. Leonard Hill has recently invented two instruments of this class. One, called the "calorimeter," which he devised in collaboration with O. W. Griffiths, consists of a small electrical furnace automatically kept at body temperature, and an indicator which shows in calories the energy required to keep it at that temperature. It thus indicates the rate of cooling. Hill's other invention of this class is the "kathathermometer" (Fig. 2), which utilizes two large bulb thermometers. The bulbs are both warmed to 110 deg. Fahr. in warm water. On removing from the water, the bulb of one is dried and the other left moist, and both are allowed to cool; the time required to fall from 100 degrees to 80 degrees being noted. The wet bulb loses heat by evaporation, the dry by radiation and convection. On an



Ferry dock that may be raised or lowered to compensate for tides.

Ideal spring day the wet bulb has been found to take 46 seconds, the dry 2 minutes and 20 seconds. The ventilation and heating in a room should, accordingly, be arranged so that the thermometers will read at these rates. Prof. Hill and his collaborators at the London Hospital Medical College are now organizing a corps of volunteer observers with the kathathermometer in British town and country districts.

The Power of Projectiles

In the course of some remarks by F. W. Lancaster recently in *Engineering* he gives the following interesting facts in regard to the power of rifle bullets. The kinetic energy of a projectile continuously represents from 10 per cent to 30 per cent of the total energy of the explosive or powder charge by which it is projected; the lower figure corresponds to the performance of a small bore low-velocity rifle, the latter being that approached under the most favorable conditions by the military or big-game rifle. The British Service rifle with Mark VI ammunition thus has an efficiency of approximately 28 per cent. In the ordinary sportsman's "12-bore" the figure is about 11 per cent. The total energy released on combustion by black powder is the equivalent in round numbers of 500 foot-tons per pound. The corresponding figure in the case of cordite is half as much again, or approximately 750 foot-tons per pound, and in general it may be taken that most of the explosives in common use have an energy-content between 500 and 1,000 foot-tons per pound. In the case of the Service rifle the weight of the powder (cordite) is 30 grains (0.0043 pounds), and the bullet 215 grains (0.0307 pounds), and the velocity 2,450 feet per second. Thus the total energy of the charge is 0.0043 x 750 = 3.2 foot-tons, and the muzzle (kinetic) energy is 2.000 foot-tons = 0.895 foot-ton, the efficiency therefore, is 0.895/3.2 = 0.28, as already given. It is worthy of remark, *en passant*, that there is very close accord between the figures applying to the gun and those which obtain in the gas-engine in all such matters as efficiency, heat lost to heated (exhausted) walls, and heat remaining in gases. The agreement is far closer than one would have ventured to expect in view of the great disparity in the conditions.

Ferry With Elevator Deck

The steam ferry which is now in use at the port of Hamburg is of a somewhat original type, although there is one of somewhat the same kind employed in England. As our photograph shows, the originality consists in the use of a main deck which can be raised and lowered by suitable machinery in order to take up a difference of level of some sixteen feet. The large structural framework rises to a considerable height, and is intended to guide the whole platform in its vertical movements. By the use of powerful electric winches it is possible to raise and lower the deck as a whole, even when it is loaded with numerous heavy vehicles, such as are used in loading material at the port. The reason for adopting this arrangement of the deck lies in the fact that at the Hamburg port the difference in tide level is considerable, so that when the boat lands at the wharf it is by no means on the same level at all times, and in the ordinary case the heavy vehicles would be obliged to mount or descend a steep incline. It is in order to avoid this drawback that the present type of ferry was constructed, and as the movable deck can always be brought flush with the level of the dock, the vehicles can now run off in the ordinary way. The present ferry has a displacement of 100 tons and is about 110 feet in length. Triple-expansion steam engines of 440 horsepower run it at good speed, and it is now doing very successful service in the port. It was found best to construct a small special slip for the ferry, so that it can land without being interfered with by the wash produced by other boats. The boat is equipped with a very complete and modern electric outfit both in the way of lighting and motors for the various services.

More Dogs Wanted by the German Army

ACCORDING to the Berlin *Local-Anzeiger*, the German army possesses 1,200 dogs, trained to find wounded men on the battlefield, and many lives have been saved by these faithful and intelligent animals. The military authorities have called for 400 additional dogs and a civilian society, formed for the purpose, has issued a fervent appeal to owners of dogs possessed of capability of the requisite training to send in their dogs, and to accompany them as keepers and trainers, if possible. Funds for the support of this humanitarian service are also urgently needed.

Plan for the Improvement of Hell Gate, East River

By C. D. Ward

SINCE 1852 a great amount of work has been done by the United States Government to improve and deepen the waterway of the East River by removing reefs, rocks, etc. In 1898 it was decided to deepen the channel to 25 feet and, up to 1911, about \$5,000,000 had been expended and 58 per cent of the necessary work had been done.

The Government later became convinced that the outlet from the New York harbor to the Long Island Sound was so important to the growing commerce of the city that it required a channel 35 feet deep in the East River to accommodate the larger vessels. To make this 35-foot channel of proper width, extending from the Battery, at the south end of Manhattan Island, to North Brother Island, where a deep channel is found, needs at many points to have rocky reefs and ridges removed, at a total estimated cost of \$10,000,000. Even after the channel is thus deepened and widened the tidal currents would still be rapid, especially at Hell Gate, and at certain times of tide, dangerous to navigation on account of the 67 to 85-mile surface currents, accompanied by violent eddies, at this part of the channel between Negro Point Bluff on the north and Hallett Point and Mill Rock on the south. On this stretch the river takes two right-angled turns, as shown on the accompanying map, which produce the violent eddies which are the cause of difficult navigation and of many accidents and wrecks.

The East River, both above Negro Point Bluff and below Hallett Point, widens out considerably, and the effect is that at a certain time of the flood tide (running north) the surface of water at Hallett Point is reported to be 12 feet higher than the surface at Lawrence Point, north of Negro Point Bluff. On the return tide the conditions are reversed. These great differences of level, in the short distance of about a mile, show plainly the cause of the rapid currents through the constricted and contracted channels.

The whole volume of the East River, however, does not pass Negro Point and Hallett Point, but part of it flows through Little Hell Gate, which has a present section given as 3,900 square feet, and another small part flows through Harlem Kills with a present section of only 970 square feet at low tide. The water flowing south or west through these two passages joins the south part of the Harlem River and so joins the main stream of the East River just west of Hallett Point with a small portion flowing off to the west through the Harlem River and so to the Hudson River at Spuyten Duyvil. The return tide, of course, follows the same reverse route. To reduce the violence of this current, the writer would advocate the opening of Harlem Kills to an increased width of 600 feet and 24 feet deep, and give thereby a wide channel for free navigation direct from the Harlem River to the Sound and greater flow of water to reduce the present direct current through Hell Gate. This widening of the cut to 600 feet would give a waterway of 14,400 square feet instead of 970 square feet, as at present.

Turning now to consider the contracted channel at Negro Point, it seems difficult to widen the channel materially where the New York connecting railroad bridge is to cross, as the abutments for the large arch span are already built, and with a boulevard also between the east abutment and the Long Island shore, which boulevard has to be taken care of; still, the channel being very deep in the center and shallow at each side, the writer thinks it very feasible to deepen the waterway at each side, 50 to 50 feet, and to also widen it somewhat and thus increase the present section of the channel from 17,310 square feet, as given by the Government engineers, to 55,500 square feet. This would materially help to reduce the velocity of the current at that narrow point. To obtain this same enlarged section north and south of the railroad bridge, the present bulkhead line would have to be somewhat changed and, especially on the Ward's Island shore, some of the upland excavated as well as the channel deepened, as shown on the map. The cost of this deepening of channel is uncertain, owing to the limited amount of data accessible to the writer, but we will assume it would be \$1,000,000.

The cost and estimate of the plan, the writer would hope to be approximately as shown in the accompanying table.

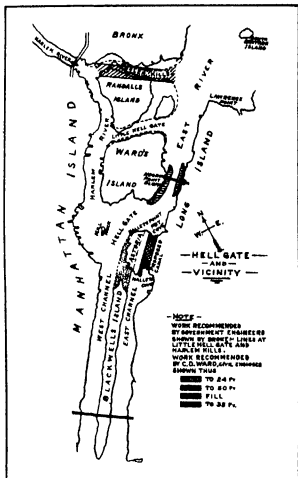
The writer would, in addition, advocate an almost forgotten plan to cut a canal through Astoria, from deep water in Pot Cove to deep water in Hallett Cove, as shown on the accompanying map.

This canal is the main and the instant feature in the writer's proposed plan and would give a direct and straight course from Negro Point to the East Blackwell's Island Channel without the present abrupt turns. This is not so expensive a work as at first appears. The land required for this proposed canal is now assessed, with buildings, at a valuation of \$1,029,000, and

Present Section	The Writer's Plan	
	Square Feet	Section Sq. Feet
Harlem Kills	970	14,400
Little Hell Gate	3,900	3,900
East River at Negro Point	47,310	55,500
Totals	51,840	73,200

This table shows an increased area of combined waterway of 22,000 square feet, which would reduce the maximum mean velocity of the current at Negro Point in Hell Gate from 4 miles per hour to 3 miles per hour and the surface velocity proportionately.

would possibly cost the Government \$2,000,000. The writer considers that the canal should be made 500 feet wide, although a less width might do, and 35 feet deep at low water, looking to a possible deepening of the channel east of Blackwell's Island to 35 feet when commerce demands it. It is now expected the Government will deepen the eastern channel to but 20 feet, though the Government engineers advocated 26 feet, which depth at least would very naturally follow if the canal should be cut. Excavating the canal would be a large undertaking but a simple one, as it would be taken out as a dry cut entirely at small unit cost, and should not total over \$2,000,000 for excavation and wasting.



Proposed straightening of East River channels.

The regular course for boats navigating the East River would then be to go north up the channel on the east side of Blackwell's Island and direct through the canal and Pot Cove and so directly on past Negro Point Boats southbound to go by Negro Point and Hallett Point and the channel west of Blackwell's Island, as all at present, thus making navigation very safe and avoiding collisions, though vessels could go both up and down either channel, if preferred.

Another very great benefit of the canal would be the large reduction in the maximum mean velocity of the current at Hallett Point, which would probably be reduced to about two miles per hour, owing to the large portion of the flow diverted through the canal.

The cost of carrying out the writer's proposed plan would be approximately as follows:

Widening and Deepening Harlem Kills to 600 x 24 feet	\$6,041,871
Widening and Deepening channel at Negro Point	1,000,000
Total by Writer's Plan not including Canal	\$7,041,871
Cost of land at Astoria for canal	\$2,000,000
Cost of Excavating and Wasting Material	2,000,000
Total cost of canal of 300 feet by 35 feet	\$4,000,000
Total estimated cost of Writer's plan	\$11,041,871

It is understood that this estimate does not include deepening the channel at Hallett Point, Pot Cove, Ward Rock or East B. Channel as they are included in the general estimate of the Government engineers for deepening the East River channel.

The writer considers the advantages of his plan to be:

First: A reduction of velocity of current at Negro Point, reducing a four-mile maximum mean velocity to a three-mile current. The surface current would be reduced in proportion.

Second: The use of the canal would make it feasible to use the two channels at Blackwell's Island, as follows: the east one to be used by vessels going north, avoiding collisions and the dangers of Hallett Point; the west channel for vessels southbound, first passing Hallett Point with little danger either from violent currents or eddies which now cause so many accidents or collisions with other vessels at that point. This would certainly be a great benefit to the navigation of the East River.

Third: The effect of drawing off the large body of water through the canal will be to reduce materially the amount left to pass Hallett Point and to probably reduce the maximum mean velocity to two miles per hour at that point.

Fourth: Opening the Harlem Kills, giving a direct and free connection between the Harlem River and the Sound.

Fifth: The estimated cost of this plan is believed to be less than by any other equally effective one.

Finally: It would seem that the great advantage of this proposed plan will be apparent to the public and commercial interests of this metropolis that, in spite of the large expense and the objection always made to condemning private property for public use, they will demand that this most comprehensive plan be carried out.

With the East River Channel deepened and widened as proposed by the Government engineers and the writer's suggested improvements made, our largest battleships could then safely pass up the East River and out by the Sound to the ocean.

Cutting this proposed canal would make an island of about 25 acres in extent of that part of Astoria to the west of the canal, which land is assessed at a valuation of \$1,303,000 and might cost \$2,000,000 to purchase, not including an additional amount for public use and commercial interests of this metropolis that, in spite of the large expense and the objection always made to condemning private property for public use, they will demand that this most comprehensive plan be carried out.

With the East River Channel deepened and widened as proposed by the Government engineers and the writer's suggested improvements made, our largest battleships could then safely pass up the East River and out by the Sound to the ocean. Cutting this proposed canal would make an island of about 25 acres in extent of that part of Astoria to the west of the canal, which land is assessed at a valuation of \$1,303,000 and might cost \$2,000,000 to purchase, not including an additional amount for public use and commercial interests of this metropolis that, in spite of the large expense and the objection always made to condemning private property for public use, they will demand that this most comprehensive plan be carried out.

It is understood that this estimate does not include deepening the channel at Hallett Point, Pot Cove, Ward Rock or East B. Channel as they are included in the general estimate of the Government engineers for deepening the East River channel. The writer considers the advantages of his plan to be:

If the city did not choose to use Astoria Island in that way, the writer would suggest that it might be used as a place on which the city or Government or private company could build a huge drydock, such as the city now, to our shame, does not possess: one able to dock the largest vessels that come to our harbor. Although, in some respects, not an ideal location for a drydock, still we would have there, what we have not at any of our present ones, a good foundation of rock, and, by placing an entrance as each end of the drydock, it would be unique and be rendered very convenient for vessels, either entering or leaving the dock, entering by one gate and leaving by the other. It would also be quite accessible to large vessels after the East River has been deepened to 35 feet and the velocity of the currents at Hell Gate reduced.

A Black Finish for Iron

It is frequently found desirable to give a black finish to the metal parts of harness and equipment. This is especially the case where armies wish to be as invisible as possible. A recipe which produces a solid black patina upon iron is given in a late number of *Le Nature*, giving a handsome appearance and also preventing oxidation.

The pieces of metal are plunged into a bath, almost boiling, made by mixing 10 liters of water with 35 grammes of a liquid composed of the following constituents: Strong phosphoric acid, 57 cubic centimeters; water, 57 cubic centimeters; pulverized iron, 35 grammes. The objects to be blackened must remain in the bath for at least half an hour, or sometimes sometimes for as much as three hours, to acquire the desired coat.

The Current Supplement

The history and value of its contents, the current issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 3038, for May 6th, 1915, will be most satisfying to every class of readers. It opens with the second of a series of lectures by Sir J. C. Thomson on Atoms and Ions, particularly as related to gases. This author's statements are authoritative, and the subject is one that must be most valuable to everyone interested in science. The submarine in Naval Warfare is most timely, describing as it does the structural elements of this new engine of war and its tactical operation as developed in the present conflict. The Scientist and the Athlete describes the physiological laboratory of the French military school. There is a valuable article comparing the cost of operation, investment, and depreciation of gas, steam engines, and turbines as used in steel works and at blast furnaces. Italian military aeroplanes are described and the leading type is illustrated. There is a review of the work of Prof. J. C. Bone. Recognizing Vaccines by the Teeth discusses a phase of vocational diseases that has received little attention. There is a valuable article on Copper Cyanide Plating Solutions. The paper on the Formation of Ozone in the Upper Atmosphere is concluded. An article on the super-dreadnought discusses the doings of the new English "Queen Elizabeth" at the Dardanelles. There are also articles on Indicating and Recording Time; Belt in Its Relation to Nutrition; High-speed Bullets and Dumdums; the Combustion of Coal in Boiler Furnaces and other topics.

Industrial Accidents in Massachusetts

DATA gathered by the Massachusetts Industrial Accident Board show that in the year ending June 30th, 1914, there were 95,083 non-fatal and 906 fatal accidents reported to the commission; that the larger number of accidents occurred between 10 and 11 A. M. and 4 P. M.; and that all days except Saturdays and Sundays shared about equally in mishaps. No evidence appears that Monday morning offers a greater hazard to industrial workers than any other period of equal length. The wages of the largest group of workers suffering non-fatal accidents ranged from \$8 to \$15 per week, and the average wages of victims of fatal accidents showed the same group range. The maximum number of accidents occurred to workers earning from \$11 to \$12 per week; the wage-earners from 21 to 29 years of age met the largest number of non-fatal accidents, while the greatest number of fatalities were suffered by workers from 40 to 49 years of age. Of the whole number of non-fatal accidents, disability lasted less than one day in 49,881 cases. In 79 per cent of the cases the average duration of disability was two weeks or less. The average duration of disability was 12.48 days, approximately the same as in 1913. Taking the days lost as a basis, 3,002 persons were constantly disabled for a full year. The wages lost for the year was \$3,174,460. Exclusive of insurance administration, the average cost of a worker's compensation per case was \$23.98. The number of accidents per thousand employees for twenty selected branches of industry was as follows:

Industry	Number per 1,000.
Automobile factories	271
Foundries and metal working	237
Riagator and packing houses	178
Electrical supplies	164
Rubber factories	159
Box makers (wood)	135
Tanneries	119
Car and railroad shops	99
Box makers (paper)	74
Candy	68
Woolen and worsted mills	65
Cotton mills	64
Dyeing and finishing textiles	56
Carpet mills	55
Marble and stone cutters	54
Shoes and shoemakers	51
Makers of black boots	49
Ketting mills	45
Jewelry factories	39
Clothing makers	31

To Old Readers of the Scientific American

THE June number of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN will commemorate the seventieth anniversary of the house of MUNN & CO. In that number we wish to give a history of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Old readers and subscribers who visited the editorial office in the past are requested to send us their impressions, anecdotes, experiences, and the like. Indeed, any information at all relating to the old office on Park Row will be gratefully received by the Editors.

Why Not designate the Redoubt?—If you have gone to a house in an automobile you will have noticed the staidness of the owner concerning his robot, especially as he wishes they could be the when returning after the day's work. It is not possible to derive some means whereby the staidness of the robot would cause an alarm, as the staidness of an automobile or a turning on of the light, which would cause the driver to stop the automobile and the staidness of the staidness?

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

Persistent Trail of a Meteor

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

At about 9:00 P. M. March 26th I witnessed at this town a very interesting meteorological phenomenon. While waiting for a train, I, with several other persons, was attracted by a falling meteor of exceptional brilliance descending in an almost vertical line, in a due westerly direction.

The extraordinary feature of this occurrence was the trail of white smoke or vapor it left in its wake. This vapor marked accurately the path of flight of the meteor and persisted in this position for some minutes.

To us observers, this vapor appeared to be not more than four or five miles away; however, on boarding the train we traveled at least four miles north before we seemed to be any farther north of the vapor than we were in 1913, proving that it must have been at a great distance from us.

The possibility of its being a bomb or anything of that nature is very remote. The falling of this body, notwithstanding its exceptional brilliance, is hardly remarkable, but the trail of gas, smoke or vapor, or whatever it was, is to me at least an extraordinary occurrence.

Strang, Neb.

DR. J. C. HICKMAN.

[The visible trail left by a meteor, although usually of very brief duration, sometimes persists for several minutes, and even, in very exceptional cases, for an hour or more. These persistent trails are occasionally visible by daylight as well as at night.]

A comprehensive account of such trails and an attempt to explain the conditions under which they occur was published in the *Popular Science Monthly* of August, 1911, by Prof. C. C. Trowbridge of Columbia University, and an abstract of this article appeared in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of September 2nd, 1911, page 200. Prof. Trowbridge thinks that trails of long duration can occur only in a stratum of the atmosphere lying between forty-five and sixty-five miles above the earth's surface, and he calls this region the "meteor train zone." According to his hypothesis, the persistent trail is a phenomenon similar to the afterglow following an electric discharge in a vacuum tube and is possible only in a highly rarefied atmosphere.

Assuming the trail seen by Dr. Hickman to have been fifty miles above the earth, its distance from the point of observation may have been from one hundred to several hundred miles.—EDITOR.]

Co-operative Boards of Health

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

Regarding your issue of April 10th, 1915, there occurred an editorial on "A Co-operative Health Board." The chairman of the Board of Health of Belmont, one of the towns included in this co-operative health plan, called my attention to the fact that in your editorial, as in an earlier editorial in the *World's Work*, the town of Belmont was omitted from the list.

A very complete record of the work of the organization up to April 1st, 1914, is given in reprint No. 222 of the United States Public Health Service, written by Prof. Phelps, formerly of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and now of the United States Public Health Service.

I am writing this letter with the idea that you might wish to refer inquiries to an authoritative report regarding the work of the Co-operative Health Organization.

Hosmer N. Hoyt, Agent, Wellesley Hills, Mass.

Right-hand vs. Left-hand Drive

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I have noticed a couple of communications in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN regarding the tendency of drivers of left-hand driven automobiles to take to the middle of the road. I took a good deal in a seven-passenger Franklin touring-car, right-hand driven. I usually sit in the front seat with the chauffeur, which brings me on the left side of the car, and gives me a splendid opportunity of observing how the cars we meet are run. My experience is that the left-hand driven cars all "hog" the road. I was out for a 80- or 90-mile drive yesterday, and this peculiarity on their part was particularly noticeable.

South California has hundreds of miles of splendid roads, either built by the various counties or by the State Highway Commission. Some of these roads, the first that were built, are but 16 feet wide, being built of rock macadam with asphalt surface. Others are 24 feet wide. The tendency of the left-hand driven car to get out of its place on the road and take to the center

of the drive is especially noticeable upon these 16-foot drives. I was riding a few days since with a gentleman who was driving a left-hand driven car. I called his attention to the fact that he was in the middle of the road. He immediately pulled off to the side of the road, saying that he had not noticed it. Within five minutes he was back in the middle of the road.

Now, there must be something in the position of the driver that causes this conduct. It cannot be that all the drivers of left-hand driven cars have simply become lawless. I think that they are unconscious of doing it. Before the days of automobiles, I never kept a good team and drove a great deal myself, and I never felt comfortable sitting on the left-hand side of a vehicle. In fact, I was almost helpless. It may be possible that those who have driven right-hand driven cars have something of the same feeling. I defy anyone to take a drive any Sunday or holiday in this country, when there are thousands of cars going and coming without being impressed with the facts that I have stated above.

Low Angeles, Cal.

J. A. GRAYES.

An Early Use of Khaki

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

In your correspondence column of April 16th the question is raised as to when the khaki dye was first used on soldiers' uniforms. I think it was first used in 1877. Now, I wore khaki-colored uniform in 1875 during the Indian mutiny war, being then in the East India Company's army. The uniform worn by us at that time had been white drill, but it was found to be unfit for the rough work of the campaign. It showed the dirt too much. So orders were given to have it dyed a brown color called khaki, near the color of mud. This was at Ahmednagar, Bombay Presidency. The dye was very inferior, did not stand washing well, but it served not only the original purpose, but also that of making our soldiers less conspicuous to the enemy.

JOHN P. DE KROM.

The Donation of Patents to the Public

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

The important inventions of Dr. Walter F. Rittman relating to the production of gasoline and certain bases for high explosives and his dedication of the United States patents to the public have attracted much attention and aroused the admiration of all for the inventor's patriotism. There is some question, however, whether the dedication of the patents will open the way to the benefit of the public to the same extent as if the patent had been privately operated with a reasonable regard for the public. Is it probable that the telephone would have the universal use and the practically unlimited range it now offers the people if it had not in the first instance enjoyed the fostering influence of our Government patent system?

Senator Truitt H. Platt of Connecticut, in addressing the U. S. Senate in 1884, touched upon this very point in referring to the inventor as "a laborer entitled to his hire, entitled to it more, if possible than any other laborer, as his labor is higher in dignity and grandeur than that of any other laborer." He quotes the testimony of Sir Henry Bessemer of steel from as found on page 103 of a work called "Crest of the Age of Steel," a part of which is as follows: "Sir Henry says: 'I do not know a single instance of an invention having been published and given freely to the world and being taken up by its manufacturers at all. I have myself proposed to manufacturers many things which I was convinced were of use but had not been desired to manufacture or even to patent. I do not know of one instance in which my suggestions have been tried, but had I patented and spent a sum on a certain invention I should have found someone who would have taken it upon the offer of some advantage from me and who would have seen his capital repaid by the fact that no other manufacturer could have it quite upon the same terms for the next year or two.' I believe inventions which are at first few are apt to come to nothing."

Do not the views of this distinguished man give us food for thought in this day? The writer thinks that the views of Edison, Marconi, the originators of the commercial moving-picture machine, and other leading inventors might bring the public to believe that the reasonable control of an invention afforded by the patent laws is a benefit to the people at large as well as to the inventor.

A CONSTANT READER.

Fly Trap Wanted.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

In your issue of October 10th last (page 240) there was given a description of a fly trap recommended by the Department of Agriculture, which, after trial, we find most ineffective. The best fly trap we have found up to date is the ordinary glass dome trap, but we should be glad to try any form of trap which can be made here, which any of your readers may be able to recommend.

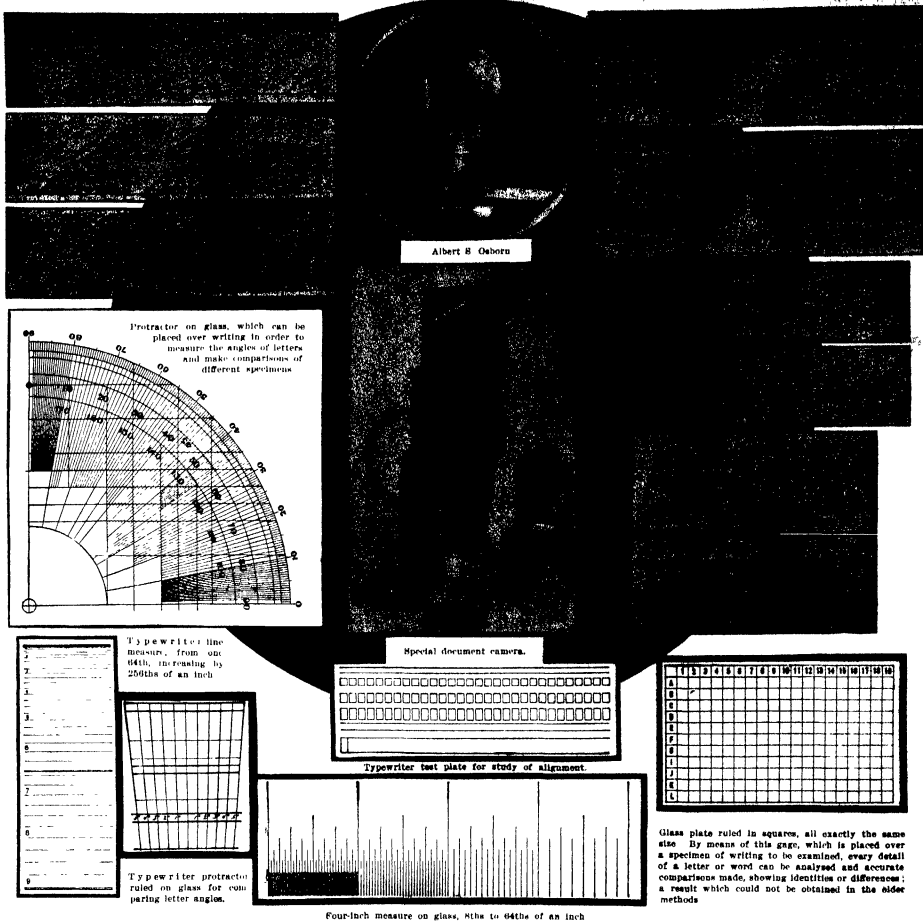
F. E. MULLIN.

Explosives Factory, Hirsutaka, Japan.

Traced forgeries, photographed under ruled squares.

Stereoscopic microscope on glass table with light beneath.

Traced forgeries, showing damaging distortion.



Science and the forger—Instruments and illustrations in questioned document cases.

Science and the Forger

Instruments and Illustrations in Questioned Document Cases

By Albert S. Osborn, Author of "Questioned Documents"

THE giving of definite reasons for an opinion and the use of illustrations and instruments in proving the facts in a court of law in a questioned document case is a proceeding so comparatively new that it is always objected to, and now and then not permitted. The old idea of evidence in these matters was that it should be received through the ears, and a case was heard and not "seen," and the modern method of interpreting and illustrating testimony and thus showing the facts in visible form has met with vigorous opposition.

Not until recently was any standard writing admitted in evidence for comparison, nor was any jurymen permitted to look at a photograph or at evidence through a microscope, but was simply told what others saw, or knew, or thought, and there still are courts where jurymen are not permitted to see for themselves. Some of the old objections were no doubt originally based upon the then reasonable presumption that the jurymen could not read and write, and was therefore more likely to be deceived and misled by his own eyes in a document in-

vestigation than by the oral testimony of others, but the same rules made it impossible to show anything to an intelligent referee or an able and experienced judge. In the ancient practice, therefore, the one called upon to decide the case was supposed to listen to what others said regarding a disputed document and then try to determine, often from conflicting stories, who probably was telling the truth.

The old method is slowly passing away in all cases where evidence can be made visible, and judges, referees, and jury are asked to look for themselves at the physical facts with all kinds of microscopes and magnifying glasses, and these facts are interpreted and made plain by special enlarged photographs and grouped illustrations. By these methods the observer, by the use of two senses, certainly is better able finally to understand what the fact is and determine who is telling the truth. The modern practice that makes evidence appeal to two senses instead of only one is now becoming generally recognized as entirely reasonable and desirable. In this

manner has arisen the necessity for instruments and illustrations in disputed document cases.

As was inevitable, these modern methods of presenting evidence have had a marked effect on the administration of justice, and by their use a verdict is based not upon the amount of the evidence, but upon its quality, and some of the discredit brought upon expert testimony by vague and intangible evidence of the doctors and the alienists is being removed. One competent witness on the side of the facts can prevail against a room full of witnesses against the facts. In a recent important case six alleged eye-witnesses testified that they saw a certain document signed and twelve jurymen, to whom the facts had been shown, declared it to be a forgery.

The completely equipped examiner of questioned documents in these days needs certain instruments for his business as much as the surveyor does for his. The photographic camera, the microscope, and the various instruments for making accurate measurements are

and illustrations are the charts and compasses of the litigation, and they, with the aid of the witness, really present the testimony. In all disputed document cases there are two requirements: first the discovery of the fact and then the proof of it in court. The qualified expert may not need to use instruments or to make illustrations in order that he himself may discover the fact, but instruments and illustrations often are absolutely necessary in order that the inexperienced and untrained who may be called upon to decide the question may be led to see clearly and appreciate fully the significance of the visible physical facts.

The whole of modern procedure in relation to proof of documents is thus being revolutionized by this method of making concrete and visible the main testimony in such cases. This method also in large measure takes document testimony out of the class of mere expert opinion testimony, with its inevitable conflicts, and puts it into the class of demonstrative testimony which in many cases can be readily seen, properly appreciated, and fully understood by an intelligent jurymen.

Without the aid of the photographic camera a handwriting or document case can hardly be properly presented in a court of law. Seeing ability varies greatly with different individuals, and even a slight enlargement makes more distinct and may actually make visible to certain observers what otherwise cannot be seen. A suitable enlargement often presents a matter so much more clearly that the evidence at once carries conviction. Photographs also permit a side-by-side comparison by making it possible to put things close together, which is the only way certain things can be effectively compared, because of the inability of the eye to carry an image for even a brief time or over a short distance. With most observers, therefore, visible things to be compared must be looked at at the same time. Photographs make such comparisons possible by permitting the dissection of accurate reproductions of documents and the grouping of similar or dissimilar parts.

The psychology of habit underlies much of the scientific study of the subject of disputed handwriting, and the principles of psychology have a most important bearing on many phases of the study of the subject of forgery. Given the same conditions, minds work in much the same way whatever they are attempting to do. One of the greatest obstacles to success in forgery is overanxiety to do it well, and this effort shows itself in the tangible result. The forger locks the door, pulls down the curtain and tries to do the task so well that he overdoes it. Furthermore, he usually is not satisfied with the result as it first appears and often carefully repairs it, adds to, overwrites, and perfects his first attempt. Such careful corrections or additions, always inconsistent with genuineness, may not change the color of the ink, and if skillfully done may not be seen under ordinary view, but when examined or photographed by

strong transmitted light, especially under magnification, the telltale varying thicknesses of the ink film are instantly disclosed, enabling the observer literally "to see through" the forgery.

Most forgeries are produced either by a tracing process or by a simulating process. In tracing, the operator seeks to reproduce line for line and dot for dot a genuine signature with the natural thought that if he can make one just like a genuine one, no one can detect it, and then, in addition, he is often so shortsighted as to put this very model signature in evidence in the effort to prove his imitation to be good, because it is "just like" a genuine signature. It does not occur to him until he is arrested or he presents his forgery in court that genuine signatures are not just alike and that it is a very damaging circumstance when a disputed signature is exactly like a certain genuine signature which may have been used as a model and what he thought of as evidence of genuineness naturally becomes evidence of forgery. This identity is especially damaging when the disputed signature in its line quality and rebounding shows that it was not really written but slowly and carefully drawn. In such a case it is desirable to illustrate this damaging similarity which is done by photographing the disputed signature and its model under ruled squares so that merely by inspection the damaging similarity can be seen.

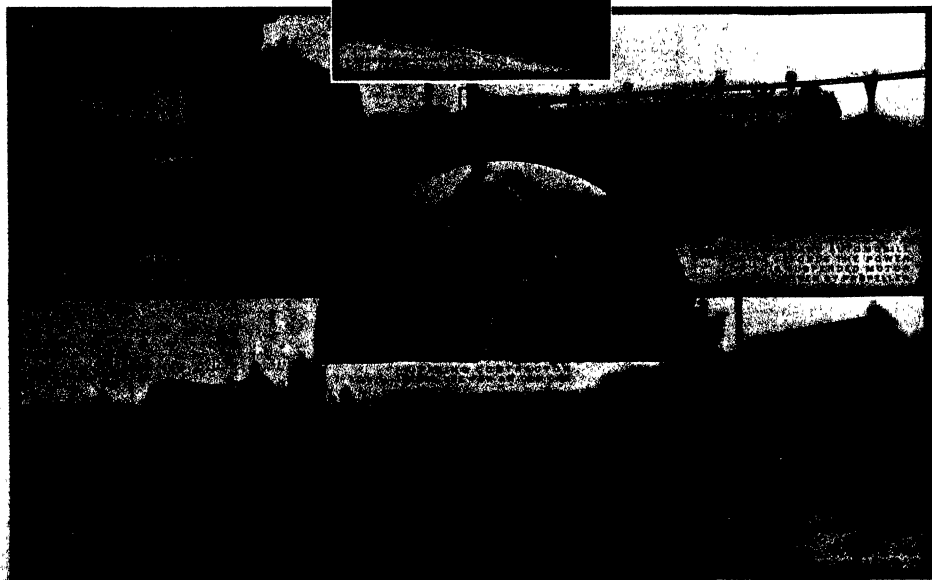
In certain cases means for making and illustrating accurate measurements are essential if the facts are to be proved. In a typewriting case the falsity of a document can sometimes be shown by simply showing that certain letters are narrower or wider than other letters. It is necessary in such cases that measuring instruments be provided that enable an ordinary examiner to see and appreciate the physical facts.

What Becomes of the Second-hand Automobile?

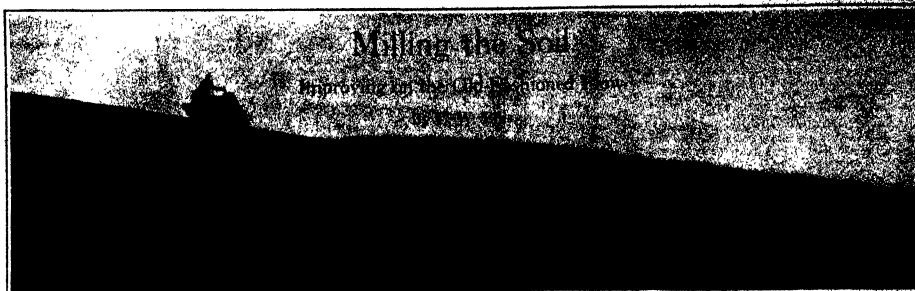
THE accompanying photographs answer in part the question that everyone has asked at one time or another, "What becomes of the second-hand auto?" With so many thousands of new cars constantly coming on the market, it seems as if there would be a tremendous overplus of used cars of outworn model that would be impossible to sell for pleasure vehicles, and that would have to go to the junk pile. The ingenious manner in which small tradesmen, ranchers, advertisers, and mechanics in various lines of industry have solved this problem is vividly shown in the series of pictures of re-built machines, many of which are adapted to use that their manufacturers never dreamed of.

A cement contractor has fitted up a trailer composed almost entirely of the parts of outworn autos, which makes a very effective concrete mixer, and which is towed by his little runabout, also a second-hand machine. A knife grinder has set up a complete shop for

(Continued on page 436)



A series of re-built machines that have solved the problem of the use of second-hand automobiles.



Deep cultivation on fallow land by a Meyenburg soil miller.

THE Greeks gave Ceres credit for inspiring one Triptolemus to invent the plow. Later students have suggested that the supposed divine origin of the implement had something to do with having sacrilegious improvements upon it until a little over a century ago, when Thomas Jefferson reduced it to mathematical principles and the first real plow manufacturing began. Certain it is that anything so radical as a proposal to abolish the plow altogether would be regarded by the average farmer as unthinkable were it not for the fact that at least two types of rotary auto-cultivator had reached the practical marketing stage in Europe previous to the war, one of them being manufactured in this country also. This type of machine, variously known as a rotary cultivator, soil milling machine, motor hoe, etc., pulverizes the soil thoroughly at one operation to the full depth of the cut, no disks or other harrows being needed for preparing a seedbed of ideal physical conditions.

Since Jethro Tull first outlined the modern principles of tillage, the aim of implement designers has been to break up the furrow slice into the granules which afford greater root pasturage, hold abundant moisture, and provide for proper soil aeration. The indictment of the plow is that it is a makeshift, merely a combination of wedges for marking the best possible use of the one power always available hitherto, i. e., the linear pull of a draft animal. Only rarely does it effect a complete pulverization, and in the hand of a careless farmer the plowsole may easily form a so-called "share hardpan" and work considerable damage to the land.

The crop return due to the better preparation of the soil has long been recognized, and Kropotkin's colony of exiles in England is said to have shown a profit even after putting soil through a grinding machine and restoring it to its place.

So long ago as about 1850, an English farmer, Hoskyns by name, recorded his theory of a motor cultivator embodying a rotary working tool equipped with mole-like claws for scratching the earth. He condemned the plow and the implements that follow it, and insisted that the proper application of mechanical power to the soil was in a rotary direction, citing the successful rotary action of the paddle-wheel, the circular saw, the threshing cylinder and other devices working directly upon material to be moved or changed in form.

Hoskyns's idea of a rotary tool has since been applied to many experimental machines in this country. A South Dakota college professor advanced the idea of a soil auger. A Kansas farmer fitted a drum with a large number of miniature plows. A Colorado man built an earth saw, and a California inventor brought forth a spading wheel. A Nebraska company propelled a tractor by an immense cylinder studded with hooks which were supposed to tear up the ground at the same time. European inventors duplicated all these ideas again and again, but all failed commercially.

The one principle which has endured is that of a vehicle carrying at the rear a horizontal cylinder of some sort, actuated

independently of the vehicle, and equipped with comparatively small cutting tools. Of the two types of cylinder employed—one rigid, the other flexible—the latter unquestionably does the superior work, bearing out Hoskyns's prediction of 1850.

The advantage of the rigid type is a probably lower repair bill except in stony ground, a concession to which

is made in one case by wooden break-plas, acting as a safety feature. The flexible tool, on the other hand, takes a smaller "bite," scratching, rather than cutting, and producing much finer granules.

One machine of the flexible type made in the United States is of Swiss invention, after researches instituted about 1901 by one St. Germain, in Zurich, and carried to a successful issue by Konrad von Meyenburg of Basel. The vehicle itself is not important; in fact, in the earlier experiments the tool was mounted upon a wagon drawn by a block-and-tackle. The essentials at present seem to be lightness; a short wheel base; independent control of drive wheels so one may be stopped and a very short turn made; a separate drive for rotating the cylinder; means for raising and lowering the cylinder; and, of course, a motor. It is interesting to note that after an exhaustive survey of the world's light motor field, the Swiss inventors chose for their experimental work a two-cycle marine motor made in the United States.

The rotor, or cylinder, runs in the same direction as the travel of the machine and actually helps to propel it. The outfit can thus be made very light—4,500 pounds for a two-meter width and 1,400 pounds for the one-meter. Three or four speeds are provided, since the condition of the soil and depth of cut will naturally affect the rate of travel. A motor of 30 horse-power furnishes power to till from four to ten acres in ten hours, at depths of about 12 to 8 inches, respectively, a very creditable showing, considering the amount of material subdivided.

The cylinder is, of course, the vital feature. Flexible steel claws, held by steel spring holders, are ranged about a horizontal axis, and the whole rotated at about 150 revolutions per minute. Use in stony, hard, wet, and trashy ground has apparently brought out no limiting factor so far as quality of work is concerned, though the best of material is required in the hooks and holders to postpone crystallization.

Briefly, the advantages of such a tillage tool, outside of the use of mechanical power, are the preparation of a more thoroughly seed bed; immediate breaking of the soil and its increased water-holding capacity; uniform distribution of manure; saving of seed; greater yield. In addition the vehicle can be applied to some of the uses of an ordinary tractor. The mechanical perfection of the machine and its adoption by the average farmer will do doubt be slow. The fact that it is already a commercial product is, however, sufficient in view of what may very likely prove to be a profound revolution in methods of handling the soil.

A Simple Poison Indicator. A bottle containing poison is shown. The bottle is 1,121,820 to 1,121,821. The bottle is of Kilmaville, Mo., showing the bottle and a ball which will ring when the bottle is moved, the frame having a lever and a spring which will ring when the top of a cork is moved, and the frame upon the side of the bottle.



The Meyenburg soil miller.



The American-built soil miller.



Milling claws and soil bed prepared by the Meyenburg machine.



Courtesy of London Illustrated News

Bullet-proof shield on wheels for attack or defense.

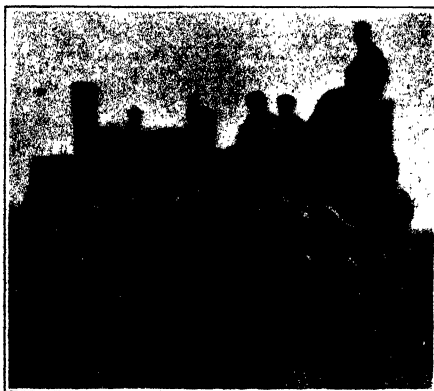
An armored shield behind which men may advance or may barricade a road, or the like, was submitted recently to the British War Office. The small pictures show various uses of the device. It may be transported like a two-wheeled cart, carrying on the shield plate a supply of ammunition. It may be used as a temporary barricade or as an advancing or retiring shield, or the wheels and springs may be removed to form a fixed barricade. Ten such shields placed side by side form a 30-foot barricade.



Photo by Paul Thompson

A pocket periscope.

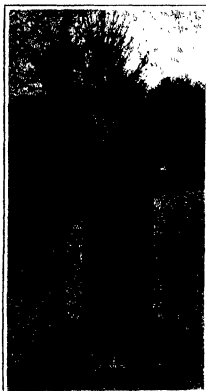
The British army has just adopted an angle mirror periscope which may be attached to a bayonet point to give a view over the rim of a trench.



Copyright American Press Association

British caterpillar tractor.

The warring nations have found the caterpillar and ped-rail type of tractor indispensable for hauling artillery and equipment over uneven ground. This picture shows a machine used by the British army. Intermediate of the main sprocket wheels are idlers adapted to take up slack and provide better traction.



Courtesy of London Illustrated News

A 42-centimeter shell.

This unexploded 42-centimeter shell fell in soft ground near Verlon. Height, 1 1/4 m., weight, 2,106 lbs. A French 75 mm. on left, and German 77 mm. on right.

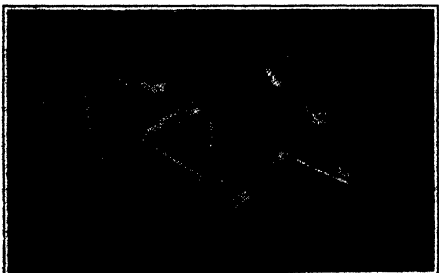
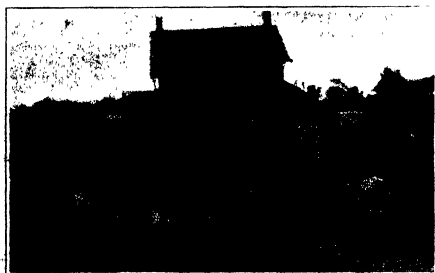


Photo by Paul Thompson

Protection against poisonous fumes.

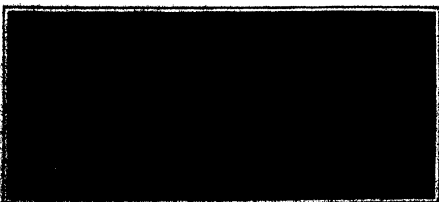
The poisonous fumes that are given off by the explosion of modern high-power shells make it necessary for the men in the trenches to wear special or improvised respirators.



Copyright News & Devos

Elephant as a war horse.

We would not be surprised to find elephants doing service in the Indian contingent of the British forces, but apparently even the German army makes occasional use of them.



German soldier of the German Red Cross Division.
He renders blood service while the waiting wound.

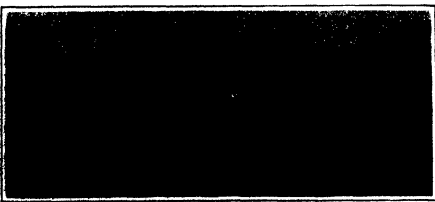


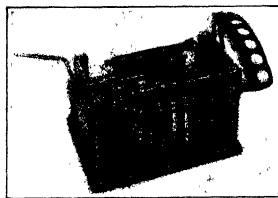
Photo by Paul Thompson

Railway construction drill.

British recruits learning how to build a light railway.



The tape perforator



Interior of the automatic controller

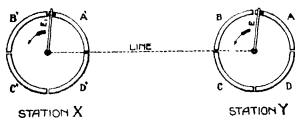
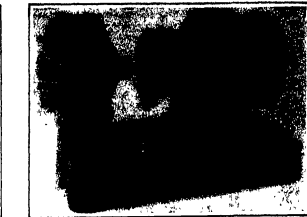


Fig 2—The Baudot multiplex transmission



The motor and the distributor

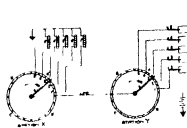


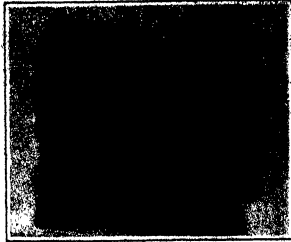
Fig 1—Subdivision of the quadrants



Interior of the transmitter



Fig 3—Baudot code



Interior of the printer and relay, which is operated by the transmitter of the distant station and prints the message on a telegraph blank.



Transmitting and receiving apparatus

Some of the apparatus used in the new multiplex page-printing telegraph.

A System of Long Distance Typewriting

Eight Messages Sent Simultaneously Over a Single Wire

FOR over a year the Western Union Telegraph Company has been putting to a rigorous test in actual commercial service what is virtually a system of long distance typewriting. In other words, the operator at the transmitting station uses a keyboard similar to that of a typewriter, but the typing is done at the distant receiving station, and there directly on a telegraph blank, so that no time is lost in transcribing the message, as is usually necessary.

Broadly, it is a combination of two existing systems, namely, the multiplex system of Baudot and the page printer of Murray. Of course, the combining of these two systems has involved a great deal of invention and has resulted in the development of many improvements, credit for which belongs to the engineers of the Western Electric Company, who designed and built the apparatus, and the engineers of the Western Union Telegraph Company who experimented with them.

Each key of the transmitting keyboard sends its own characteristic signal or set of electrical impulses over the line, which actuate the printing mechanism at the far end and cause it to impress the corresponding character on the paper. However, the signals used belong to the Baudot code rather than the Morse alphabet. This is illustrated in Fig. 2, and it will be observed that every letter is made up of five units, consisting of positive and negative impulses, instead of dots and dashes. Those above the line in the illustration represent positive units and those below negative. Thus, the letter "A" consists of 1 and 2, positive, with 3, 4 and 5, negative, while "B" consists of 1 positive, 2 and 3, negative, and 4 and 5, positive. The code is shortened by the use of an upper case controlled by a special key as in a typewriter, which provides, for punctuation and numerals, as well as certain abbreviations.

We have referred to this system as one of long distance typewriting, and this is particularly true of one form of apparatus known as the "short line printer," in which, when the operator depresses a key, the printer at the receiving station immediately impresses the corresponding letter on the telegraph blank. But the transmitting and printing mechanisms are capable of far higher speed than is a human operator, and for this reason the Baudot system of

sending signals from four different operators in rapid succession has been adopted. This principle is illustrated in Figs. 1 and 2. In Fig. 2, for instance, two contact rings are shown, one at the sending station X, the other at the receiving station Y. These are divided into the quadrants A, B, C and D, and A', B', C' and D', respectively. Sweeping over the quadrants are the contact arms B and B', respectively, which are connected by a telegraph line and which are arranged to revolve at a uniform rate, so that quadrant A is electrically connected with the quadrant A', quadrant B with B', etc., once at each revolution. Now consider the quadrants subdivided into five segments, as indicated at A and A'. In Fig. 1. Each segment of quadrant A is connected to a lever which may engage one of two contact points. One point is grounded and the other is connected to a grounded battery or other source of electrical current.

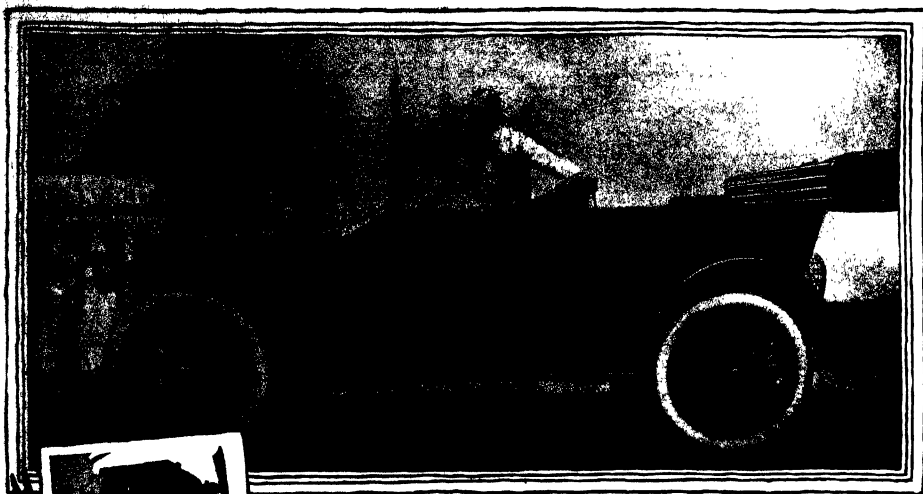
The corresponding segments of A' are respectively connected to ground through relays. If, for instance, levers 1 and 2 were raised so as to engage the battery or active contact points, the arm in sweeping over quadrant A would transmit two electrical impulses over the line which would pass through the corresponding segments of quadrant A' at station X and energize the relays 1 and 2. The next instant the contact arm would sweep over quadrants B and B', sending a set of impulses to relays controlled by B', etc. The relays of each quadrant operate their own printing mechanism. Of course, the diagrams do not show the exact mechanism employed in this system, but merely illustrate the broad principle of operation, showing how four signals can be sent on a single wire by four different operators, and sorted out at the receiving end so as to operate four different printers. Then, by means of a duplexing system, signals can be sent over the same wire in a reverse direction from station X to Y, so it is possible to transmit eight messages over a single line.

One of our photographs shows a multiplex table equipped with only one transmitter and one receiver, which serves to illustrate the various apparatus required. Of course, for a complete quadruplex-duplex system this equipment would be increased four-fold. By operating the keyboard a paper tape is perforated, and this passes through the transmitter, where a set of

fingers bear against the tape and, operating through the perforations, raise the levers corresponding to those shown in Fig. 1, thus sending impulses over the line as selected by the arrangement of the perforations. The tape moves through the transmitter with a step-by-step movement. Each transmitter is connected to its own ring quadrant of a distributor. As shown in one of the photographs, the distributor is provided with a series of rings which we cannot attempt to explain in detail in this short article. Suffice it to say that this distributor combines the rings of both the receiving and transmitting stations. Of course, the signal sent will operate only the printer at the distant station and not the one shown in the photograph, for this is operated by the transmitter of the distant station.

It will be realized that, in order to prevent overlapping of signals, the contact arms of the distributors at the two stations must run at exactly the same speed and in perfect unison. Otherwise, an impulse sent on segment 3 of station Y might be received on 4 or 5 of station X, if the contact arm E' were running fast or slow. In order to maintain absolute synchronism, an automatic controller is employed, which is located directly behind the tape-operated transmitter. This apparatus is shown, with wire connections, in one of our photographs. The motors are of the phonograph type driven by the impulses of an electrically driven tuning fork. The latter may be seen at the top and rear of the photograph. By means of this system a very accurate control of speed may be obtained. However, the arrangement is such that one motor will rotate a little faster than the other, and when it has gained a certain predetermined angle it is set back by automatic means. This apparatus is also arranged to stop the transmitter if the operator is unable to keep pace with the distributor. Ordinarily, the tape forms a loop between the keyboard mechanism and the transmitter, and into this loop projects a lever from the automatic controller. When the transmitter operates fast enough to pick up all this slack, the tape raises the lever of the controller, which serves to check the action of the transmitter, delaying it until the operator has accumulated enough slack in the tape to release the lever of the controller.

(Continued on page 444.)



What \$985 will buy —because it's a *Studebaker*

The Studebaker Motor

is the long-stroke, high-speed type—powerful and silent in operation—simple in design and extremely economical in every one of its details. Remarkably economical of fuel owing to improved design of gas passages, valve openings and manifold.

The Studebaker Springs

together with the remarkable balance of the chassis have made this FOUR one of the EASIEST-riding cars on the road. Long, flat, wide, TRIPLE-leaf springs of Studebaker steel—semi-elliptic in front, full-elliptic underlugs in rear. Springs shakable at play—tipped construction and nickel-plated grease cups in joints.

The Studebaker FULL-floating Rear Axle

is not merely a "floating" type of axle—but a real FULL-floating rear axle in which the axle housing carries the weight of the

TWO Timken Bearings in each hub take up the side-thrust and the shaft itself is left free merely to turn the wheels. It is the SAFEST and most accessible type of rear axle. Studebaker designed and Studebaker built.

At the first glimpse you get of this Studebaker FOUR you'll begin to appreciate the evident QUALITY that Studebaker has built into its every detail, simply "—because it's a Studebaker."

For you'll find it one of the handsomest cars you ever saw. A car of distinctive design—refined and graceful in line with a rare elegance of finish that few cars at any price can match.

And you'll notice, too, the roominess of this attractive car—and the handsome CROWN fenders and the wide doors with hidden hinges and catches, and deep, restful cushions finished with high-grade, hand-buffed leather. And a hundred other little details that lend beauty and grace to its looks.

But it is only when you study the mechanical construction of the car itself that you realize how much you can buy in this car at \$985—how needless it is to pay more for a FOUR—how unwise, too, it may be to pay less and sacrifice quality—QUALITY you must have, and this is the ONE car that can fully satisfy you on every quality point at a price below one thousand dollars.

The rear axle, for example—it's not merely a "floating" type. This FOUR has a FULL-floating rear axle. It's the most expensive form of axle—but it's the safest and the easiest to get at.

You'll find that instead of following the less expensive construction of driving thro' springs, Studebaker uses TWO radius rods and a torque arm for the drive. The springs are free to take up the jolts and jars—and nothing else.

You'll find brakes of ample size to insure safety at all times on any roads. And a brake-equalizer of the highest type.

You'll find a silent and flexible motor that gives road-mastering power and yet is marvelously economical.

You'll find Timken bearings at every point of HARDEST wear—13 of them in all. Is there any other car at less than a thousand dollars that can give you as many?

You'll find a Studebaker-developed Electric System that never fails. And so in every detail you'll find the QUALITY that Studebaker must put into the Studebaker FOUR "—because it's a Studebaker."

But see this car—stand it side by side with other FOURS—no matter what the price. And judge its quality and what it gives, and then, when you know that you can get all this at \$985—backed by the \$45,000,000 guarantee of that name of Studebaker—you'll begin to realize that Studebaker QUALITY is not merely an empty phrase.

STUDEBAKER — Detroit

Canadian Plants: Walkerville, Ont.

Studebaker
Motor Cars

Electric Lighting and Starting—FULL-Floating Rear Axle—Timken Bearings—Safety Tyrod Rear View—One-man Type Top.

Studebaker ROADSTER, . . . \$985
Studebaker LIGHT SIX, . . . 1385
Studebaker SIX (7-passenger), 1480

Price in U. S. A. Price in Canada
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1750
1825



Chaufeur: "Yes Sir, I've tried various oils, and I find that she runs better on HAVOLINE."

Motorist: "How do you account for it?"

Chaufeur: "Why, she simply goes further on the same amount of fuel—she doesn't seem to get out of order so quickly, and I find the pistons and cylinder are left pretty clean."

Motorist: "Well, is it O. K. for this kind of a car?"

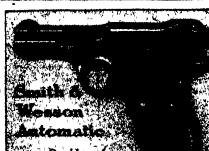
Chaufeur: "O.K.'s the word. Your car takes HAVOLINE Medium. There are different grades for the different makes."

Motorist: "All right, buy a couple of cans."

HAVOLINE OIL is made by all Chrysler and Auto Accessories Shops for the Motorist—while only one dealer can sell the Motorist.

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"Don't Snore"

Don't Snore and Snore Patent
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often get out; and the only compensation for this weakness was an occasional home run. So I made it a rule that no member of the team should ever throw up and knock flies for another player, but always try, both in practice and games, to knock grounders, when no base runner need wait, as in this. The main point is that every time we swing the bat upward, or in such a way as to hit flies, we tend to form a bad habit. But if we always strive to strike downward, or in such a way as to knock grounders, we will tend to form what seems to me the best possible batting habit.

While, of course, there may be conditions where grounders might not be the best play, yet it is unwise for the sake of a temporary advantage to weaken in the least the good habit of muscular movements that tend to knock grounders, the most difficult balls to handle, and which are often furnished, especially when the men are a little nervous or excited. Fumbles under such conditions frequently lead to bad throws to bases, which are liable to pass the basemen and cause disastrous results.

In discussing with a prominent trainer the question of batting, he said the difficulty was in following any rule on account of the unexpected various curves and drop balls. But this is no answer to a fact of muscular memory, that a fixed habit of such movements of the arm, wrist, and body as tend to knock grounders will also tend to lessen the number of flies. It is not meant that this or any rule should be followed absolutely, for there may be players with idiosyncrasies where a rule should be modified.

Batting Makes Games More Interesting.—Batting is called the heart of the game; and when it is poor, it is like a boxing match where the defense is so much better than the offense, that not a blow is landed.

If baseball is in the future to be successful as in the past, the games must be made as interesting as possible to the spectator. One way to do this is to make the batting more effective. There is nothing that thrills the spectators more than to hear the loud sound of the ball on the bat. They often rise to see where the ball is going. No matter how strong the habit of knocking grounders may be, it will occur, but they are more liable to be long ones or liners and lead to a home run, which is always exciting. When a high fly is hit there is little interest manifested, as it is assumed, and almost always correctly, that it will surely be caught.

Keeping down scores to small figures seems to have become a fetish, as high figures are supposed to indicate poor playing. If the batting be improved, the scores may be larger, but this would not necessarily mean that the game was a poor one. On the contrary, there can be better fielding and better batting at the same time, making a lively game and affording more opportunities for brilliant fielding. There might be more errors, but this does not indicate at all that the fielding was poor, but that it was more difficult because of better batting.

Some Causes of Weak Batting.—Specialization is one of the main causes of weakness in batting. Many years ago a first baseman or catcher, who could not bat, was not wanted. In addition, special study is given to the batter's habits at the plate, as to what kind of ball troubles him and where he is liable to hit. The foul stroke also gives the batter less chance, and larger gloves than necessary for protection (their original purpose) have increased the fielder's opportunities against the batter.

Individual Bats for the Team.—Batting now is for the sake of team work, to advance runners and score, rather than make base hits. Often a batter must put just the kind of ball he can hit to go by, and then strike at one he is lucky even to touch. He may be ordered to wait and let the pitcher weary himself. Some batters can put off fouls and help to tie the pitcher out. If by waiting a batter can get some balls foul off three, and then strike out, he may add the team score that if he had made a base hit off the first ball.



If a King's Doctor told you to take Sanatogen—

you would be impressed—for you know that a King's Doctor must be a man of highest professional standing. You would take Sanatogen feeling confident that it would do the things promised; give you fresh vigor, fortify your system as no other tonic could.

Now it is a fact that the private physicians to seven Emperors and Kings, after personal observation of its effects, have endorsed Sanatogen in writing. (See, for instance, the accompanying letters of Dr. Ott and Dr. Kuhn.)

So you see a king's physician might recommend Sanatogen to you, if you could consult him—indeed there are over 2,000 practicing physicians who would tell you to take Sanatogen, because they all have written us, some telling of its power to strengthen the nerves, others of its power to enrich the blood and uphold the system, and still others of its wonderful qualities as an aid to digestion.

Such are the credentials of Sanatogen—they should, they must convince you that Sanatogen has a service to perform in your case.

Sanatogen is sold by good druggists everywhere in three sizes from \$1.00 up.

Dr. Ernst Ott.
Late King Edward's physician. I have been using Sanatogen for a number of years in my practice with excellent results. These results have been especially good in the case of elderly people who were unable to build up the strength to maintain an active life. I have found the value of Sanatogen in the treatment of the nervous system.

Dr. Conrad Kuhn.
Physician to the King of Siam. I have used Sanatogen for a number of years in my practice with excellent results. These results have been especially good in the case of elderly people who were unable to build up the strength to maintain an active life. I have found the value of Sanatogen in the treatment of the nervous system.

Grand Prize International Congress of Medicine, London, 1915

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Solid Truck Tires

RESILIENCY that positively protects the truck mechanism is scientifically combined with toughness that gives the longest wear, in Firestone truck tires. With most-miles-per-dollar service, they add long life to truck motors, axles and frames. And the Firestone

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insures continuous truck service in any place—enables any truck driver to change tires in a few minutes. Truck layoffs are practically eliminated.

The Firestone equipment is simple and absolutely effective. When tire or rim is applied it is one with the wheel. Proved by years of service under the hardest conditions. The preferred equipment of the largest truck users. The Firestone

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also has unmatched resilience with wearing quality. Firestone building makes the steel sub-base, hard rubber base and cushion tread one unit.

There is a Firestone Service Station in every trucking center.

It is the work of a few minutes to apply to any S. A. P. standard wheel one of these strong, durable, pressed-on Firestone tires. They are applied direct to felloe band under 200 tons hydraulic pressure. "Creeping" is not possible.

Call a Firestone man from your local Firestone branch and let him make recommendations to meet the special conditions under which your trucks operate.

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The comparative test of side-by-side service is the only fair way to find out which truck is doing the work steadiest, at lowest cost and for the longest time. Because of such tests White Trucks predominate in most large fleets in the country.

Faithfully, year in and year out, a White can be relied on to do your work at a big saving per ton mile. It keeps, practically, in constant commission, and operates with mechanical perfection which is almost a "thinking" intelligence.

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It stays on the job, it defies the junk pile; it knocks into a cocked hat all previous ideas of motor truck "depreciation."

Efficiency reasons dispose of the laggards in all departments of the world's work. They explain the striking preponderance of White Trucks. Ask any White owner; he has figured it out in dollars and cents.

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LARGEST MANUFACTURERS OF COMMERCIAL MOTOR VEHICLES IN AMERICA

Since these illustrations appeared in the Scientific American advertisement, February 27th, it has been necessary to remake this plate because 111 trucks have been added to above fleets

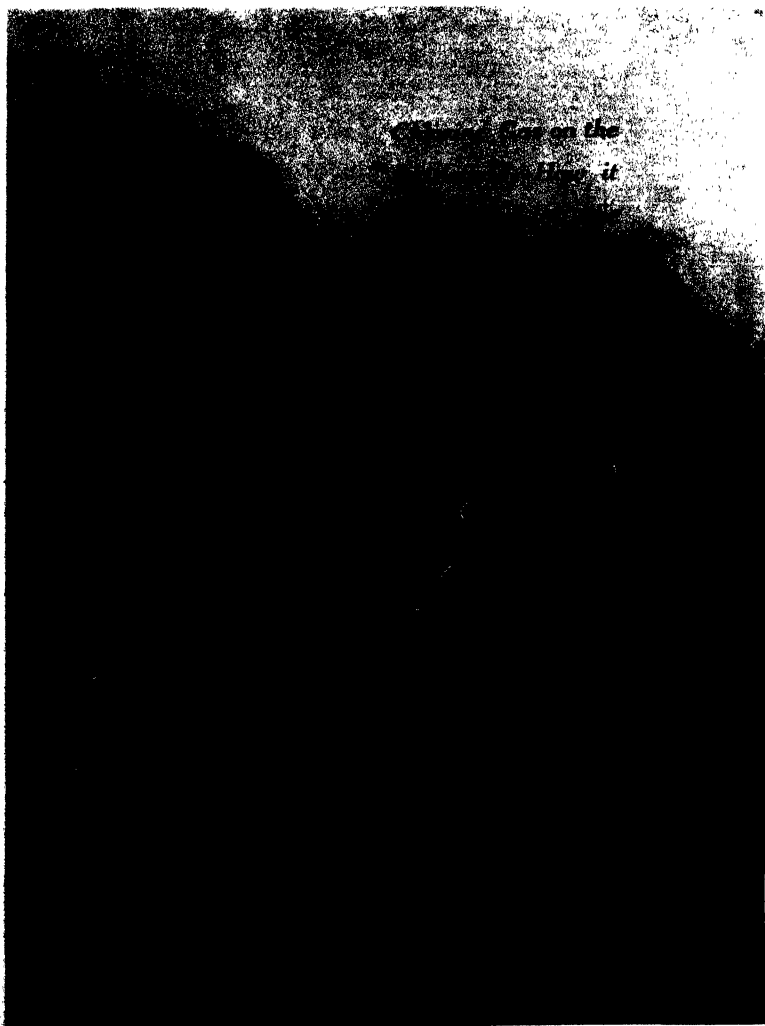
NOTE—In last 10 days 29 additional White trucks have been delivered, thus making total 140 in place of 111

New York Broadway at 62nd Street
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SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



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\$3.00 A Year



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TESLA

The
70th Anniversary
NUMBER of the
SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN
June 5th, 1915



ORVILLE WRIGHT



MARCONI

THE Scientific American was founded seventy years ago, at a time when the United States of America was industrially less developed than South Africa at the present time. Even territorially, it was not the same country we know now; for California, Texas, and the great Southwest belonged to Mexico.

During that long period of seventy years the Scientific American faithfully chronicled the technical and industrial progress which we Americans made. Its editors saw the advent of the reaper, the telegraph, the telephone, the great trans-con-



THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN OFFICE 1859

tinental railways, the laying of the transatlantic cable, the development of the giant steamship, the perfection of the phonograph, the glow of the first electric incandescent lamp, the coming of the motion picture machine, the miracles wrought by wireless telegraphy, and more recently the conquest of the air.

What an age of wonders it has been! What a transformation has been wrought upon the face of the earth! Surely no tale of the Arabian Nights, no fantasy of

Jules Verne depicts marvels so amazing as those which the Scientific American has been the first to describe authoritatively as soon as they appeared. Who would have thought, seventy years ago, that with the aid of the X-rays we could look through a man's body; that friend could talk with friend from New

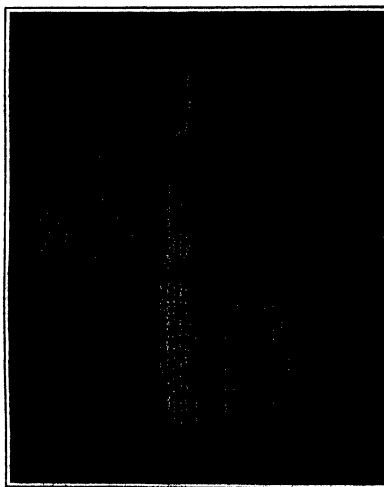
York to San Francisco; that Niagara Falls would illuminate cities; that street cars would move magically through our towns without any apparent means of propulsion; that pictures would be sent by wire from New York to Chicago, and that by means of the boundless ether a solitary passenger ship on a desolate ocean still keeps in touch with civilization.

It has been the privilege of the Editors of the Scientific American to know the men whose master minds have wrought these things, and to hear from their own lips the story of their struggles and their triumphs. Ericsson, Morse, Edison—the whole dynasty of inventive genius which has made the nation what it is—the editors have known them all.

Seventy years is a turning point not only in the life of man, but in the life of any enterprise. It seems fitting that the occasion should be commemorated by the publication of a number which will review the progress that the United States of America has made in the

three-score years and ten of our existence.

In June a number will appear which the Editors hope will do full justice to the great theme of American invention—a number which will transport us all back to the time when our fathers and our grandfathers still burned candles, when horses pulled street cars, when there were no automobiles and when the steam railway was a curiosity



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THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN OFFICE 1915

that people would travel miles to see. The motion picture machine of industrial progress will be turned backward, and the flickering film will make you wonder what the future will have in store if so much that is wonderful has happened in the past.

MUNN & COMPANY, Inc., Woolworth Building, New York



DAIMLER



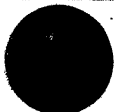
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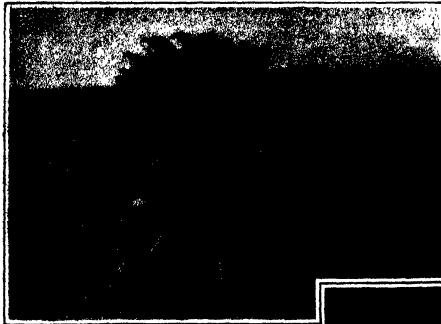
SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

VOLUME [CXL]
NUMBER 20

NEW YORK, MAY 15, 1915

[10 CENTS A COPY
\$3.00 A YEAR



Pens for small animals.

A Garden of Serpents

IN the Serotherapy Institute of Brazil, which occupies a tract of 700 acres at Riu de Janeiro, Dr. Vital Brasil produces serums for the cure and prevention of the effects of snake bites. The snakes used in preparing the serums are kept in a small park, containing numerous dome-shaped shelters, which is surrounded by a wall and a ditch filled with water. Other specimens are kept in a similar park, near the main building, in order to study their habits, favorite food, the very diverse venous properties of various species, and the best method of escaping their attacks. The hot and moist forests of Brazil swarm with venomous serpents, but the slightest noise alarms the peaceful and timid reptiles, which attack only those persons and animals that tread on them or destroy their lairs. The principal families are the Bothrops and the Crotalus, or rattlesnakes. The Bothrops venom decomposes the blood and produces internal hemorrhage, with intense congestion of the liver, kidneys, and brain, while the venom of the Crotalus paralyzes the respiration, circulation and vision, and usually causes death within 24 hours. Each venom requires its special antidote. Dr. Brasil prepares a serum for each and also polyvalent serums, which is effective against all Brazilian snake venoms, for use when the species of the attacking snake is unknown.

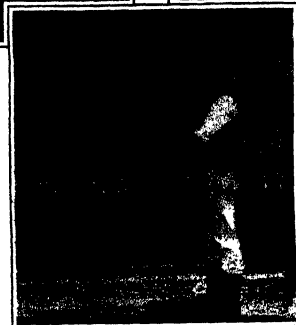
The serums are obtained from young and sound horses and asses, which receive, at intervals of 5 or 6 days, injections of venom, increasing from one twentieth milligramme to one gramme. A year's treatment is required to produce perfect immunity and an effective serum. The polyvalent serum is obtained by injecting the venoms of Bothrops and Crotalus alternately. The animals thus immunized furnish anti-venom serum for a long time, if they receive a fresh injection of venom after each extraction of serum. Tubes of serum, with hypodermic syringes, are sent gratuitously to hospitals, municipalities and poor patients. Others are sold at low prices or exchanged for live snakes. In 1913 about 900 tubes of rattlesnake serum, 800 of Bothrops serum, and 4,500 of polyvalent serum were distributed, and 4,500 snakes were received. Serums for pest, diphtheria, and tetanus also are produced by the usual methods.

In the course of his study of Brazilian serpents, Dr. Vital Brasil has discovered a non-venomous constrictor snake, the *mesaspis*, which is naturally immune to snake venom, and which kills venomous snakes by crushing them in its coils, and then devouring them.

It is a remarkable fact that the serum prepared by Dr. Brasil, Dr. Calmette, the originator of the serum treatment for snake bites, has been used against the venom of Brazilian snakes. *Continued on page 21*

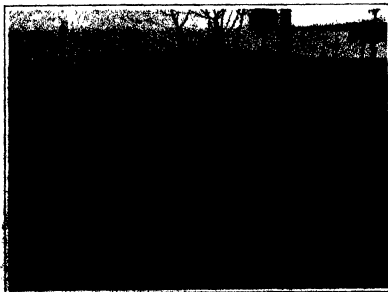


The garden of serpents.



Capturing a venomous snake with a forked stick.

A Bird Mystery.—One of the most curious and interesting of the unsolved problems relating to bird migration, according to Mr. W. W. Cooke's recent memoir on this subject, is connected with the chimney "swallow," a very common and well-known bird of the eastern United States. After the breeding season the flocks drift slowly south and concentrate in vast numbers on the northern coast of the Gulf of Mexico. Then they disappear as completely as if they hibernated under the water or in the mud, according to the old belief regarding birds in general. The last week in March they appear again on the Gulf coast. "Their hiding place during the intervening five months," says Mr. Cooke, "is still the swift's secret." (Chapman's "Handbook" says that they winter in Central America.)



Some inmates of the Garden of Serpents.

High-speed Stars

IN order to obtain more exact figures in connection with the sun's motion through space and other similar problems, astronomers are measuring the velocity and direction of a great number of stars, which, like the telegraph poles along a railroad track, seem to go rapidly backward as we move forward.

The fact that these stars have motions of their own complicates the case considerably, for the "fixed stars" are known to be moving in great streams and change their positions not only in relation to our solar system, but also in relation to each other.

The motion of a star naturally resolves itself into two parts: one measured along the line of sight representing its amount of approach toward us or its retreat, the other measured at right angles to a line drawn from the star to the observer.

The first of these motions is measured by a study of changes in the star's spectrum, the second by comparing its position as measured accurately at dates many years apart.

The velocity of a star seems to be a factor of its effective age. Unlike our ordinary human experience, the speed of a star increases with its advancing years, and in the whirl of spheres above us it is the young who cannot keep the pace.

The average velocity of stars ranges from about 6 kilometers, or between three and four miles, per second for "young" stars to about 30 kilometers per second for "old" ones. But notable exceptions occur. At Mount Wilson Solar Observatory of the Carnegie Institution some stars have been found to move with velocities of 141, 150, 170, 223, 316 and even 325 kilometers per second, the highest speed yet known.

These high velocity stars are sometimes described as runaways, because they seem to be quite beyond the control of the gravitational power of the universe. At their speed the attraction of the entire known stellar system would be wholly insufficient to check the star's career through space.

The astronomer, Simon Newcomb, once calculated that the maximum velocity attainable by a body starting with velocity zero at an infinite distance and passing through a stellar system containing one hundred million stars each five times as massive as our sun and distributed throughout a disk-like spheroid of certain extent cannot exceed 40 kilometers per second. Yet the star "Vincennes" has a speed nearly nine times this value, and the massive star Arcturus has a speed probably four times this value.

If existing velocities owe their magnitudes to the gravitation of the system, the quantity of attracting matter in the whole stellar system would have to be at least eighty times that assumed by the calculations of Prof. Newcomb.

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Munn & Co., Inc., 233 Broadway, New York

The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles on subjects of timely interest. If the photographs are sharp the articles short, and the facts accurate, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular space rates.

The purpose of this paper is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

The President and Our People

AS our readers very well know, during the heart-rendering struggle which has been taking place in Europe during these many months, the *Scientific American's* attitude has been one of neutrality. It has endeavored to follow out strictly the injunction of the President at the outbreak of the war. It has witnessed with concern and with feelings of horror the many acts which have been committed in the name of war. It has felt that it was the part of every American citizen, however, to refrain from showing any active partisanship in this crisis. During the last few weeks, however, the attitude of the war has changed, and not only the feeling but the demand for a strict moral neutrality has been disturbed by certain acts of the Teutonic allies, which cannot be excused or palliated. We refer, of course, to the attacks which have been made upon shipping of neutral nations. Ships of the United States, Holland, Sweden, and Norway have been sunk without warning, and the flag of these countries has been no protection against these acts of depredation. The people of this country have viewed with the gravest anxiety the apparent systematic policy of the German government to carry out its Imperial will irrespective of the rights of nations or of individuals. The horror following the sinking without warning of the "Lusitania" only emphasizes the shocking character of the situation. It has seemed to be a war of arms against arms and depredations in a war against civilians and women and children, no matter of what nationality?

This is the first instance in the history of mankind where a regular transatlantic liner, filled with civilians of many nationalities, has been deliberately sunk on the high seas, and this act was committed, not after allowing innocent women and children to escape in lifeboats, but wantonly and wickedly without allowing the victims of the weapon of destruction any chance for their lives. It cannot be claimed that this act was the irresponsible whim of the commander of the submarine, for an advertisement appeared in the American press prior to the sailing of the "Lusitania" warning passengers against sailing on the high seas. It would seem evident from this warning that this horror is the result of the deliberate policy of the Imperial will.

During the first months of the war the Imperial government sent its apologies to this country to try and explain away the crime against Belgium and the wanton destruction of ships and the choicest works of art of Europe, but their arguments and pleas failed to convince, because our people felt that such matters could not be solved by the thumb rule of a lawyer's brief. Our people do not accept as a modulate the claim that "war is war." They have the highest respect for and belief in the justice of international law, but such a code has limitations which do not harmonize with the ideals of the American people, who realize that there is a higher law—the law of humanity and civilization—which is being outraged and trampled upon. And it is for that reason, and in spite of the calm and generally neutral attitude of the American press, that underneath there has been a strong current of opinion among the American people, which absolutely condemns the methods of war now being conducted by the Teutonic allies. The *Scientific American* wishes to enter its protest against these acts. It feels for the future of civilization if such acts are accepted under any plea which does violence to the accepted codes of warfare.

In this country there are some 10,000,000 of American citizens of German birth or German descent. They may

be considered among our most enlightened, intelligent, and staunch citizens. At the time of our civil war they rendered inestimable service to the cause of the Union. They form an integral part of our body politic. It would be a poor thing, indeed, who would begrudge any native-born German the love of the country of his birth, but to such, as well as to native-born Americans, who have become imbued with the American spirit, we would appeal in the name of civilization and humanity that some effort be made to bring home to the friends on the other side a realization that the methods of war now being followed are entirely out of keeping with the ideals of liberty and the rights of humanity which this United States of America holds as its cherished possession. A grave responsibility rests upon the President of the United States at this crisis. It is a fortunate thing for the people of this United States that they are at the head of the Government one in whom they have every confidence, who all through this long and painful struggle has shown a wisdom, a justice, a conscientiousness, and a high-mindedness which have evoked the admiration of all American citizens. The rights of our citizens are being abused, the rights of humanity are being violated, and what course is it possible for us to assume? This we leave in your hands, Mr. President. It is against the traditions of the Union that we feel for us to engage in any European conflict, the policy of our Government for the last one hundred and twenty-five years has been so shaped that we are not prepared to engage in such a conflict; it is not our purpose or our wish. The establishment of a large standing army is contrary to the spirit of our people. We have neither the army nor equipment necessary for war, even did our wishes incline in such a direction, so that such a policy is hardly to be entertained. Our fleet would be of little, if any, service in this invisible marine warfare. We are content to leave in your hands, Mr. President, the shaping of the course which this great nation should pursue, feeling that the rights of its citizens will be fully protected, and that its reputation for honor, for fair dealing and dignity will not be allowed to suffer.

To the Hon. Joseph Daniels, Secretary of the Navy

WE have received from you a copy of a letter written by you to President Garfield at Williams College on the subject of the preparations of the Navy, and in your letter of transmission you state that it occurs to you that we would be interested in this letter.

The letter does interest us exceedingly, partly as a statement of the excellent work which has been done for the Navy under your administration, but far more as a revelation of the spirit in which you are conducting the duties of the high office to which you were called, and which you now fill.

We have read your letter through more than once, and very carefully, and we have to confess that the strong impression left upon our minds is that you are more concerned to prove that the work done under your administration in building up and improving the Navy has been superior to that done under the previous administration than you are to show whether our Navy is in the condition of strength and preparedness relatively to the other navies of the world which the present very serious international situation demands.

To bring home to your mind why we consider that your point of view is rather the narrow political than the broadly patriotic one, we quote from your letter. You say: "What has been done since Wilson's inauguration to make the Navy stronger, in ships, in ammunition, in mines, in torpedoes? These questions are of the utmost importance. Let me answer them briefly: First as to the ships. During the last two years of the Taft Administration, Congress authorized the construction of two dreadnoughts to cost about \$13,000,000 each. During the first two years of the Wilson Administration, upon my recommendation, Congress authorized the construction of five dreadnoughts to cost about \$14,000,000 each." (We cannot forbear to remind you, just here, that one of those dreadnoughts was secured at the cost of two existing battleships of our Navy, the "Idaho" and the "Mississippi," which were sold to Greece.) "Stated in dollars, the Wilson Administration in its first two years authorized \$70,000,000 to be spent on the chief fighting force of the Navy as against \$26,000,000 authorized during the last two years of Taft's; and so forth and so on.

Again, speaking of submarines, you say: "The Sixty-third Congress elected with Wilson adopted my recommendation to give us all the money it could for submarines. . . . Those submarines will cost \$10,268,572. Now, what was done during the last two years under Taft? Twelve submarines to cost \$7,065,898 were authorized."

And again, under the heading of "The Savings Effect," you say: "During the four years of Taft, \$21,028,572 was appropriated by Congress for the public work alone of shore stations. Two naval bills have

been passed for the purpose of increasing the navy's efficiency, for the purpose of increasing the navy's efficiency, for the purpose of increasing the navy's efficiency.

Finally, in the last paragraph of your letter, President Garfield, you make a statement which is so broad and bold proposition seems to involve you, you look at this subject as a political rather than a national problem. You say that one of the reasons for the length of your letter is: "Because certain persons, ignorant of their ignorance, and for selfish reasons, have burdened themselves with misrepresenting the true conditions of the Navy, thereby giving some good people to fear that the Navy is not now as in the past, the strong, effective, right arm of the republic."

It is to be inferred from such a statement that you are of the belief that no one can criticize the naval policy of your administration except from political motives?

The interest of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, and of every person, technical or otherwise, in the United States Navy, and the interest of 90 per cent of the citizens of the great country in the Navy, is a patriotic one, and it has nothing whatever to do with politics.

The American public cares not one jot or tittle whether the Wilson Administration or the Taft Administration is in power, or whether any Administration has done more or less than preceding or following Administrations have done, but it does care very much, indeed, whether the party in power is taking a broad and statesmanlike view of the situation; whether it is endeavoring to build our Navy up to a condition of strength and keep it in a state of preparedness, which will enable it to safeguard the vital interests of this country.

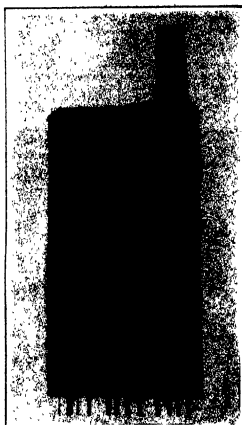
For many years the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* has claimed that the root trouble with the Navy is that the question of appropriations has been made a political one; that Congress, instead of regarding the matter of naval and military preparation as a vital one to be placed far above all party politics, has preferred, year after year, to throw the recommendations of its naval experts into the pot, and to let the chances of the Pension Bill, the River and Harbor Bill, and the whole of those purely local and individual questions which make up the contents of what, not very euphonically but very aptly, has been termed the "Pork Barrel." Whether Congress may realize the fact or not, there is no doubt whatever that the nation at large has awakened to the fact that our naval and military forces are totally inadequate for the onerous duties which are liable at any time to be laid upon them. The American people have learned the lesson of this terrible European war. They realize that the question of adequate armament is one affecting the very life and death of the nation. We believe that the whole country is in a frame of mind to treat this question as such, and we are perfectly certain that the very first thing that they care about, or wish to hear about, is whether the Wilson Administration or the Taft Administration spent the larger or the smaller number of dollars and added the larger or the smaller number of ships to our naval resources in a given length of time.

Somebody has defined genius as the possession of a strong sense of proportion, and we cannot help but feel that in this hour of stress and danger there is a strong call for genius of this stamp.

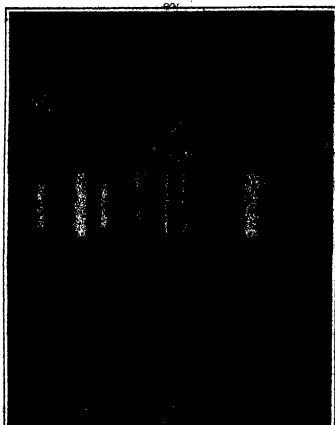
Cannanning and the Weather

THAT wet winter in Europe has brought forth the meritable suggestion from many quarters that the cannanning incidental to the war had something to do with it. The excessive rainfall, as compared with the normal, appears, however, to have been greater in the British Isles than on the Continent; in other words, not only at a considerable distance from the main theater of war, but also to windward of it. British rainfall during November to February was about 50 per cent above the normal. As to the Continent, Orville M. Flannery points out that October, 1914, was a dry and sunny month, in spite of the tremendous battles then in progress; that the rainy periods during the winter extended—exactly as in the tipping times of peace—with the advent of cyclonic disturbances from the Atlantic Ocean; and that the recent rains are by no means without precedent in normal times. The veteran astronomer cautiously adds, however, that we must not be hasty in drawing conclusions either pro or con.

Concrete Gasometer Work.—Reinforced concrete is now coming into successful use in the construction of gasometer basins. A large example of the use of concrete is noted in a circular basin of this kind which was recently built at St. Sebastian, Spain, and it is the first example to be found in that country. Diameter is about 80 feet, and height of basin 30 feet. Around the basin are enlargements in the shape of buttresses. In order to add to the strength of the construction, and such buttresses serve as the bases for the gasometer. Iron beams which go in to support the gasometer and support the gas-burners.



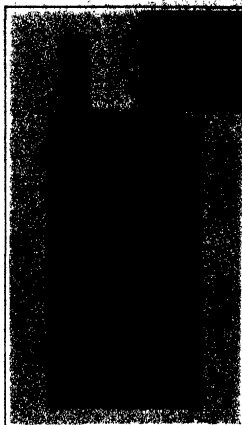
Positive plate containing tubes of saked nickel.
Note sparing strips in front of the plate.



Stripping off the electro-deposited sheet 1/64th inch thick. 250 layers of copper and nickel, from which the copper later is dissolved.
Edison submarine boat storage battery.



Positive tube.



Negative plate; also magnified sectional view of a loaded tube.

Marconi's Wireless Telephone

By J. Andrew White

AFLEET of war vessels going into action with the admiral transmitting orders to his captains by word of mouth is the latest wonder promised in wireless communication. Following many rumors that a practicable wireless telephone was being quietly developed by Marconi, definite announcement has just been made that the Italian Navy has adopted the instrument and the British Admiralty has been conducting tests aboard English vessels. One instrument has already arrived in this country and communication has been established between New York and Philadelphia.

How great will be the distances spanned is not yet definitely stated, but it is reported that Marconi has expressed confidence in his ability to transmit audible speech across the Atlantic by multiplying the power and modifying the design of the present apparatus. It is possible that this feat may be accomplished when foreign conditions are again adjusted to normal. It would not be, as generally reported, wholly a scientific demonstration, for recent developments have given to transatlantic wireless telephony apparatus that would make it commercially practicable under ordinary business conditions. The short distance wireless telephone, however, will not wait for the end of the war. It is expected to become available for commercial use within a few months and will have a guaranteed range of at least thirty miles between ships at sea carrying aereals 100 feet high and with 200-foot span between masts.

Unlike the wire telephone with its slight diaphragm distortions of the voice, the wireless instrument reproduces remarkably clear speech, and, if preferred, speech of equal quality but considerably stronger than that obtained with the wire telephone.

The wireless transmitter consists of a specially constructed valve which controls the current and is shunted with condensers and self-induction coils so as to produce a continuous stream of oscillations. The frequency of these oscillations is controlled through the variable eddy condensers, shown in the illustration in front of the transmitting valve. The oscillations of wave energy produced by the valve being continuous, of high frequency and of constant amplitude, no sound is heard in the receiver, even if the latter is placed but a hundred yards away.

The variation required to transmit the tones of speech is secured by means of a microphone or sound magnifier, a method of connection with which permits this instrument and the receiving telephone to be placed in the captain's quarters or chart room while the apparatus itself remains in the wireless cabin. The change-over switch may also be controlled from a distance and with one operation it switches the instrument from talking to listening position.

An 80-ampere hour accumulator is provided for the low voltage current used to heat the filaments of the valves and four cases of

dry cells connected in series give the high tension 500-volt current necessary for the vacuum of the transmitting valve. The usual value of the vacuum current being from 10 to 20 milliamperes it is sufficiently small to make practical the use of dry cells for intermittent purposes.

Through tuning, as in wireless telegraphy, it is possible to select the particular receiving station wanted, and adjusting to the series of waves emitted, exclude all other stations which happen to be sending within the range of influence at the same time.

Edison Submarine Boat Storage Battery

By Herbert T. Wade

THE extensive use of submarines in naval warfare has directed attention to their weakness as well as their strength and usefulness, emphasized perhaps by the recent and tragic disabling of the United States submarine "F-4" in Honolulu harbor, with the loss of its crew. A submarine, when operating below the surface, naturally cannot make use of a gasoline internal combustion motor to drive its propellers, but employs electricity from a storage battery; therefore, any improvements working for increased power and efficiency in the storage battery must act to the advantage and safety of the submarine, increasing both the facility of its operation and its radius of under-water action from its present limits of about 100 miles by some 50 per cent and reducing materially the danger

of asphyxiation of the crew. In a submarine, economy of weight and space, contamination of breathing air, the necessity for ventilation, care of the cells, and the durability are peculiar and special considerations. Until quite recently, the type of accumulator employed was the familiar lead-sulphuric acid storage battery with tandem plate, open-jar construction, with hard rubber cells, housed in a lead-lined battery tank. With such an arrangement not infrequently the electrolyte would be spilled, and so care is exercised to prevent the angle of diving from running much over 15 degrees, and to maintain as level a keel as possible to avoid spilling the acid, for should there be a break in the lead tank, the sulphuric acid would straightaway attack the steel plates of adjoining ballast or fuel tanks or bulkheads. Furthermore, in the presence of sulphuric acid, seawater is decomposed and chlorine gas with its dangerous fumes is produced; while the acid attacking the gasoline fuel tanks, naturally may lead to the escape of gasoline. Both the chlorine fumes and gasoline vapor are not only disagreeable, but positively dangerous. Thus on the United States submarine "E-2" in the autumn of 1914 while at sea on her way from Newport News to New York, the escaping chlorine fumes seriously affected the crew despite prompt measures for their relief. About the same time, when the battery tank of one of the D submarines was inspected, it was found to contain gasoline in substantial and dangerous amounts as a result of the fuel tanks being eaten away by acid. Consequently, the elimination of lead-sulphuric acid storage cells on a submarine, and their replacement by a battery, where the electrolyte does not attack, but actually preserves steel, and where the electrolyte can be mixed with seawater without dangerous effect, is naturally a distinct advance and advantage.

The fundamental principle of the Edison storage battery as now being installed on a United States submarine, in which these advantages are realized, is the oxidation and reduction of metals in an electrolyte which does not dissolve the metals and will not combine either with them or their oxides. This electrolyte when decomposed by the action of the battery is immediately reformed in equal quantity, and unlike the sulphuric acid solution, is, therefore, practically constant, without change of density or conductivity over long periods of time. The active elements of the battery are nickel and hydrogen, employed not in the form of metal, but as nickel hydrate and iron oxide, carried in perforated pockets or tubes. The electrolyte is a 21 per cent solution of potassium hydrate, with a small amount of lithium hydrate added. As only a small quantity of the electrolyte is necessary, this permits a very close proximity of the plates.

Where the Edison storage battery exhibits special adaptability and advantage for use on submarines is in saving weight; being much lighter than other batteries of equal capacity, so that this difference can be applied to the

(Continued on page 451.)



The Marconi wireless telephone.

What Is Matter Made Of?

Resemblance of the Atom Structure to an Infinitely Small Solar System

By Arthur H. Compton

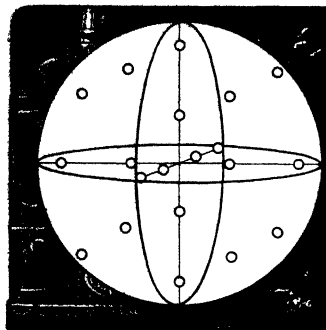


Fig. 1.—Diagram illustrating Lord Kelvin's theory of electrons.

BY the general acceptance of the molecular theory of matter and of the combination of atoms into molecules the scientists of the last century made a long step toward the solution of that greatest of physical problems, the constitution of matter. It has remained for the scientists of the present century to probe still deeper and investigate the structure of the atom itself. For a long time the atom was considered to be the ultimate unit of matter. Not until the demonstration of the existence of the electron, at the dawn of the present century, was matter suspected of being still further divisible. The discovery, however, of a particle one eighteenth hundredth the mass of a hydrogen atom, showed that not even the atom could be a unit, but must be a system of some sort. Ever since this discovery it has been recognized that the atom must be explained in terms of electricity. The problem has been to devise a model, made up of electrons and sufficient positive electricity, which will have the properties an atom is known to possess.

The construction of such a model atom is complicated by the fact that, though a natural unit of negative electricity is known in the electron, no corresponding unit of positive electricity has ever been found. It is true that very small positively charged particles are known, such as the alpha particles which are given off by radium, and the positively charged particles in "canal rays," but these, instead of carrying a charge equal to an electronic unit, carry, in general, some multiple of that charge. It is this positive charge in the atom that has been hardest to explain, and about which the discussion has chiefly centered.

There have been a large number of explanations offered, but the first of value was that of Lord Kelvin. His idea was that the positive electricity is uniformly distributed throughout a sphere whose radius is the radius of the atom. The electrons move about within this sphere under the attraction of the positive electricity and the repulsion of the other electrons, as in Fig. 1. This model is particularly interesting because the attraction of the electrons toward the center of the sphere varies directly as their distance from the center, just as the weight of a body within the earth's crust is proportional to its distance from the center of the earth. It was on account of the simplicity of the mathematical representation of an atom with this law of force that Lord Kelvin suggested such a model. He did not intend it to represent the actual structure of the atom, so we are not surprised to find that recent experiments show this model to be impossible.

The other most important model of an atom has been suggested by Prof. Sir Ernest Rutherford. He imagines an atom to be built up like a solar system on an extremely small scale (Fig. 2). The positive electricity is concentrated into a very small nucleus, which takes the place of the sun, and the negative electrons revolve about this like planets. It seems probable that they are arranged in rings, like the rings of Saturn. The extreme simplicity of such a model is a strong point in its favor if it will work. At a lecture before the Franklin Institution at Philadelphia, Prof. Rutherford gave the following summary of some experiments which have shown evidence as to the structure of the atom.

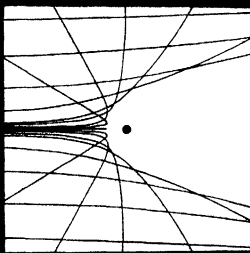


Fig. 2.—Paths of alpha particles in relation to a positive nucleus.

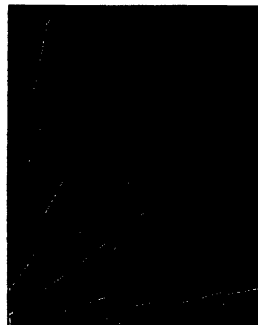


Fig. 4.—Paths of alpha particles through watery vapor.

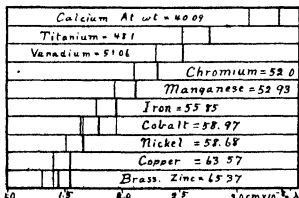


Fig. 5.—X-ray spectra of ten metals, according to Moseley.

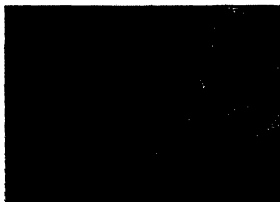


Fig. 6.—Paths of alpha particles.

These experiments have not only supported his theory, but they have enabled him to count the number of electrons in the atoms of the different elements and to tell some of the properties of the positive nucleus.

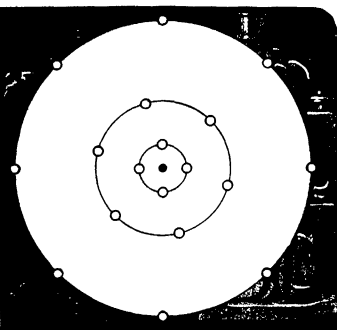


Fig. 3.—Diagram illustrating Prof. Rutherford's idea of an atom.

Possibly the most striking confirmation of his theory of the atom comes from the passage of alpha particles through matter. Alpha particles are the positively charged corpuscles shot off with extremely high velocity by radioactive substances. They are given off with a certain definite velocity, about a fifteenth that of light, and will travel through a definite thickness of gas, or even through a thin piece of solid matter. Fig. 4 shows some remarkable photographs obtained by Prof. C. T. R. Wilson, showing the paths of these particles through water vapor. It may be seen that as they pass through the vapor the greater part of their path is straight. It can easily be shown, however, that during this motion the particle must pass through myriads of atoms. Now an alpha particle is known to unite with two electrons to form a helium atom, it is, in other words, a helium atom with a double positive charge. So if we consider the atom to be continuous spheres of definite diameter, as these positively charged helium atoms pass through the atoms of vapor we have the extremely interesting phenomenon of two different bodies occupying the same space at the same time. In order to account for the fact that these particles pass through such long distances without being moved from their path by collisions it is necessary to conclude that both the alpha particles themselves and the centers with which they collide shall be very small—much smaller than the atom itself. We are therefore limited to the idea that the charge must be concentrated on a very small nucleus. Let us see what we can find out about the properties of this nucleus.

In order to place an upper limit upon its diameter an experiment was tried to see how close the alpha particles could come to the centers of collision in the atoms. When these particles are discharged onto a solid surface most of them are absorbed, but a small proportion are reflected from the surface, some of them straight back from the way they came. It is as though a gunner were shooting at a target until it was riddled with holes, when suddenly a bullet would bounce back at him with almost its original velocity. The gunner would probably be surprised enough to hunt the reason for this unusual event. It is none the less surprising that these little particles should rebound, for these projectiles strike the target at ten thousand miles instead of a few thousand feet per second, and only one in thousands is reflected back on its course. There must be some powerful force acting which will cause such a sudden change in velocity.

This force is found to be none other than the electric repulsion between the positively charged alpha particles and the positive nucleus of the atom. As in Fig. 2, if the particle passes at a noticeable distance from the nucleus, its course is not changed because of its high velocity, but if it comes very near, it is deflected away in a hyperbolic curve. By measuring the number of alpha particles which are scattered at different angles by different substances, it is possible to calculate both the forces acting and the distances between the two positive charges when they are closest together. It is found that if each nucleus is given a mass of an ounce, on this scale their centers would come closer than half a thousandth of an inch of each other, and the electric

repulsion between the two particles would be in tone one with thirty-four eiphers after it. No wonder the particles fly away from each other with such terrific speed after a collision! The forces acting indicate that there is a positive charge on the nucleus of the atom equal to about one half the atomic weight, measured in electronic units. Thus the heavy elements have a greater charge on their positive nuclei than have the light ones. But possibly a still more interesting deduction is that in an extreme case, when the nuclei of two hydrogen atoms collide, the distance between their centers is considerably less than the diameter of an electron. We must conclude, therefore, that the nucleus of the hydrogen atom, though much heavier, is considerably smaller than an electron.

Let us consider the charge on the nucleus from another standpoint. In a recent article in the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* SUPPLEMENT I described some remarkable photographs taken by Mr. H. G. J. Moseley, showing the X-ray spectra of a number of different elements. Fig. 5 shows the spectra of the rays given off by some of these elements when used as the target of an X-ray bulb. The most striking thing about these photographs is the remarkable similarity of the spectra of the different elements. It will be seen that the wave-length of the rays increases uniformly as we pass from the heavier to the lighter elements. This, of course, corresponds to a decrease in the frequency of vibration. In fact, Mr. Moseley showed that the square root of the frequency corresponding to the more prominent line in these spectra changes by a constant difference as we pass from element to element in the order of their atomic weights. It is the inner ring of electrons in an atom, such as shown in Fig. 3, whose vibration cause the lines shown in these spectra. The greater the charge on the nucleus the more firmly are the electrons held in their orbits, so that they naturally vibrate with greater rapidity. So this regular increase in frequency is easily explained if we consider the atomic nucleus of each element to carry a greater electric charge than the nucleus of the element next lighter, which is in accord with what we found in the scattering of alpha particles. Is a little calculation it is easy to show that, in order to account for the shift in these spectral lines, the charge on the nucleus must change by one electronic unit as we go from one element to the next. There are a good many reasons for believing that the charge on the nucleus of a hydrogen atom is one, so that the charge on the positive nucleus of an element is Ze , where Z is the number of the element in the order of atomic weights counting hydrogen as one helium as two, etc., and e is the electronic unit of electricity. For the electrically neutral atom this of course means that there are Z electrons revolving about the nucleus. Thus, if zinc is the thirtieth element, the charge on its nucleus is $30e$, and there are thirty electrons revolving about the nucleus in orbits. This is in good agreement with what we found by the scattering of alpha particles, that the charge on the nucleus is equal to about half the atomic weight of the element for the atomic weight of zinc is 65, which would make the charge on its nucleus about $32e$.

The determination of the mass of the nucleus presents no difficulties. The mass of the whole atom is well known as is also that of the Z electrons which are revolving about its nucleus so that of the nucleus is simply the difference between the two. The mass of the electron is so small, however, that the nucleus may be taken to possess the whole mass of the atom without sensible error.

The accurate estimation of the size of the nucleus carries with it an explanation of the mass of the atom. If we take the hydrogen atom as the simplest example, the charge on the nucleus is $4+$. So in order that it shall be electrically neutral, the atom must contain one electron. The mass of the electron is known as it is tried in nature. That is, when it moves it sets up a electric current whose self-induction gives it a kind of inertia. By making the wire which carries a current fine enough it can be given any desired amount of self-induction, and similarly if a charged particle is made sufficiently small it can be given any desired amount of electric inertia or mass. But it seems very improbable that the mass of the atom should be of two kinds, partly electrical and partly of some different, unknown nature. So as we know that at least a part of its mass is electrical, it seems only reasonable to explain the rest in the same way. In order to do this it is only necessary to assign to the hydrogen nucleus a diameter of one sixteenth of that of the electron, and on account of the extreme minuteness of the nucleus as shown by collisions with alpha particles, this does not seem improbable. It is easy to see how the nuclei of heavier atoms might be made up of a group of these hydrogen nuclei, and still act as point charges when battered by alpha particles. In this way the mass of all matter is explained, and due to the well understood phenomenon of electro-magnetic induction.

We have thus not only determined the charge on the nucleus of the atom, but from a knowledge of its mass

we have estimated its size as well. For a hydrogen atom these quantities are approximately:

Charge on nucleus = $e = 4.7 \times 10^{-10}$ e. s. units.

Mass of nucleus = 1.6×10^{-24} grammes.

Radius of nucleus = 1.0×10^{-12} centimetres.

Knowing the size and mass of the nucleus, we find its density to be 3.8×10^{14} , which is inconceivably greater than that of the heaviest element. In order to form an idea of what these figures mean, let us construct a model of an oxygen atom on a large scale, considering its nucleus to weigh a ton. As its atomic weight is sixteen, we may expect its nucleus to contain sixteen hydrogen nuclei. These will be represented by positively charged particles, each weighing over a hundred pounds, but so small as to look like the finest dust. Since oxygen is the eighth element in the order of atomic weights, its nucleus will have a positive charge of eight, so the nucleus will contain also eight electrons, which will neutralize half of the sixteen positive charges. These electrons will be represented by grains of fine sand, each weighing an ounce, and the whole nucleus will be a very small fraction of an inch in diameter. Of the eight electrons revolving about the nucleus, the inner ring will be similar grains of sand travelling with tremendous speed at a distance of a few inches, while the outer ring will be at a distance of several feet. The nucleus of the other atom of the oxygen molecule will be a yard away, and the next molecule of the gas will be about a rod off. Looking at it in another way, if a hydrogen nucleus were as large as the sun, the nucleus of the next atom would be at the distance of one of the nearest fixed stars.

Besides giving us a great deal of definite information as to the structure of the atom, these investigations have opened up new lines for study. What is the force

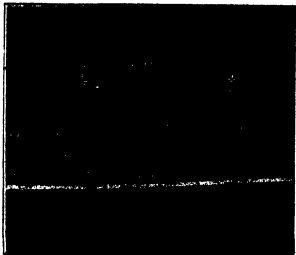


Fig. 7.—Path of an alpha particle.

which binds together the different parts of the nuclei of heavy atoms? Is it not possible that the tremendous energy of a radioactive discharge may be explained as due to the instability of this force in complicated atoms? What arrangement of the electrons about the nucleus will explain the physical and chemical properties of the atom as we know them? Questions such as these we may expect to have answered in the near future now that we have a definite idea as to the general structure of the atom.

Chlorine Gas on the Battlefield

IN the evolution of warfare there has been continually an increasing use of forces farther and farther from the direct use of muscular power. This is the same line of progress as that shown in industrial development. An increased use of machines, the applications of physical forces as they become known through scientific study, and in general the gradual substitution of natural forces controlled by mind for the muscular exertion of earlier times.

Many of the operations of war are the same in their essence as those of peace, the organization of transportation, the supplying of food and water, transmission of intelligence by all sorts of methods, the application of sanitation and medical service and many other activities of war are similar to those of peace and they call upon all available knowledge of mechanics, physics, chemistry and bacteriology.

The methods of destruction also call upon knowledge from most of the arts and sciences, and each step in their evolution is a further application of scientific knowledge.

In the present European war the application of such knowledge seems to be reaching the utmost limit of ingenuity. It may almost be called a chemist and physicist war with its application of physics in aerial navigation and its use of submarines, of telephones, wireless telegraphy, searchlights, and range-finders, and the application of chemistry in the manufacture of its many explosives, the manufacture of hydrogen for airships, its illuminating bombs and flares and latest of

all in the manufacture of poisonous gases for use in tactical purposes.

The reports which have been received seem to show that the gas so far used is chlorine. The greenish yellow color, the strong smell, the great density of the gas causing it to flow along the ground are indications of chlorine. The symptoms shown by its victims are those exhibited by persons who have been poisoned by chlorine in industrial accidents; that is great irritation of the mucous membranes, bronchitis, and sudden death by a narcotic action in the most severe cases.

If chlorine is the gas which was used, it must have reached the trenches in a concentrated form to cause death unless the death was due in part to psychological effects, for to produce death rapidly it is necessary that the air breathed shall contain at least one part of chlorine in 1,000 of air. Long exposure to air containing 1 part of chlorine per 100,000 is dangerous and even smaller amounts are troublesome.

It is of some interest to know how much chlorine is needed to be effective. On the supposition that there is a breeze of 4 miles per hour and that it takes two minutes to empty the containers holding the chlorine, the drift of air during that time would be about 700 feet, to charge the lower three feet of this air current with chlorine to a concentration of 1 to 1,600 would require about 8 cubic feet, or one pound for each yard, or something like one ton per mile. The chlorine gas could be obtained commercially compressed into liquid form in cylinders for 5 to 8 cents a pound, and as a by-product in the electrolytic manufacture of hydrogen for balloons it may well be of low value.

Under proper conditions then it is quite feasible to use this inexpensive and powerful offensive weapon. But the conditions must be right. Too strong a breeze would diffuse the gas, a variable wind or calm would injure the user. It would hardly be safe to use the gas unless the battle line were straight or convex toward the enemy since otherwise the fumes would be apt to drift in part over the user's own lines.

And then undoubtedly effective preventive or antidotal measures can be used. A specimen of cold water with water of better with some basic substance like cooking soda or borax kept ready to put over the face might hold off the danger and more special respirators charged with basic substances or with reducing agents like oxalates or sodium hyposulphite might enable the attacked force to live over the worst of the attack.

There are several other poisonous gases besides chlorine which might be used, of which the following may be mentioned: hydrocyanic acid, sulphur dioxide, arsine, carbon disulphide, hydrogen sulphide, the oxides of nitrogen and bromine vapor. From the field of organic chemistry could be taken the acetyl compounds and the isocyanides.

Since several of these do not act at once they are probably not suitable as the effect to be produced is not so much actual poisoning as the forcing of an opening for an attack in the ordinary way. Some of them are too light to flow readily along the ground and are less suitable.

Probably sulphur dioxide and bromine might be used in a similar way to chlorine as they are extremely irritating, act at once, and are heavy. But they could be absorbed by respirators similar to those effective for chlorine. Sulphur dioxide is colorless, and on that account not to be detected by the eyes, but it is not as dangerous as either chlorine or bromine.

While the use of poisonous gases has been spoken of as in the line of evolution of warfare, since it is an application of advanced knowledge, the thought comes that in view of the apparent cruelty involved it can be used only when it is shown to be of great military value. It has been apparently of some military value temporarily, and is used against military forces and not against non-combatants and in that sense is perhaps more allowable than the dropping of bombs in cities or the bombardment of undefended towns. The war gases which seem most in line with this use of gases in war are the saw-toothed knife, the jagged spear, and the dum-dum bullet. With the perfection of preventive measures the tactical advantages may be removed and this barbarous application of scientific knowledge may not tempt the leaders of armies of so-called enlightened nations.

Cannibals Among Foxes.—The cannibalistic tendencies of foxes have proved a serious drawback to the valuable fur-raiding industry of Prince Edward Island, according to a recent consular report. Not only are the pups frequently eaten by their parents, but females are sometimes killed and partially eaten by their mates. As the adult animals are not so much in demand as the pups, this is a serious matter. A fox was found in the fitting den of the female and blipped neck of the male fox; this gives the female such an advantage, as a sign as to insure her safety, and also eliminates the danger of the teeth of the parent fox being caught in the skin of the pups when playing with them. Some foxes take a taste of blood which tends to make them more

Lesson of the Present War: A Technical Point of View

By HENRI DE MAN

THE main lesson of the present war is the importance of insurance against war by scientific preparation. Scientific preparation consists in the machinery of war, and preparation with men trained to the use of that machinery. This is an age of machinery, where hand-labor is largely replaced by labor-saving machinery. Labor-saving machinery applies to the work of war, just as large measure as it does to peaceful industries.

The lesson second in importance is that, after war comes upon a nation, there is no time to equip for the fray, and even if there were time it is not the right time, for the tremendous extravagance of preparing for war under the pressure of war is amazing.

Not one of the Allies in the present war was adequately prepared for the war. By consequence, it is necessary for them to pay most extravagant prices for all kinds of munitions of war. Had England, France, or Russia spent one quarter of what this extravagance has cost them during the present war, in preparation before the war, there would have been no war, and even had war come they would have been able to carry on the war without this great extravagance, and northern France and Belgium would not today be within the German lines.

Even had little Belgium prepared herself for this war as adequately as Switzerland keeps herself constantly prepared, she would have been able not only to retard the march of the Germans, but also to have held them back until support came from her allies.

England and France had pledged themselves to stand by Belgium. They should have been adequately prepared to defend that pledge by force of arms.

The lesson of the war next in importance is the fragility of treaties. Of course, all history has taught this lesson. It is a lesson that has been repeated in every generation. But it has been given such impress upon the minds of men of this generation that it is not likely again to be forgotten for the next century. The fact is, and all history supports the conclusion, that nations know no law but necessity, and can be made to obey no law except necessity, in time of war. The only way that international treaties can be made binding is for the majority of the nations of the world to sign them, and pledge themselves mutually to support them and enforce them. Then no one nation would dare to break a treaty, because by so doing she would bring a world in arms against her. She would, even then, be governed by her supreme necessity, because the necessity of observing the treaty would be greater than any other necessity.

I have treated upon the lessons of the present war at considerable length in my recent book, "Defenseless America," to which I respectfully refer the reader. Within the limits of the present article I can merely touch upon the main points.

The next important lesson of the war is the unreliability of all prospects of the pacifists who have told us for the past quarter of a century that human nature had so much improved in recent years, and international brotherhood had become so dominant, and civilization of such a high order had arrived, that the nations were not going to war much more.

We all well remember the famous book of M. de Bloch, published near the close of the last century, in which he predicted that the last great war of the world had been fought; that war with modern machinery would be suicide to the countries engaged. It was this book that led the Czar of Russia to call the first Hague Conference to consider the disarmament of the nations.

Since the publication of M. de Bloch's book there have been the English-Boer war, our war with Spain, the revolution in China, the Russo-Japanese war, the Italian-Tripoli war, two Balkan wars, a continuous guerrilla warfare in Mexico, and now we have the great European conflict. Surely, there has not been much shortage in wars.

Even a few months before the present war broke out, Dr. David Starr Jordan made the following announcement in his book, "War and Peace":

"What shall we say of the great war of Europe, ever threatening, ever impending, and which never comes? We shall say that it will never come. Humanly speaking, it is impossible."

"Not to the physical sense, of course, for with weak, rotten, and godless men nothing evil is impossible. It may be, however, that some half-dressed pacifists or some honest statesmen of the state shall half-knowingly give the signal for Europe's conflagration. In fact, the sword-slash has been given more than once within the last few years. The shade is well dried and laid in such a way as to make the worst of this catastrophe. All Europe is waiting for the burning. It is a question of time when it will come, and in the great stress of the war, the world will be in a state of confusion."

against the Triple Alliance, we shall expect no war.

"The bankers will not find the money for such a fight, the industries of Europe will not maintain it, the statesmen cannot. So whatever the bluster or apparent provocation, it comes to the same thing at the end. There will be no general war until the masters direct the nations to fight. The masters have much to gain, but vastly more to lose, and their signal will not be given."

This is a strange prophecy in view of what immediately followed it. Verily, "Who is this that daunteth counsel by words without knowledge?" (Job, xxxiii, 2.)

There is one other important lesson which I will mention before closing, and it is the nothing like as many men are killed in the present war as was predicted. This war does not mean international suicide, and the expense does not mean international bankruptcy.

The total number of inhabitants of the countries engaged is about 800,000,000, without counting more than a small part of the great population of India, and the total number killed and wounded during the present war, even if put at 800,000, would be 1,000,000 a year less than the birth rate, while the total number killed, if taken at 800,000, would be less than one sixth of the birth rate. Even if we put the cost of the war at the high amount of \$15,000,000,000 for one year, it would be only 5 per cent of the warring nations, because their wealth is about \$300,000,000,000. As most of the money is expended by the nations within their own frontiers—in other words, spent at home—the actual out-of-pocket loss is nothing like \$15,000,000,000, or 5 per cent.

If the present war should by any possibility end in a draw, it is very likely that each of the warring nations would be stronger in men and means at the end of the war than they were at the beginning. States greatly benefited by her war with us; we benefited greatly by our war with Spain. The Boers of South Africa have much to thank England for, for her victory over them, while England is better for the fight. Japan was greatly vitalized and benefited by her war with Russia, and Russia was even more benefited than was Japan.

At the end of the first Balkan war we were told that Serbia was utterly exhausted, yet she was able to beat Bulgaria in a most desperate war. Again we were told that she was utterly at the end of her men and resources; consequently, when she was invaded by Austria in the present war, and the invaders were driven out with great discomfiture, it came to us as a surprise.

While we may rightly deplore war, we must recognize and admit its advantages as well as its disadvantages; otherwise we wrong ourselves by deceiving ourselves.

If we were to admit, with the ultra-pacifists, that there was never a good war nor a bad peace; that all wars are bad and injurious; that every war since the beginning of time has been a calamity, then we have all the more reason for adequate preparation against so dread an eventuality; and we know, if we know anything in this world, that there is only one way to prepare against war, and it is with guns and trained men behind the guns.

The Current Supplement

IN the current Supplement of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, No. 3954, for May 15th, 1915, there is an illustrated description of an Exposition of Military Sanitation in Berlin, which tells many interesting things about the methods followed by the Germans in handling and treating the wounded in the present war. Another interesting illustrated article gives facts in relation to the culture of hemp in this country. The extremely valuable paper on "The Submarine in Naval Warfare," concludes, and contains several appropriate illustrations. The Pathology of Mental Disorders is dealt with in copious abstracts from a very comprehensive paper on this important subject. Another article of general interest tells many things about commercial glucose and its uses. This is a material that is of wide interest, and is largely as it does into many food products, and one that is generally misunderstood. Hats colored by cathode rays discusses an interesting phenomenon and offers some explanation. Mutations and Modifications of Bacteria treats of a subject that is of importance in regard to the proper recognition of species and kinds, and their derivation from one another. There is an interesting article about the production of food from dried beer yeast in Germany; a short discussion of what electrical engineering has done for human progress and efficiency; and last, but not least, there is another of the series of lectures on Atoms and Ions, by Sir J. J. Thomson.

Proposed Zoological Survey of India.—At the suggestion of the trustees of the India Museum, the government of India contemplates establishing a Zoological Survey analogous to the existing Botanical and Geological Surveys of that country, and based upon the existing zoological and anthropological section of the museum.

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

Mr. Edison on the Edison Fire

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

The Detroit Brick Manufacturers' and Dealers' Association is distributing throughout the United States a pamphlet entitled, "The Edison Fire."

The results of the fire at my plant on December 30th, 1914, were these: Of the seven reinforced concrete buildings none were destroyed. A small section of the upper floor of one of the buildings fell in, but was supported by the lower floors. The pamphlet referred to presents three views of this, the suggestion being that they were of three different buildings. The brick administration building to which they refer, which remains standing, was protected by an adjacent concrete building and was not subjected to the fire.

Every brick and steel building which was attacked by the fire was completely destroyed, together with all the machinery they contained, while the damage done to concrete buildings amounted to about 12½ per cent, and of the machinery contained in the concrete buildings 98 per cent was saved and is now in operation. Manufacturing was resumed in some of the old concrete buildings within a few weeks after the date of the fire.

Temperatures were far in excess of those in the ordinary fire, but reinforced concrete showed its superiority over any other fire resisting material.

The millions of dollars of fire losses in this country annually make it a matter of moment that the superiority of reinforced concrete for important structures should be thoroughly understood, and it is for such purpose that I have written this letter. THOS. A. EDISON Orange, N. J.

Vacuum Gasoline Feed for Automobiles

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

Permit me to point out an error in your issue of April 24th, which occurred on page 396. You say, speaking of the vacuum gasoline feed system for auto mobiles, "at this angle no pressure system could possibly force gasoline to the carburetor."

Gasoline is, roughly, one half as heavy as water or four feet head for every pound of pressure. The usual pressure system maintains two pounds of head, a readily made adjustment will cause them to maintain three or four. This means eight, twelve, and sixteen feet, respectively. The case illustrated is not raised above six or seven feet. E PAUL DE PORT Mountbain, Del.

Defenselessness of the United States

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I desire to express my hearty approval and appreciation of the most timely and instructive series of articles regarding the defenselessness of the United States now appearing in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Yet it is to be feared that all efforts to awaken the American people from their chronic condition of apathy and indifference concerning this most vital of all questions will prove futile. Nothing short of the shells of an enemy bursting in our midst will have any result.

To the writer it does not appear that the defenseless condition of the United States is solely chargeable to Congress. Congress has the honor of the State, and closing their eyes to realities and their ears lest they should hear aught save the reverberation of their own voices, they baroque of airy ideals and millennial dreams.

The fact that we rigidly exclude the Chinese, who have nothing but this much-vaunted "moral force" supporting their demands for admission, while we allow the Japanese, who possess, also, naval weapons—a navy, an army, and guns—to regulate their own entrance into this country under the so-called "gentlemen's agreement," should be sufficient reply to the arguments of traitors of this type.

In conclusion, let me state that when the enlisted man is no longer regarded with thinly veiled contempt, when he comes to be regarded by the people generally as a necessary evil, one may venture to hope that they are emerging from their Asia's paradise.

San Francisco, Cal.

JOHN H. GREENE.



Fig. 2.—A popular "Time trick photograph."

The landscape was made at one time, the aeroplane at another, and printed into the sky.

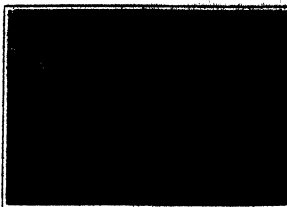


Fig. 3.—Memories of other days.

A scene made by printing in from two separate negatives, made at different times.

Motion Picture Magic

Playing Tricks on Time

By C. H. Claudy

(Illustrated with Photographs Copyright by Thos. A. Edison, Inc.)

PHILOSOPHERS for centuries have speculated on the senses of man, and wondered why the number was five, and not six or seven or more. Literature is full of the mystic "sixth sense," which means anything the author of the moment may wish it to mean. Additional senses are popularly supposed to be those peculiar faculties which belong to the realm of psychics—second sight or inner hearing (clairvoyance or clairaudience)—but it is a fact that the everyday man has several senses beyond the five physical senses of sight, hearing, smell, touch and taste.

For instance, every one has a sense of balance. Strap a man to a board, blindfold him, and tilt the board. He will tell you merrily whether he is head down or head up, and pretty closely at what angle he is. The acrobat, high in the air, knows whether he is level or tilted—yet neither learns the fact through any of his five senses.

Again, we have the sense of unconscious memory. The "bump of location," which the woodsman shares with the traveler, and by which each can find his way in strange places, is but an instance of memory of scene or street seen once before, not recalled in detail, but present in the mind, waiting to be called upon by any of his five senses.

And we have a sense of time, most strange of all our senses beyond the usual five, least understood, and, when tricked, most profitable of wonder.

Many a railroad man learns to dispense with an alarm clock. If his call is for four-thirty in the morning, he will wake with a start at four o'clock. Many a man sets his alarm clock slight after night, only to rise five minutes before it goes off, and stop it from waking the household. It is his sense of time which rouses him. Plenty of people—railroad men in the lead—can tell the hour to within a few minutes any time of the day without reference to a watch—again, the sense of time.

So accustomed are we to our mental valuation of the passage of time that when any event in our lives annuls this sense, or seems to go contrary to it, we marvel. No railroad man who has ever been in a wreck will need confirmation of the statement—he will remember how far apart the morning and the afternoon seemed, if the wreck came in between. Anything which jars us out of our daily course, which makes our minds take in new impressions rapidly, dulls our sense of time, and stretches it out, so that it seems longer than usual.

"I've had a long, long day," exclaims the man who has done much and unexpected business.

"The day was so short it fairly flew by," says the vacationist, resting at the seaside.

In the one case, the sense of time was inhibited, in the other hypersensitized—yet time was the same.

Things That Affect Our Sense of Time.

Some people have a much keener sense of time than others. For instance, the clever boxer has a *time sense* which sharpens under action so that he actually lives at a different rate than those who watch. Not more rapidly, as we might think, but more slowly. Remember, the greater the number of new mental impressions, the slower the time seems to pass. The man in the wreck lives a week in an hour—the dentist's victim, possessing a sore tooth, finds five minutes stretch to the hour. The boxer, with his hypersensitive time sense, gets a greater number of slight impressions per second than a less clever antagonist. The flying fists he dodges so cleverly seem to him to move more slowly than they would to you or me, and because they seem to move the slower, because he sees them clearly in all the path of their vicious swings, he seems to himself to have plenty of time to dodge them. The ball player with "good batting eye" has the same trick of living slower for the moment, and so getting a greater number of sense impressions—he actually sees the ball in all its swift path from the pitcher's hand, and so has time to bring his ash against it, where you and I would but try to dodge a streak of white against the green.

The action of certain drugs slows up our living, sensitizes our time sense. Opium and hashish tends live days, weeks, and months of experience, in a few hours, their time sense stimulated to the last degree. Did such drugs stimulate the body and its muscles to the same degree, a hashished boxer would be irresistible. But, of course, such drugs affect the body in the exact opposite from the way they trick the brain.

The magician on the stage tricks not our eyes alone, but our sense of time. With two cages in plain view, he has a woman enter one and draws a curtain about it. After a few words, he fires a pistol drops this curtain, and we see the cage empty, while the other cage is suddenly inhabited by the same woman. We have not seen her pass from cage to cage—we know that she could not pass instantly from cage to cage, because people don't move twenty feet in an instant. Yet she is there. Our sense of time is outraged, and the result is "magic." Could we see the woman leave the first cage by a trap, walk under the stage, and enter the second cage by another trap, there would be no trick. But we are led to

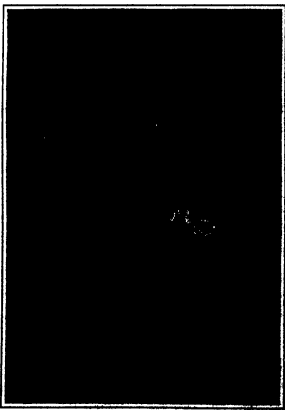


Fig. 4.—The "shot ghost" is a time trick, the exposure being made as usual, after which the "ghost" walks into the scene and the rest of the exposure is made. The result is that the first exposure shows through the second, giving a "ghostly" effect. Two pictures made at two different times, appear as one—hence the trick.

Fig. 1.—After the sixth exposure from the top the camera was stopped until the man had changed his clothes.

Fig. 5.—This is made in the same way as Fig. 1. While the camera is stopped the first exposure is

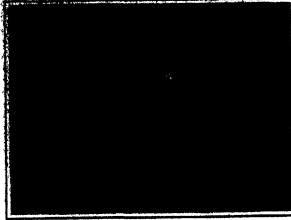


Fig. 7.—This shows the first scenes of the film shown in Fig. 5, with a man sitting alone in a haunted house.

believe the woman is in the first cage to the instant the pistol is fired—it is not the mere fact of her transfer from cage to cage which puzzles us, but her instantaneous transfer which our sense of time says is impossible.

The Magic of the Screen.

Wonderful as is the magic of the prestidigitator, however, it is as nothing to the magic which we see upon the screen when we watch a motion picture trick film. Here, at last, is the magic of our childhood—appearances, disappearances, apparitions, objects moving without apparent cause, people, trains and animals traveling at "impossible speeds," furniture endowed with life, inanimate objects possessed of the power of movement and of intelligence, even those things which the fairy power of Grimm and Andersen brought vividly before our minds' eyes made to seem real—trees growing up before our eyes, the rose shooting from the ground and blossoming in a minute or two. Things which we know are not possible are pictured for us—and we marvel, nor ever stop to think that all this magic and all its wonder are but a clever tricking of our sense of time, our mental valuation of an interval between ticks of the clock!

For the motion picture does for us what no other thing can do save a drug, or, in a slight degree, long, long training. It takes normal intervals of time and expands them one, two, a thousand-fold, or it takes a number of time intervals and compresses them by the same ratio. It presents all the motions of a growing flower in a month's time to our eyes in the space of five minutes—or it takes the time intervals between the several inches of progress of a flying bullet—a tiny fraction of a second—and expands them so that they occupy perhaps the half of a minute. It eliminates the time between happenings and brings two events separated actually by hours of time and makes them seem to us as following each other with no interval between them. More, it takes two happenings at different times and at different places, and makes them appear to us as happening at the same time and same place. Unconscious of this strange sixth sense of time, because it is so much a factor of our daily lives, ignorant of the fact that it is this and not our eyes alone which have been tricked, we leave the darkened theater with wonder in our hearts and admiration on our lips.

How Is It Done?
"Now, how do you suppose that was done?" is our secret question. Let us take some of these "time tricks" to pieces and see just how they are accomplished. First of us have seen



Fig. 8.—In this scene the man asleep in the haunted house awakens to find a specter sitting on either side.

thrown upon the screen a picture of a path of earth in a garden. We have watched the clods disturb themselves, seen a slender shoot put its point up through them, watched in wonder the green tip twist and twist as if seeking the light, seen it climb up a wall, putting forth tentacle-like hooks and fasten them about the ready wires, then shoot forth leaves, then a bulb, which, opening before our astonished eyes, becomes a morning glory. If not that flower, then we have seen a rose, a lily, or a carnation, push the earth aside and grow to full maturity in a few minutes by the magic of the motion picture.

How this is done is as wonderful as it is absurdly simple. The ordinary motion picture is projected on the screen from a film which passes sixteen separate pictures through the machine every second. It was made in a camera which took sixteen separate pictures every second. We see sixteen separate pictures every second, each one slightly different from the one previous. Were our picture of a growing flower made in that way, we should sit and watch the screen for as many weeks as it took the flower actually to grow. But the flower picture, though projected at the rate of sixteen pictures a second, was made in a different way. The camera was set up in front of the place where the flower was to grow, and, by a clockwork device, was made to take the picture, not every sixteenth of a second, but every fifteen minutes! At the end of a month, supposing the camera ran night and day (at night by electric light), there would have been made 2880 pictures on a strip of film. If these pictures are run through the projecting machine at the rate of sixteen per second, the whole film passes through the machine in three minutes. We see 2880 pictures of a growing plant. In actuality, a period of fifteen minutes separated each of these pictorial impressions of the growth of the flower. On the screen, this fifteen minute interval is "squeezed up" 44,400 times from fifteen minutes to the sixteenth of a second. For the three minutes we look at the presentation of the growing flower, our time sense has been speeded up so that we get in three minutes the impressions that the camera got in a month.

To get this impression in actuality, we should have to find a drug which would slow us up, so surely to the senses, that a month seemed as three minutes. Hasheesh is such a drug but as it paralyzes all bodily activity, including sight, the only things the hasheshed brain sees at abnormal speeds, great events taking place in minute times, are the disordered fancies and portentous of the wandering human mind.

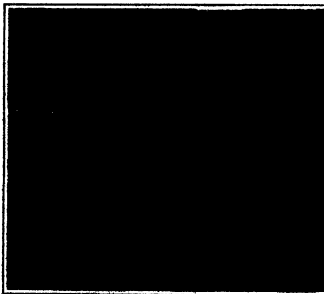


Fig. 9.—This shows a scene in the film shown in Fig. 1 before the change of costume was made.

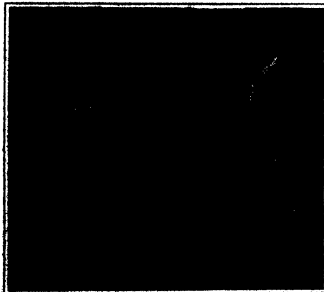


Fig. 10.—Same setting as Fig. 9, but here the man has changed to a dress suit, while the camera was stopped.

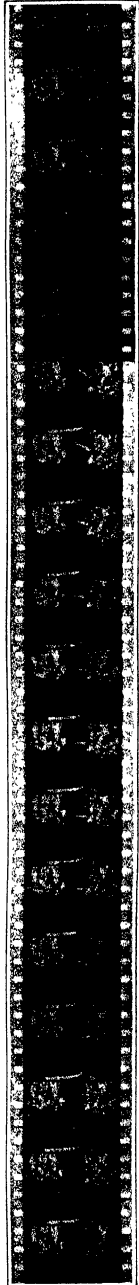


Fig. 11.—Specimen of multiple exposures and printing. Fairies and faces of the small man.

Fig. 10.—A scene made by hand. After each exposure the hand was moved forward a precisely measured distance.

Your Panama Hat

From the Tropical Jungles of South America to the American Hat Store

By A. M. Jungmann

WHEN you get ready to put on your Panama hat this season view it with renewed interest. It is about the only article of apparel which is still being made in exactly the same way it was when these hats came into being centuries ago, before Columbus discovered the Americas. That is, of course, if your Panama is a real Panama. And speaking of real Panama hats, in point of fact there is no such thing. Panama hats are not and never have been made in Panama. They acquired this false name because the city of Panama was and still is the great distributing center for this particular variety of hat.

Panama hats are woven from the leaves of *Carludovicia palmata*, a low-growing, sturdy member of the palm family, and the finest of them come from Ecuador, others are made in Colombia and Peru. This palm, of which there are half a dozen varieties, grows wild in the semi-darkness of the tropical jungles of the Pacific coast of South America. In selecting its leaves for hat making care is exercised to take the young unopened leaves. These are pliable, white, and larger than the developed leaf. The rough outer layers of the leaf are cut away and the smooth, white inner layers which lie folded fanwise are carefully cut into, literally, thousands of fine shreds or strips varying in size from pieces as fine as the hair of a horse's tail to strips as thick as ordinary twine, according to the quality of hat to be made.

The knife used for this operation is very thin and sharp and considerable skill is necessary to cut the leaves, for the strips must not be separated from the parent stem of the leaf. The leaf when cut is known as a "ceguillo." A number of leaves so prepared are tied together by the stems and submitted to a process of steeping in boiling water. After this they are bleached by methods known to the natives and are then ready to be woven into hats. The preparation of the "ceguillo" is an entirely separate industry from that of the hat making. Each "ceguillo" contains on an average twenty-eight strands about 50 centimeters long and weighs usually 16 grammes. The price the weaver pays for this material varies according to the fineness of the texture of the "ceguillo" and the even coloring of the strands.

The hats are not woven in factories, but in the homes of the weavers. Sometimes an entire family is engaged in weaving. In the more remote districts where community life does not exist all the members of a family are provided with "ceguillos" of a fineness of texture suitable to their individual skill. The children are supplied with the coarsest strands and the older and more experienced weavers with finer material. Where the population permits, the weavers gather into congenial groups. The young men of the village congregate each day and weave in little groups, lightening the time of toil with jokes and stories. Similarly the girls form pleasant weaving parties and sing while their fingers are busy with the palm strands. The older people are apt to gather together according to their skill, but there is usually one weaver whose art is so far ahead of the others that he or she is set apart and generally regarded with a generous amount of admiration or envy, as the case may be. On the whole, however, these people are of a pleasant, though somewhat phlegmatic, disposition.

The utmost perfection in weaving has been attained in the districts of Jipijapa, Montecristi, and Santa Ana, province of Manabí, Ecuador. Some of the hats produced there are almost as fine as a linen handkerchief. Such hats bring very high prices right where they are made. Wealthy planters affect them, and it is not uncommon for the equivalent of \$50 to be paid to the weaver for one of these fine hats.

When one of the planters desires to make a princely gift to a distinguished acquaintance he visits the most famous weaver, say, in Jipijapa and makes known his particular desire in a hat. The weaver then devotes all his time to filling the order and when the

hat is completed receives a handsome sum for it. But no matter what the pay, it surely is well earned, for the weaving of such a hat requires an amazing amount of skill and knowledge of the best sort of "ceguillo" to go into its construction. Also it takes an entire season to complete one. These adepts at weaving develop a sensitiveness in feeling comparable only to our blind who have been taught to use their fingers as their eyes. The sense of touch must be delicate in the extreme to turn out the exceptional Panamas. These wonderful gift hats, which rarely ever are seen by ordinary mortals, have a texture as fine and supple as a piece of Lyons silk. The weaver who is selected to make one attains great honor in his village. Not many of the

only one way, the different localities where the hats are made each has a method of handling the skeleton characteristic of that particular school of weaving, and the placing and design of the skeleton strands are modifying indications, to the initiated, of the place of manufacture of a Panama hat.

Starting at the center of the "plantilla," the weaver builds a series of concentric braids. Each of these fine circles is called a "carra." The greatest manual dexterity is necessary to handle these delicate strands and interweave them with the skeleton strands, not keep the whole symmetrical. In order to facilitate the bending and turning of the strands, the weaver keeps that part of the hat on which he is employed wet by means of a mop of straw, which he dips into a vessel of water at his hand. The entire hat is never kept wet, only a very small part of it at a time. When the crown is completed and the time comes to join the brim to the crown, the weaver slips the crown onto a block and then attacks the "carra," as the juncture of crown and brim is called. I suppose efficiency engineers will be shocked to learn that in this day and generation the weavers of Panama hats still persist in the ancient and tedious mode of holding the block in place with their chests instead of adopting a more healthful and up-to-date method. The weaver now completes the tortuous ordeal by finishing off the brim border or "remate," as he calls it. The brim is then pulled into shape by a series of firm twists and pulls and the block removed.

The loose strands which stand out, halo-like, around the border of the brim are carefully trimmed off, and the hat is ready to be washed and bleached. After all the soil has been washed out and it has been given the desired whiteness, it is once more put on a block in preparation for the process termed "maotear," which means to be beaten with a wooden hammer. This calls for great skill, for as the hammer is manipulated so is the appearance of the hat changed. When the hat looks the way the weaver wants it to be stop beating it and very gently and painstakingly proceeds to iron it. This then completes the process and the hat is packed with its fellows to begin its commercial adventures. The hats are stacked one within the other and between them sulphur is liberally sprinkled to prevent moulding, something which must be constantly guarded against in humid, tropical countries. Occasionally when hats arrive at the distributing centers they have dark spots on them, which are not readily removed. There is a certain preparation which is said for the removal of these blemishes, but for some reason the formula has been kept a secret.

When the hats are finished they are taken to the nearest market place on market day and there sold to the dealers by their makers. These markets are picturesque in the extreme. The gruffly dressed natives, the women wearing innumerable petticoats, the haggling crowds, the colorful display of vegetables, hats, clothes, and a thousand and one interesting objects, not forgetting the quantity hats charms sold by the Indians, the patient pack animals all go to make up a scene almost incredibly unique, for today it is just as it was generations ago. Progress has not reached the market places where Panama hats begin their journey into the great, bustling world.

The weavers of the very finest Panama hats do not need to belong to a trade union to insure their working days being shortened to accepted standards. They work on an average of from six to eight hours a day, divided into periods of from three to four hours each morning and evening, because they can handle the fine strands only when there is a certain amount of humidity in the atmosphere. During the middle of the day the air is so dry that it is impossible to manipulate the fine strands of palm leaf. The entire hats are woven at any and all hours.

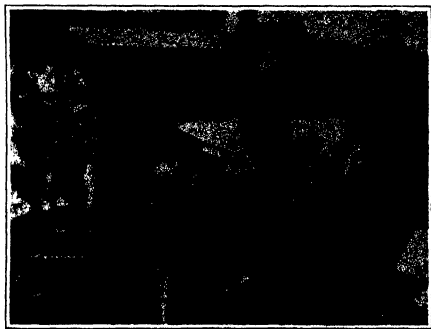
When purchasing a Panama it is a good idea to ask

(Continued on page 461)



Copyright by Clarke & Hyde

How Panama hats are bleached after they are received.



Copyright by Clarke & Hyde

Panama hats are received in crates—thousands of dollars worth in a single crate.

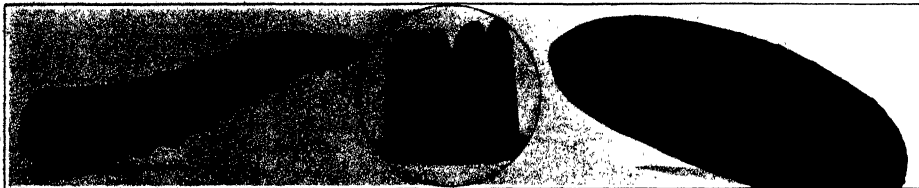
best hats are brought to this country. In the department of Antioquia, Colombia, there are weavers who turn out hats which almost any American would be glad to own, but they do not equal the Ecuador product. There is but one place in Peru where the industry flourishes, and that is in the small town and district known as Catacora, in the province of Piura. These hats are shipped from Piura. In the countries where Panama hats are made there are but two classes of people, the rich or aristocratic class, and the poor or serving class. Many of the hats which usually find their way to the United States are sold at moderate prices are made in Peru. They would be appreciated by the upper class in the land where they are woven and could be found only on the heads of the downtrodden poor.

The Panama hat, like "all Gaul," is divided into three parts. The top of the crown is called the "plantilla," the sides of the crown "bata," and the brim "falda." In beginning the hat the weaver selects eight strands which constitute the skeleton and run from the center of the "plantilla" to the edge of the "falda." While it seems that these strands could be arranged in

The Fly

A Model of *Musca Domestica* 84,000 Times Life Size

By Joseph William Grigg



The larva of the house fly.

The eggs.

The pupa of the house fly.

AT the American Museum of Natural History you will find a house fly nearly as big as a cat, and all its disagreeableness will dawn upon you at once. The model of the house fly is 13 inches long, or 84,000 times the size of the living *Musca domestica*. It is considered the most accurate and adequate representation of the external anatomy of the house fly in existence. Not only have the more striking features been copied, but even the minor details visible on a magnification of forty diameters have been executed with complete accuracy. The eggs, larva and pupa of the fly, executed in proportion to the model, are part of the group.

The model is a graphic illustration of the life story of the fly. Man has fostered and tolerated the insect since time out of mind in all but the coldest climates of the world. The model shows the short interval from the time the eggs are laid in organic refuse to the quick development of the hungry young grub and the pushing aside of the hard case with a loose top segment and the exit of the perfect insect. It is easy to understand the fly's rapid multiplication. It has been computed that if a fly on June 1 lay one of the six installments of one hundred and twenty eggs of which it is capable, that by September it would have a progeny numbering septillions. In figures, by September 18 the number of flies resulting from that first batch of one hundred and twenty eggs would be 30,270,705,000,000,000,000, which in turn would lay 4,383,564,072,000,000,000,000 eggs. This would take into account an equal division of males and females. The possibilities for contamination can be readily conceived when it is known that the bacteria on a single fly have been known to range from 250 to 6,000,000.

No one group in the museum has created more interest than this one of the house fly, a member of the family of 40,000 species of flies in existence. There is small wonder. Of all insects captured in houses in this country in a survey in recent years 98.8 per cent were house flies.

Ignorance has caused labor for more than a year to produce the fly model and other parts of the fly group. As a first step he studied 300 flies, stupefied with chloroform or freshly killed. This was necessary because within half an hour of death the color of the fly as well as the surface including changes. Even the color of the eyes was found to change a short time after death. Each specimen could, therefore, be used only for a short period.

Drawings were made of anatomical details, and are now in the museum. The head, mouth parts, legs and feet were modeled separately in clay, cast in wax and delicately finished, polished and mounted. The eyes were particularly difficult. The color was the same as that of the living fly.

Insertion of the hairs with which the body of the fly is covered. It was more difficult because the hairs vary in length and bend in different directions. This was finally accomplished by constructing each hair of German silver wire. The wings were modeled in celluloid. The halteres (a rudimentary second pair of wings), the plum-like antennae, the club-shaped palps or tasting organs were all accurately modeled and articulated into position. A magnified rectangular crumb of bread forms the mount for the fly.

The Pacific Kelp Beds

IN the bill making appropriations for the Department of Agriculture for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1915, authority was provided to print and publish certain maps and accompanying reports relating to the kelp beds of the Pacific coast. These documents have just appeared in the form of a bulletin by Frank K. Cameron and others, entitled "Potash from Kelp," accom-

panied by a photo atlas showing the results of the surveys made of all the commercially available kelp beds from Kodiak Island to Cape Flattery, about half the available beds in southeast Alaska, and a major part of the beds on the southern shores of the Alaska Peninsula. The maps, which are sixty one in number and drawn on a large scale, show the location and extent of the beds, and also, by means of various tints, their character, whether thin medium, heavy, etc.

This report, besides containing a handy resume of much that has been previously published on the subject of kelp and the domestic potash supply in general, presents several new facts of great practical interest. The botany and life-history of the giant kelps are extensively discussed, chiefly from the point of view of utilization. The mode of growth of *Macrocystis* makes it possible to harvest the plant twice a year without danger of destroying the beds. Cutting of the stipes causes new stipes to grow out from the holdfasts, somewhat after the manner of the "standing" of wheat.

Acetocystis is apparently an annual, and more care must be taken to avoid permanent injury to the beds, i. e., harvesting should not take place earlier than the fruiting season. In the Puget Sound region this plant should not be harvested before July 15th, and in Alaska not before August.

As to the disposition after harvesting, it is stated that "taking everything into consideration—cost of production, cost of handling, and properties which will afford to the manufacturer of mixed goods—dried or powdered kelp is the product which seems to offer the best possibilities for quickly finding a substantial commercial demand."

Sections of the report are devoted to the methods of harvesting kelp, with working drawings of harvesting machinery now actually in use in California, and to a discussion of probable markets. The legal status of the kelp beds has aroused some controversy, and uncertainty on this subject has deterred large capital from undertaking their exploitation. Legislation looking to the control of the beds and leasing of the rights to harvest has been proposed in the States of Washington and California, but has not yet been effective. At present anybody is free to harvest kelp anywhere on the coast.

The area of commercially available kelp beds on the Pacific coast is given as 28,094 square miles and the weight of fresh kelp as 30,305,590 tons. Assuming that all the potassium chloride were extracted and marketed as such, it is said that its value at present prices would approximate \$10,000,000, while if the crop were reduced to dried kelp and sold at current figures for potash and nitrogen content, the value would exceed \$150,000,000.



Model of a common house fly at the American Museum of Natural History.



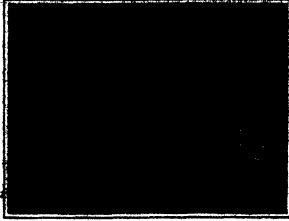
Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

British soldiers explaining to French officers the operation of a trench pump.



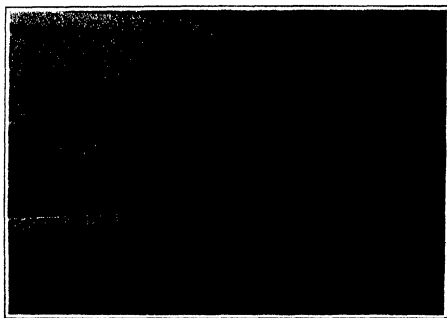
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Clearing away wire entanglements by shooting a cable over them and hauling it in.



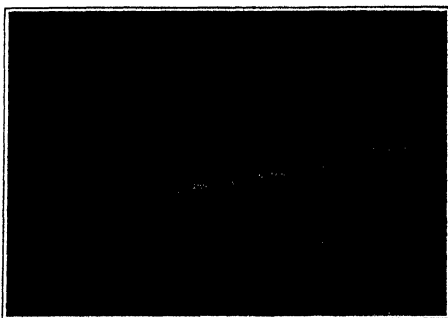
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Incendiary bombs dropped from Zeppelins in a raid over the Tyne, England.



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

French soldiers breaking up the framework of a fallen Zeppelin.



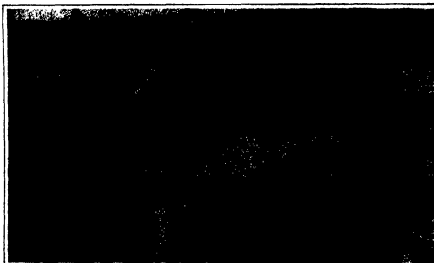
Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

Towing a seaplane back to its mother ship at the Dardanelles.



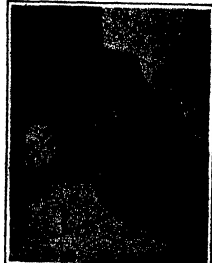
Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

Victoria cross race in which each competitor carries a dummy.



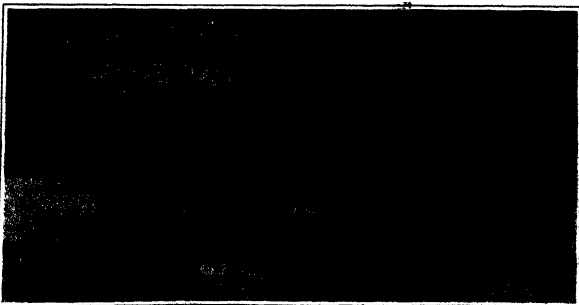
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Hydrocrafter being taken aboard a cruiser after a flight over the Turkish fortifications at the Dardanelles.



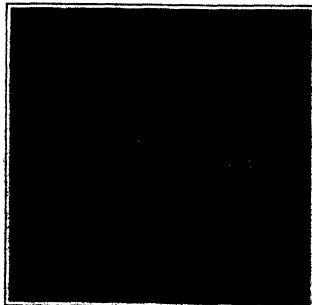
Photograph by Paul Thompson

Sir James Mackenzie Davidson's method of probing for bullets with a telephone.



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Austrian motor transport bringing in a load of benzine for automobile fuel.



Photograph by International News Service

Disinfecting clothes at a British field hospital.

RECENTLY PATENTED DEVICES

These devices are open to all patents. The designs are issued by the United States Patent Office, and are subject to the provisions of the Act of March 3, 1879, under which the Department of the Interior is authorized to issue patents.

Parachute to Appear.

PATENT—ARTHUR D. MONTAG, London, England. The invention has for its object to afford comfort to all forms of public conveyance, especially military, without diminishing their strength; and to adapt gaiters, as wearers, most efficient and comfortable articles of wear. It is many new uses, chiefly sporting, for which the gaiter or combination of gaiter and apron and



WOVEN PUTTEE FOR HAND WEAR.

stocking has been worn hitherto. To this end the invention is characterized by a woven puttee having the warp or longitudinal strands retained intact and continuous throughout, and having the weft or transverse strands changed in one or more suitably located longitudinal sections of the puttee.

Parachute for Aviator.

SUPPLY DEVICE FOR AVIATOR.—W. A. MACART, care of Mackay College, C. North Sydney, New South Wales, Canada. The invention has particular reference to devices for making flights of aviators practically safe in the provision of a parachute adapted to be carried by the machine and to which the aviator is connected, means furthermore being provided



SAFETY DEVICE FOR AVIATOR.

whereby the parachute and aviator may be released from the machine in the case of an accident and enabling him to be lowered to the earth by virtue of the parachute. The use of the device for releasing an aviator from the machine is not intended to be a part of the invention, but is merely a device of which the invention is not a part. The invention is not a part of the invention, but is merely a device of which the invention is not a part.

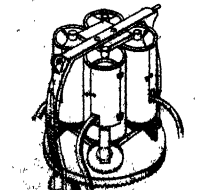
PROPELLER.—T. A. MACDONALD, 501 St. Paul, St. Paul, Minn. The object here is to provide a propeller, especially those designed for aeroplanes, which not only serves a driving force in the direction of flight, but also serves a lifting force, this lifting force being due to the peculiar shape of the blade of the propeller.

Of Interest to Farmers.

COTTON CRUMPER.—H. HANCOCK, P. O. Box 521, Commerce, Tex. This invention comprises a wheel supported frame having a series of adjustable clamping devices for cutting off all the plants in the row except those which it is desired to retain, and in which each of the clamping devices is mounted on an adjustable support which carries a handle and a cutting mechanism for detaching the plants after thinning.

TRAP HOOD.—M. F. DONAHUE, 521 St. Main St., Providence, R. I. In this device a nest is provided for the fowl and an inclosure for the nest, having an entrance and an exit, and wherein doors are provided for entrance and exit, and mechanism in connection with the doors for normally closing the door of the exit and opening the door of the entrance, and arranged to be operated by the weight of the fowl as it enters the nest for closing the door of the entrance and opening the door of the exit.

MILKING MACHINE.—A. TUCKER, Chicago, Ill. By means of this device the milking of a cow may be accomplished rapidly and economically and with no danger of injuring the animal. The apparatus is of light weight



MORRIS MACHINE.

The object of this invention is to provide a machine adapted for use as an exhaust valve in explosion engines, and especially of that type using the proper type of valve. The invention is adapted for use as an exhaust valve in explosion engines, and especially of that type using the proper type of valve. The invention is adapted for use as an exhaust valve in explosion engines, and especially of that type using the proper type of valve.

for harvesting machinery and has particular reference to propelling means or draft appliances for machinery intended for the purpose of gathering a load or bulk of hay or shocks of grain while moving across a field and then transporting such load to the place of delivery.

Oil General Interest.

OIL FILTER.—P. F. BARN, 1027 South Main St., Ottawa, Kan. This filter is designed to be reliable and simple and to be free from the oil of the minutest particles it may contain, and including filtering elements which are so made taken out of the tank or body of the filter for the purpose of cleaning or renewing.

HILBERT.—F. M. BOWMAN, Chester, Penna. The purpose here is to provide a helmet or mask which can be easily placed from operative to inoperative position without removing the same from the head of the wearer, which helmet or mask affords a large angle of vision when in use, leaving both hands of the wearer free for work.

RECEPTACLE COVER AND SPOUT.—N. Y. BLUM, 1405 4th Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention relates to a combination cover and spout for receptacles, and more particularly for a milk bottle. An object is to provide a receptacle cover and spout which can be easily and quickly removed from a receptacle and which can be easily cleaned, thus rendering the device sanitary.

LITHOGRAPHIC PROCESS.—H. W. BROWN, 218 William St., New York, N. Y. The particular result attained by the process is in the production of ink, on one object of the effect of a double medium with oil pigments. In order to produce light and fast positive samples of the various designs of the design, and avoid the necessity of carrying heavy and cumbersome sections of the linoleum.

RIG TESTER.—H. NICHOLS, Flower Co. Co. Broadway, New York, N. Y. The invention has reference to an electric egg tester adapted to be used by housewives in testing the eggs they purchase, and which is so constructed, whereby eggs can be easily and quickly tested to ascertain their degree of freshness.

PARTIAL PORT WHIRLING SCALD.—G. B. JENNISON, Raleigh, N. C. The improvement embodied, first, in an attachment for the scale pan, consisting in the provision of a map and a series of superimposed chambers and marked with some lines. The guard is in the nature of a transparent plate on which concentric circles are marked, indicating different zones. By shifting the map, any particular town or unit of area may be brought to the center of the scale and the guard, and thus the scale may be conveniently made to apply to any particular town or unit of area.

FINE ROOF REPAIRER.—J. W. HELL, Rocky, Ala. The invention provides a device especially adapted for separating or separating other substances having different specific gravities, wherein the separation is based on the physical fact that such materials are moved by flowing water at different velocities, the relative velocity depending upon the relative specific gravity.

GARBAGE CAN.—J. A. JONES, Palestine, Tex. The invention relates to garbage and trash receptacles, and is particularly adapted to be used in a garbage receptacle adapted for use on sidewalks and in public parks, and including the separation mechanism whereby the lid of the can may be used upon incident to the depositure of the trash or garbage therein.

Hardware and Tools.

MOLD FOR RECURVING CORNERS.—C. C. HANCOCK, Shuford Station, Kansas City, Mo. One of the principal objects here is to provide a mold whereby wires may be detachably secured and held in stretched position, on doors, windows, screen frames, sleeping porches and other places where wires are desired, and a mold fitted adapted to be formed into a frame.

COMBINATION TOOL.—H. WALKER, 120 W. High St., Lexington, Ky. This tool is adapted for use in the disassembling of the screw and other parts of a similar nature. The invention provides a tool which may be used as a straight edge and rule; a double right angle square; a double T-square; a double level square; and a double protector.

Boating and Lighting.

ADAPTER FOR BURNER BURNER.—J. I. ROSS, 188 Broadway, New York, N. Y. According to this invention, the disadvantages of fitting which is such that it may be fitted to any standard burner attachment, or similar chamber and which is provided with any convenient number of burners or mantle supports as may be required, depending upon whether the burner is required for heating or lighting.

Shedding and Mechanical Devices.

VALVE.—C. O. NICHOLS, Hammond, W. Va. Mr. Nichols' invention is an improvement in valves, and has for its object to provide a valve of the character specified, especially adapted for use as an exhaust valve in explosion engines, and especially of that type using the proper type of valve. The invention is adapted for use as an exhaust valve in explosion engines, and especially of that type using the proper type of valve.

cargo of ships, and has for an object to provide an improved structure wherein the ship may be weighed at any time when empty, and the cargo may be weighed as the same is taken on board.

MANUFACTURE OF HOLLOW OR LIKE EARTHENWARE.—E. W. LAMON, Ambrose, Midway, Burton upon Trent, England. This invention has for its object to construct a machine for the manufacture of hollow or like earthenware, such as, for example, as pots or jars, for containing preserves and other food stuffs. The pieces of clay or the like from which the pots are formed preferably consist of approximately circular solid billets or slabs prepared in an ordinary manner.

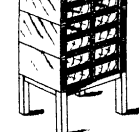
WHIRLING PRESS.—O. HANCOCK, care of N. Y. Lumbar Co., Houghton, Wash. The improvement provides means for automatically pressing shingles in their bundles to tighten the shingles in the hands which hold the shingles together. The press is disposed between two gravity roller sections and these sections are connected with the press for operating the press automatically as the bundles of shingles pass from one of the roller sections to the other.

Umbrella Covering Machine.

KARLHANS.—J. H. HANCOCK, 1512 Broadway, N. Y., and J. T. HANCOCK. The invention provides means for mechanically mounting on an umbrella frame a fabric cover, provides means to operate rapidly to operate means for manually controlling the periods of operation of said machine, and provides facilities for members for the cover and the outer tip ends of the ribs of the umbrella frame, arranged in the form of a continuous strip to facilitate the feed of the fabric.

Musical Devices.

MUSIC CHAIR.—J. A. HANCOCK, 1512 Broad Hill Ave., Baltimore, Md. This invention provides for accommodating the maximum number of music rolls in a given space, and includes the novel elements of a cover constructed of a sectional cabinet, provides trays for the music rolls, each adapted to hold a



MUSIC CABINET.

series of rolls and accommodate rolls of different diameters, provides for holding the rolls in a series in parallel orderly relation on a tray, and includes a sliding support, roller holder, and at a door at its front together with connecting means for actuating the door to the movements of the sliding holder.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.

INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.—O. HANCOCK, care of W. H. HANCOCK, 1512 Broadway, New York, N. Y. This invention relates more particularly to a rotary internal combustion motor or engine, which has for its object the provision of a device which simplifies the structure of engine and reduces the number of parts to a minimum and in which greater efficiency is obtained by the omission of complicated working parts resulting in lost motion and accelerating their frequent repairs.

INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE.—O. HANCOCK, care of W. H. HANCOCK, 1512 Broadway, New York, N. Y. The invention relates to engine particularly designed for heavy fuel oils, and the main object thereof is to provide an explosion chamber in which the force of the explosion in two directions is utilized in an effective manner to actuate an operative part of such engine, instead of but one direction, as in engines now constructed.

Partaining to Recreation.

BATH HOUSE.—R. F. CARR, 91 Jackson St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a bath house adapted for use on rivers, bays and other waterways, and arranged to provide a bath adapted to fit in and depending on the bath house structure and the platform adjacent the bath to protect the latter against heavy waves and thus the effect of heaving the bath waterway.

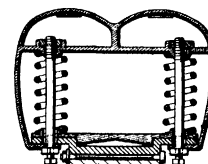
TOY.—T. MILLAN, Cloris, New Mex. This invention provides a series of toys driven by

spring motors, capable of being wound, and arranged to move the figures forwardly by successive starts and stops, and the figures and anim is provided in connection with the motors for automatically releasing and restraining the operation of the interior wheels, and certain of the figures are mounted to be in certain predetermined manner by the motors.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

RELAYING TRUCK.—J. M. CHAPMAN and R. C. WOOD, 222 Westmont, Holyoke, Mass. This invention has reference to a platform truck of that type including a link supported platform and means whereby the downward movement of the handle will elevate the platform and the upward movement will lower the platform.

TRUCK.—C. L. NELLS and F. K. NELLS, Corbin, Iowa. The main object in this instance is to provide a substitute for the pneumatic tires now in use which will not require inflation by means of air, thereby avoiding all the tire trouble now experienced. A further object is to



VEHICLE TIRE.

to construct the tire that lateral resiliency of the same is possible as well as the vertical resiliency of the same, and the tire is adapted for increasing or decreasing the compression of the resilient device at will, whereby the tire may be adjusted to a contemplated load.

ATTOMOBILE TOP LIFTER.—J. JOHNSON, Address W. S. Levens Museum, Ia. This improvement provides mechanism for use in connection with automobiles and the vehicle having extension tops for permitting the top to be raised from one of the seats without touching the top of the vehicle, and to reach the seats without the necessity of alighting from the vehicle.

GUIDE FOR VEHICLE SPRINGS.—M. W. MONTAG, Olympia, Wash. This invention provides a guide for springs of light automobiles, such as those in which the springs are disposed transversely of the car. The device may be readily attached to the vehicle frame without necessitating the dismantling of the parts or of weakening or in any way interfering with them.

FRONT RUNNING GRAB FOR VEHICLES.—M. I. JOHNSON, Cloris, Ia. The invention is an improvement in the forward axle support of four wheeled vehicles, particularly such as are self-propelled, the objects being to provide a mechanism as far as practicable of side thrust, and to provide a mechanism for reaching the surface, and to locate the point of pivotal connection between the front axle and the chassis as low as practicable.

VEHICLE END GATE.—J. A. HANCOCK, Address I. Tucker, Albany, N. Y. The primary object of the invention is the provision of an end gate in which a vertically extending end gate is provided with oppositely extending lugs that limit the lateral extension of the two retaining wings of members, and permit of the folding of the members against the end gate when the end gate is closed.

HEAT GUIDING DEVICE.—R. H. WESTHEAD and W. B. CLARK, Mammoth, Wis. The invention relates to an attachment for vehicles, particularly for automobiles, and is in the nature of an improved heat guiding device forming part of a belt traction device for use in connection with the vehicle, and in which the force of the explosion in two directions is utilized in an effective manner to actuate an operative part of such engine, instead of but one direction, as in engines now constructed.

NOTE.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the Scientific American for ten cents each. Please send the name of the patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

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Power of Mind in Baseball

By Arthur Macdonald

THE RE is one three general mental states in which a ball player may be: overconfidence, lack of confidence, or nervousness. Overconfidence can cause a player to make an error through want of sufficient effort. Thus a good fielder will wait an easy fly to the surprise of everyone, including himself. The ball may have been twisting more than usual, but he was in a relaxed condition, and his grasp, as a result, was not as quick and strong as usual. It is doubtful if any major league player has any lack of confidence in catching a fly if he can get to it with reasonable effort.

Lack of confidence comes to the batter when puzzled by the pitcher, or when he is thinking of the pitcher's great reputation. Nervousness is the worst condition of all, for even the best players when in such a state may play the worst.

Natanga, a great catcher, says, "Catching demands one third steady and two thirds mental work." Edward Collins states that grounders do not come as hard to second base as to first or third, "but when it comes to the other part of the game, the thinking part, second base becomes a difficult position. Baseball games are won in many instances by the players that think quickly." Collins was on first, the batter had three balls and no strikes, and nobody was out, yet he stole second base, and was severely criticized. But as no one believed he would try to steal under such conditions, he felt sure he would succeed by doing the unexpected. Coombs says next to control in pitching comes head work.

Frank Chance holds that "confidence is half the battle in baseball." It is certainly one of the greatest mental forces in the game. Thus a weak team that has been winning is likely to lose, but a strong team which is losing. A fresh young pitcher is more difficult to hit than an experienced one who is uncertain of himself. One team is helpless before a pitcher that a weaker team pounds all over the field. A batter is unable to make a home hit on one pitcher, yet can hit the same kind of ball from another pitcher. There are not a few players retired or returned to minor leagues who have lost confidence in themselves.

A base on balls is better than a hit, because it may affect the pitcher more and tend to lessen the confidence of the team. Joe Tinker, an ordinary batter, was convinced he could hit Mathewson, the great pitcher, and Mathewson seemed to have the same belief. For Tinker won five games from New York by his individual batting in one season.

When pitcher hits a batter, it may discourage his side and destroy confidence in him. When a player has a quarrel with another or with the umpire, I have noticed that he is liable to be upset in his playing as well. Many important physical movements are unconscious, but when a player becomes irritated by the umpire, he is usually thrown out of gear, and this unconscious action is affected.

When the first batter up is retired half the inning is over. The mental state produced by this bad beginning is probably the cause. Nearly every baseball game is decided by one play at the psychological moment, which is called the "break." Why a weak team will beat a strong team and be beaten by another weak team with regularity, are mental problems.

An unexpected hit may surprise the pitcher and make him pitch badly to the next batter, and the game may be lost.

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SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



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FORWARD DECK OF FLAGSHIP "WYOMING," SHOWING THE 12-INCH GUNS OF TURRETS NO. 1 AND NO. 2.—[See page 473.]

Vol. 62, No. 21
May 29, 1913

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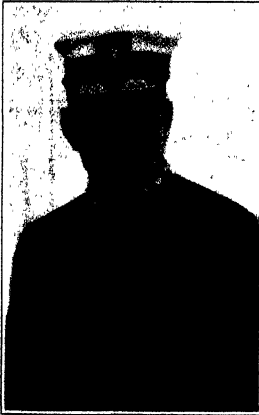
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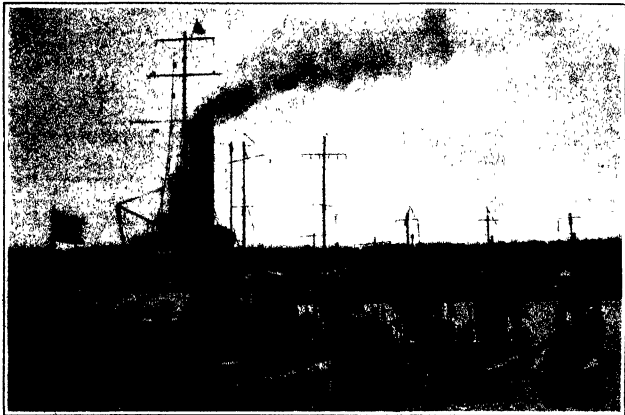
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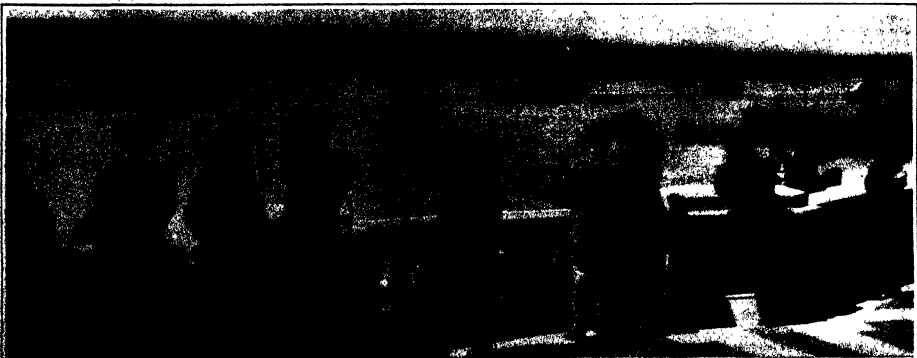
The fleet in the North River, with U. S. S. "Delaware" in the foreground.



Admiral Fletcher.



Monitor "Tonopah" and group of five submarines.



The fleet as viewed from the Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument.
THE NAVAL REVIEW IN THE HUDSON RIVER, NEW YORK

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Founded 1845

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The Editor is always glad to receive, for examination illustrated articles on subjects of timely interest. If the photographs are sharp, the articles short, and the facts authentic, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular price rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and intelligently the progress of science, its knowledge and industrial achievement.

War, Humanized and De-humanized

ONE of the most astounding evidences of the fact that the world has been steadily advancing toward a higher civilization has been the development of a set of laws designed to soften, if not eradicate, the inhumanity of war. War is a professional business. The soldier is the professional exponent of war. It is his business to kill and, if fate so decrees, to be killed. But all around the inherent terror and cruelty of war, there has been built up, by the common consent of civilization, a series of restrictions designed to protect, as far as may be, the non-combatants. It is one of the most lamentable features of the present struggle that in one nation at least, these safeguards have been ruthlessly thrown aside.

The sinking, on sight, of the "Lusitania" is the latest and most atrocious instance of this relapse to that gratuitous cruelty which we all thought had been relegated to a bygone and far-distant age.

There are two features which render this crime peculiarly abhorrent to the civilized world. The first is its magnitude; the other is the cold-blooded premeditation and careful deliberation with which it was planned.

One of the most remarkable psychological phenomena of the present war is the specious sophistry with which Germany has attempted to justify her multitudinous breaches of the above-mentioned humanitarian laws of war, and surely the most amazing instance of this is the fact that today, at this very hour, Germany is justifying this slaughter of innocent non-combatants by stating that she gave them full warning that she was going to perpetrate the deed. This is a new philosophy, indeed! Our laws in America have never considered that, because a man gave warning to a citizen that he was armed and was going to shoot him on sight, the slayer was thereby absolved from all responsibility. On the contrary, such warning is considered by the law as evidence of criminal intent.

We pointed out in a previous issue that for a blockade to be lawful it must be effective, and that to be effective it must be complete, that practically every ship of the enemy is stopped from entering or leaving its ports. But what are the facts? Since this so-called submarine blockade has been attempted, only one ship out of every two hundred and fifty entering and leaving British ports has been torpedoed. The blockade, therefore, is an utter failure, and hence, the sinking of the "Lusitania" under the existing conditions and the blotting out of the lives of her passengers is an act that is outside of the pale of legitimate warfare. At the bar of modern civilization, "the deep damnation of their taking off" will forever be written down as an act of unrelieved and most cruel murder.

We protested editorially in our last issue against the use of the phrase "war is war" to cover the inhuman violation of the rules of war which the sinking of the "Lusitania" is the climax. There is such a thing as chivalry in war—it is even possible, if one has to fight, to fight like a gentleman. There is a sense in which it can be said that war is a trial of strength and skill, governed by certain rules of the game, and that in this sense the contest, in spite of its atrocious horrors, can be carried on with a certain self-restraint and

nobility of spirit which, so far as may be, will rob it of some of its degradation. When it is said that every soldier should be "sportsmanlike," that statement carries an instant conviction to every member of that great Anglo-Celtic race which constitutes at once the backbone and the vast majority of the American people. Can it be that the Teutonic mind thinks otherwise? If, when two German students were facing each other for the sword contest, one of them suddenly threw his left hand forward and squirted vitriol into the eyes of his opponent, and then cut the blinded man's face to ribbons, would the body of German students applaud the act as an exhibition of ingenuity, forethought, and fighting efficiency?

When the German Grand General Staff, finding it could not break the allied line at Ypres by the legitimate methods of warfare, started to blind and suffocate the enemy with poisonous gases, is it possible that they did not know that the whole world outside of Germany (and, pray God, some inside of Germany) would denounce the trick as unfair, unchivalrous, and a relapse to long-abandoned methods of warfare—the "Greek fire" of the ancients, or, if you will, the "stink-pot" of the Chinaman?

Again, when the German navy found itself swept from the high seas and shut up in its ports; when it saw that after its initial successes, if its progress in the future could do no serious hurt to the warships of the enemy, was that any justification for its trampling on the humanitarian laws of war, and proceeding, in its baffled rage and fury, to sink the non-combatant merchant ships of the enemy, without even giving the passengers a chance for their lives?

Germany, through the German Foreign Office, has confessed its guilt by saying that which it knows to be untrue regarding the "Lusitania." It speaks of the "Lusitania" as "armament"—although its Intelligence Service long ago informed it that the "Lusitania" was unarmed—a fact which Collector Malone of the Port of New York has verified in an authorized interview.

As the French would say: "C'est écœurant, écœurant."

The Reneging of Italy's Navy

THE Italian navy of today is experiencing a period of vigorous renewal. The war in Libya, far from determining the interval of inactivity which so often follows a war, impelled Italy to fresh efforts and greater speed in her naval constructions; four dreadnoughts have already taken their place in the fleet, two others are about ready to enter into service, and four super-dreadnoughts are already in the initial stages.

The first dreadnought of the Italian navy was the "Dante Alighieri" armed with twelve 12-inch guns situated in four triple turrets.

After the "Dante Alighieri" came the "Giulio Cesare" and two others of her type, the "Leonardo da Vinci" and the "Giovanni Caboto"; all three of these carried thirteen 12-inch guns instead of the twelve guns of the "Dante Alighieri." The dreadnoughts of the "Giulio Cesare" type in the trial of their artillery gave most satisfactory results.

The plans of the "Leonardo da Vinci" and her two sister ships were the work of Edoardo Masena, whose early demise was a grave loss to Italian navy engineering, he having designed more than one half of the Italian fleet.

The principal characteristics of the three dreadnoughts of the "Giulio Cesare" type are as follows: Length over all, 523 feet; beam width, 83 feet; displacement, 22,700 tons; speed, 22 knots. The principal battery consists of thirteen 12-inch guns situated in three triple turrets and two twin turrets. The secondary battery is composed of eighteen 5.9-inch guns in casemates placed within armored bridge-houses; twenty 3-inch guns, and three torpedo tubes. The armor protection consists of a complete armor belt about 10 inches thick, tapering at the stern and diminishing in thickness toward the upper part. The motive power is furnished by Parsons turbines, capable of developing 24,000 horse-power. There is a normal fuel supply of 1,000 tons, and reserve bunkers with a capacity of another 1,500 tons.

Four dreadnoughts of nearly the same type as the "Giulio Cesare" are the "Vittorio Veneto" and the "Dulio," launched over three years ago, and now practically completed. The displacement and principal battery are the same, but the secondary battery is composed of 6-inch guns instead of the 5.9-inch guns of the "Giulio Cesare." These two sister ships are the work of the government shipyards of Spezia and Castellamar di Stabia.

From dreadnoughts, Italy has progressed confidently to super-dreadnoughts. As the *Revue des Armées* has noted in its columns, the Italian navy shows much forethought in all that pertains to possible developments in naval artillery. With these new ships—three in number—she has passed abruptly from the 12-inch gun to the 15-inch gun, without touching the intermediary caliber. Although Italy was the first to introduce

triple turrets in the navy, to her own surprise she has a return to twin turrets.

The super-dreadnoughts, one of which will bear a name of common interest to Italy and to the United States, that of "Christoforo Colombo," will have a displacement of 25,800 tons and will be armed with eight 15-inch guns and sixteen 5.9-inch guns. The estimated speed is 23 knots, but it is strongly hoped to increase this to 26 knots.

The great displacement of the super-dreadnoughts is owing to their high speed and heavy protection, the ship's bottom also being protected against explosives under water. It is maintained that no foreign battleship of corresponding type and period will be able to compete with this new ship in armor protection, and she is expected to sustain the reputation of the Italian navy for devoting special attention to the problem of highest speed. This new type of ship is the work of Edoardo Ferrati, who succeeded Edoardo Masena in the direction of the Corps of Italian Naval Engineering.

Following on the new super-dreadnought, studies will be initiated for the still greater battleship of the future, and the result will undoubtedly be a fresh achievement of Italian naval engineers, pioneers in resolving the most arduous problems of naval engineering and artillery. It should be remembered that the dreadnought type had its genesis in Italy in the "Vittorio Emanuele" type, and its precursors in the "Dulio" type of forty years ago. The *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, in an article published recently on the subject of the "Texas," recalled the fact that between 1880 and 1890 the Italian navy constructed the "Lepanto" and the "Italia," of 16,000 tons displacement, armed with four 17-inch guns and with a speed of 19 knots; in 1891 Italy armed the "Re Umberto" type with four 14-inch guns.

After all, allowing naturally for thirty years' progress in engineering and naval artillery, the super-dreadnought is but a return to those first conceptions which at the time seemed almost sheer folly, but which now justify themselves in the hands of the world.

The Italian navy, seconded by the enthusiasm of a people that never seek to evade or refuse an appeal for the national defense, has won back her place in the Mediterranean, that classic Latin sea, of which she was once conqueror and possessor. No longer ambitious for dominion or possession, Italy intends only to hold her place with dignity and firmness in that sea which bathes her coast for more than 1,200 miles and laps the shores of Libya, her new colonial possession.

Disease in Warfare

PROBABLY few other than medical observers realize fully the part disease is playing during the present world war, and will continue to play, when the war is done, by reason of the predispositions brought about by war's stresses. Although the medical military service is probably more perfected than in previous conflicts, yet several men are dying of disease to one slain by ordinance. Infection has indeed modified the course of all, and has abruptly terminated some wars. Campaigns which should have been successful have succeeded, have failed, because cholera, plague, typhoid, typhus, small-pox, malaria, dysentery, and yellow fever have cheated shot and shell of their victims. Montgomery and Arnold were not successful in invading Canada because too few were left for the assault when small-pox and dysentery had taken their quota. Napoleon in 1802 wanted to found an empire in our South, and could not because the San Domingo epidemics outgeneraled him, destroying 15,000 of his fine army. In our Mexican war less than 1,000 were killed or died of wounds, while nearly five thousand succumbed to the bacterial bullet. The British in the Crimea lost twenty-five men from disease to one from wounds in the Franco-Prussian war. Baseline's great army, if it had not succumbed at Metz, must have succumbed utterly to disease and starvation, while literally one half the invading Germans, with everything in their favor, were on the sick list. In the brief war with Spain, our dead from sickness were seven times more than from injury. In the Balkan war of several years ago the Bulgarian campaign broke down largely because of epidemics. There were 50,000 cases of cholera in one day. There was a more fatal factor than the Turkish resistance in checking the Bulgars at Chatalja.

And war's aftermath. The unusual physical stresses of war, and the enduring met of its bearing upon the mind, predispose to degeneration and degenerative diseases. Wherefore there is in the few years after every war unusual sickness and untold death among the survivors, from anemia, debility, liver, heart, kidney and other diseases. Tuberculosis has long maintained itself in its insidious and malign way, in the soldiers' large armies. Many soldiers now have this disease latent in them, either in bone, lung, or other organs, and are campaigning, or to appear soon after the war, and warfare is ended. Thus, when one considers the life destruction in war's carnage, and the more than that loss several fold by reason of disease.

Chaco

The University of Pennsylvania Amazon Expedition has made another journey into the unknown, and is now exploring the frontier regions of Brazil, Peru, and Bolivia. The expedition expects to spend six months in that region and to return to civilization at Pare.

Camera in the Stomach.—The production of camera sufficiently small to be swallowed and constructed to photograph the interior of the stomach is referred to in current publications, U. S. patent No. 619,792, issued February 21st, 1909, for the subject and included illustrating means, and a number of German patents have been issued for camera apparatus adapted for this purpose.

Licensing Caged Birds.—Writing on this subject in *Bird News* and *Nest*, Mr. W. H. Hudson mentions the common idea that a caged bird when liberated is speedily set upon and ill-treated by wild birds. It appears that the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds receives many letters of inquiry on this subject from persons who would like to pursue the humane hobby of freeing birds from captivity. The writer mentions several observations of his own and of others which appear to show that there is no truth in the popular notion.

Mr. Walter G. Davis, the veteran North American director of the Argentine Meteorological Service, recently retired on a pension, and was succeeded by Señor Martha Gil, described in the Argentine newspapers as a wealthy amateur astronomer and astronomer, much interested in long-range weather prediction. Argentina has for many years possessed the only national meteorological service comparable in scope and efficiency to those of the principal European countries and the United States. Its future will be watched with much interest.

Lead Poisoning in Storage Battery Factories.—A bulletin recently issued by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics shows that lead poisoning is far too prevalent in the storage battery factories of the United States. While in the largest factory of this kind in Germany the rate of lead poisoning is less than 1 per 100 employees, and in Great Britain about 3 in 100, in the five largest factories in this country the rate, based on reports known to be incomplete, is about 100 in 100. The difference must be due to the neglect in the United States of factory sanitation and of personal care of the men employed. The bulletin in question points out the sources of danger and the best means of minimizing the same.

Mosquito-destroying Solutions have been the subject of recent extensive investigations in Germany with reference to their effects on aquatic animals and birds. It is found that petroleum has no poisonous effect upon the lower animals living in the water, while the soluble components of asphalt, carbolio-fene asphalt, larviciol A, and larviciol B kill all creatures living in the water down to a certain depth (many times greater in the case of larviciol than in that of asphalt). The most destructive of these substances, however, have no more lasting effect upon the lower forms of aquatic life than the natural drying up of stagnant ponds. On the other hand, it is claimed that water covered with a layer of any of the substances above named does no harm to native birds, game or domestic animals that may happen to drink of it.

Robusta Coffee is recommended by P. J. Wester, in the *Philippine Agricultural Review*, for the rehabilitation of the coffee industry in the Philippines, where, as elsewhere in the eastern hemisphere, the industry received a serious setback from the coffee blight. Robusta coffee, also known as Congo coffee, and believed by Wildeman to be a variety of *Coffea canephora*, was discovered in the Belgian Congo, and seeds were sent to Brussels, where plants were first offered for sale in 1901. It soon found its way to Java, and today the Java plantations consist almost entirely of this variety. The annual crop increased from 183,000 kilograms in 1900 to about 16,000,000 in 1912. While not immune from blight, it grows well and produces abundant crops notwithstanding the presence of the blight. The Philippine Bureau of Agriculture is now distributing seed imported from Java.

The term "Indian Summer" is the origin of this expression, like that of the word "harvest" has been the subject of much research. It has been traced back only as far as the latter part of the eighteenth century, and it did not become common until after the first decade of the nineteenth. Many explanations of the name have been offered, all of which assume that the term "Indian" used in this connection is derived from the American Indians. A recent note in the *Monthly Weather Review* calls attention to a totally different use of this term, in which the reference is not to the American Indians, but to East India. Under the British Board of Trade Regulations, one of the load-lines marked on ships below the main deck is the line below the maximum depth to which vessels may be loaded for export during the "Indian summer" in the East Indies. How long the term "Indian summer" has been used in this sense is not recorded in any dictionary, nor, apparently, is it mentioned in any nautical work. Is it possible that the term "Indian summer" was so named by the East India Company, the most prominent of the vessels in the East Indies? Is it a coincidence in India?

Automobile

Around Cape Cod by Motor Car.—An extensive automobile passenger service will be maintained this summer running from Boston to Provincetown on the tip of Cape Cod. The route will go from Boston, via Brockton, Middleborough, Wareham, Buzzards Bay, Woods Hole, Hyannis, Chatham, Orleans to Provincetown. The line is to be covered by motorbuses, running on the five-cent unit fare plan, with fare stations at fairly generous intervals.

Pump, Fan and Horn Combined.—The tendency of automobile manufacturers, for reasons of economy and simplicity, to combine several of the accessories in a single unit, has resulted in a further interesting combination, namely a horn-pump-fan unit. The fan-horn was recently described in the *Scientific American*, and now there has been added a power driven air pump. The triple combination may be attached to any car, without additional machine work. The pump is of the single air-cooled cylinder type, 1½-inch bore by 1½-inch stroke, of gray cast iron.

Electric Vulcanizer with Thermometer.—One of the reasons why steam vulcanizers for motorists use have not been so popular is the fact that they can so easily be overheated. One of the new electric vulcanizing devices brought out by an American manufacturer includes a thermometer in the heating plate. When the temperature rises above 275 degrees, the current should be turned off. The vulcanizer itself consists of a U-shaped metal holding on its two ends the vulcanizing plate and an opposition plate, the rubber being inserted between the two plates.

Motorcars Are Now Everywhere.—The last two strongholds of "anti-motorists" have finally succumbed, and the automobile is now admitted into every nook and cranny of the United States. The last barriers to fall will be those of the Yellowstone National Park, which is expected to open for the motorcar on August 1st. On April 25th, of this year, Bar Harbor, Me., and Mt. Desert, opened their roads to the hated motor car. At the last session of the Legislature a bill was passed, admitting automobiles on the island, the popular summer resort on the Maine coast.

An Oilcan With Bellows.—Why hasn't somebody thought of this before? That is the involuntary exclamation of everyone who has had an opportunity of viewing the latest development in the line of oilcans—namely, an oilcan with bellows. Ordinarily the bottom of the oilcan of commerce has but a movement through a small fraction of an inch, and this small motion is relied upon to force the oil through the narrow opening at the top. A new oilcan, however, has just appeared on the market which has a metal bellows as oil container, which is held extended by a small spring. Pressure upon the bottom of the oil can forces the bellows together and the bottom of the can upward, with the result that a strong and steady stream of oil can be injected where desirable.

Ball Bearing Imports.—One of the most puzzling features of the import statistics is undoubtedly the continued strength in ball bearings, imported from Germany. The majority of the imported ball bearings come from the land of the Kaiser, and despite the embargo which is known to have been declared by the German government on anti-friction bearings, and the complete throttling of commerce from German ports, imports of ball bearings in February of this year were higher than in the same month of 1914. Importers say that all the bearings sent to this country at the present time have been manufactured in the Italian branch plants of the larger German companies, or have been shipped quietly via Italy. The value of imported ball bearings in February was \$197,842.

Speedometer for Speed Control.—Speedometers, as a rule, only tell the motorist when he is exceeding the speed limit; they do not prevent him from doing so. On commercial motor vehicles, the speed question is often of greater importance than that of overloading, and one of the large speedometer manufacturers has hit upon the happy idea of combining the indicator of speed with an arrangement that will prevent the driver from going faster than the device has been set for. The device consists of a Yale lock, which can be set at any desired speed from zero to 80 miles an hour. When the indicated speed is reached by the speedometer hand, an electric contact is established, which energizes a magnet located in a small box, through which the rod from the carburetor throttle passes. This rod is split within the case and one end passes freely in a sleeve fitting tightly over the other end of the rod. Normally, connection between the two is made by a pin that passes through an opening in the sleeve and free end of the rod. The closing of the electric contact when the speed limit is reached lifts this pin out of engagement and breaks the connection between the rod and the sleeve. The throttle thereupon closes slowly of its own weight, and no amount of manipulation of hand or foot control will be communicated to the carburetor. When the car has fallen below the speed limit, however, the speedometer contact is released, the magnet permits the pin to fall back into its place and the throttle rod is continuous once more.

Astronomy

A Member of the Late Sir David Gill is in preparation. The compiler states that ample material is at hand respecting the late astronomer's public and scientific work, but that notes—narrative, historical, anecdotal or appreciative—in regard to his personality will be gratefully received by Mr. George Forbes, 11 Little College Street, Westminster, London.

London Skies in War Time.—One of the many "by-products" of the great war is the opportunity which has of late been given to astronomers living in and near London to observe the heavens with comparatively little interference due to city lights. At a recent meeting of the British Astronomical Association attention was called to the fact that the zodiacal light had become an easily observed feature of London skies, whereas before the days of Zeppelin raids it was practically invisible to Londoners.

Saturn Seen Oval With the Naked Eye. A correspondent of Mr. E. Walter Maunder, the English astronomer, claims to have frequently seen Saturn distinctly oval with the naked eye during last winter. The position of the rings has been favorable for such an observation during the last three or four years, and it is within the power of strong opera glasses. A naked-eye observation is somewhat questionable, but an analysis of the straight image due to astigmatism might explain it. It would be interesting to hear from other keen-eyed observers on this subject.

Photometry of a Meteor.—In *Astronomische Nachrichten* No. 4789, E. Hertzsprung records an interesting study of the fluctuations observed in the brightness of a meteor, the absolute path of which in the atmosphere was known from simultaneous observations at widely separated stations. The meteor, which was about 100 miles from the earth, was photographed on a plate near the middle of which were also photographed 66 stars of the Praesepe cluster. These stars, ranging in brightness from the 7.46 to the 10.40 magnitude, furnished the means of very accurate comparison of the meteor's brightness, the variations of which are shown graphically in the article.

Achievements of the Mount Wilson Observatory.—No portion of the funds of the Carnegie Institution of Washington has been more fruitfully applied than that which created and has maintained the Mount Wilson Solar Observatory, in California. As Prof. Hale, the director of the observatory, says in his last annual report, he and his colleagues have heretofore devoted a large share of their time to devising and testing methods and apparatus, and these are now being applied to solar investigations which were formerly studied with altogether inadequate means. In a forthcoming book, "Ten Years' Work of a Mountain Observatory," Prof. Hale will outline the results attained during the first decade of experiments and observations. During the year 1914, which began a second decade, many noteworthy results were achieved. A beginning was made in the application to solar phenomena of Stark's capital discovery of the effect of an electric field on radiation. In stellar astronomy discoveries have been made which promise to furnish the means of determining a star's distance simply by measuring its brightness and the relative intensities of certain lines in its spectrum. Spectroscopic studies in the splendid laboratory attached to the observatory have shed new light on astrophysical problems. The report also mentioned enumerates no less than fifty-nine definite achievements as the fruit of a single year's work.

Electric Furnace Spectra.—In the elaborate studies of electric furnace spectra which have been made at the Mount Wilson Observatory in connection with solar research problems the latest spectra to be investigated are those of vanadium and chromium. The temperatures used in these studies are classified as low (2,000-2,150 deg. Cent.), medium (2,300-2,550 deg. Cent.), and high (2,800-3,000 deg. Cent.). With vanadium, 2,000 deg. Cent. appears to be about the lower limit for the appearance of a spectrum, though the lines produced at this temperature are fairly numerous. In the case of chromium, the melting-point of which is considerably lower, temperatures between 1,700 and 1,900 deg. Cent. suffice to give a number of the most persistent lines in the spectrum. The variations of these spectra with temperature, together with comparisons between arc and furnace spectra, have recently been described by Arthur S. King. The leading features in the development of the vanadium and chromium spectra are similar to those previously reported for iron and titanium, the vanadium spectrum being very similar to the latter. The chromium spectrum near the temperature at which the vapor begins to radiate shows a predominance of lines which are relatively strong at low temperature and strengthen very slowly with increasing temperature. The extension of the spectra of both elements into the ultra-violet increases as the temperature rises, this has also been observed in the case of iron and titanium. The ability of lines to show self-reversal in the furnace distinctly increases with decreasing wavelength.

Canada Balsam

THE name balsam, as popularly applied to various vegetable products, is familiar as a household word. The Canada balsam is one of the best known kinds, yet how few persons know anything about the history of this product beyond the fact that it possesses a strong balsamic odor. Canada balsam is a product of the balsam fir tree (*Abies balsamea*) of the northeastern States, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York contribute largely toward the annual yield. The name would indicate that it was produced chiefly in Canada, but, although a good deal of balsam is collected in the Provinces of Quebec and Ontario, practically all of the Canada balsam used in the United States is gathered in the State of Maine, where the balsam fir finds its best development.

Canada balsam, known by the gatherers chiefly as gum or balsam, is one of the minor forest products, which is usually not taken into account in calculating the annual returns of the balsam fir forests of a State. In the aggregate more than 5,000 gallons are collected annually in the north woods and a good many families depend upon the collection of this gum as an important part of their requirements for a livelihood.

The method of collecting the balsam is quite unique. Those who are familiar with the balsam fir tree recognize it by its thin, more or less smooth, close, grayish-brown bark marked by numerous projecting resin pockets or blisters. These blisters are filled with a limpid, very transparent and odorous resin which at ordinary temperature flows out freely when the projecting walls of the blisters are ruptured. The balsam gatherers go about from tree to tree rupturing all the resin pockets on the accessible parts of the tree by means of a hollow tube about three eighths of an inch in diameter. The tube is held over the ruptured part of the blister for a few moments until the balsam is all drained through the hollow tube into the can below.

As a rule, entire families of balsam gatherers go into the woods where they camp for two or three months of each year. Their baggage consists chiefly of provisions, a stove, and some bedding. The women remain in camp to do the cooking and to strain the gum; they also transport the gum upon their backs in canteens of five gallons each to the nearest village or store, where it is sold at the rate of about \$2 a gallon in exchange for provisions. The men and boys go to pierce the blisters. The boys mount into the branches, while the older men work about the lower part of the tree. A large balsam fir tree rich in gum yields as much as a pound of balsam, but on an average the yield of each tree is not over eight ounces. One man with the help of two sons can gather from sunrise to sunset a gallon of balsam, but the man who works alone has done well when he has collected half a gallon.

Balsam cannot be gathered when it rains, not even on the same day, because the branches are wet and the water dripping into the gum renders it milky and unsalable. It is collected from June to September or to about the time snow begins to fall or the weather turns cold, the gum does not flow during low temperature. It is sometimes gathered as early as May from trees standing in the open where the sun's rays can strike them. The trees are not worked for two years in succession, because they require two or three years' rest before they can be tapped again, and then they always yield very much less than the first time.

Only the poorest inhabitants and a few of the Indians are engaged in this work. Probably not one of the collectors know what the balsam is used for after it reaches the ultimate consumer. The chief uses of the Canada balsam after it has been purified by proper straining, are for mounting preparations for the microscope and as a cement for glass in optical work.

An Electrical Umpire

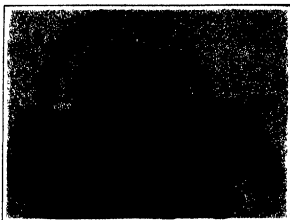
A DEVICE for electrically registering balls and strikes, and making no mistakes, has been invented by a Los Angeles baseball enthusiast which has received the endorsement of Western fans and players. It is not used in the game, however, but in practice, or as an amusement device and it is very popular for both purposes.

The construction is very simple, consisting of a heavy wooden backstop eight feet in height which is surrounded by a netting to catch wild balls. It stands at the end of a sixty-five foot alley, the distance from which the ball is thrown on the field. The surface is painted with a dark background on which are represented a catcher, a right-hand batter and a left-hand batter, thus affording practice for either variety.

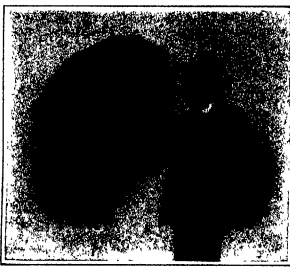
The registering device is a panel 17 inches wide and three feet four inches high, which occupies the space exactly above the plate and covers the range between the knee and shoulder of the average man. The panel is not outlined or in any other way made conspicuous but the eye of the pitcher is supposed to pick out this invisible field just as in a real game. If he throws the ball a fraction of an inch outside this panel, there is no sound but the thud of the ball, but if he hits it, an electric buzzer records a strike. The ball is returned automatically to the player after each throw.

The Heavens on a Parabol

GEOGRAPHERS have struggled long with the problem of mapping the spherical earth on a flat surface with the result that the public has acquired a most distorted impression of relative geographical positions. It is now admitted that the earth cannot be studied properly without a globe. In the same way efforts have



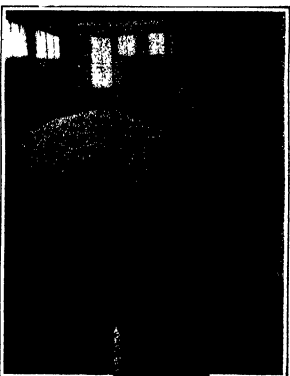
Revolving celestial globe for school use.



The northern and southern celestial hemispheres.

been made to depict the heavens upon a flat map with the result that many of the constellations are so distorted as to be positively unrecognizable.

Sometimes ago a writer in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN suggested that a common umbrella might serve as a celestial globe, or at least half a globe, by having the stars painted on it in their proper relative positions. This would provide a very handy star map which could be carried to the point of observation in folded position and then opened out to semi-spherical form representing the apparent form of the heavens. By pointing the um-



Pitcher's practicing alley.

brella stick at the North Star, the umbrella could be readily moved to a position corresponding with the heavens at the particular time, and then it would be a simple matter to pick out the various constellations.

This idea has been further improved upon by O. F. Barcus of Shanghai, China, who sends us the two photographs here reproduced. A dark blue silk parasol is used, and on it the stars are either painted or embroidered. Each parasol represents one half of the celestial sphere, and by using two a map of the entire heavens is obtained. For the purpose of teaching astronomy to school children, the parasol may be set in a table as shown in one of the photographs. The plane of the observer's horizon is represented by the table top, which has an opening cut in it, through which part of the parasol projects. The umbrella stick is pointed directly toward the North Pole of the heavens, and makes an angle with the surface of the table equal to the latitude of the place. By means of clockwork the parasol is revolved at the same speed as the apparent revolution of the heavens, and a small image of the sun placed in its proper position on the parasol (as may be found by referring to a nautical almanac) shows by its meridian the time of day on the dial at the back of the parasol. If the sun's image is placed accurately the revolving parasol will show just how far north or south of the east and west points the sun rises and sets during the year and at what time before six A. M. and after six P. M. the sun appears above the horizon.

For use in the field to identify the constellations, it is preferable to have the stars painted on the inner face of the umbrella. The parasol is provided with a narrow ribbon which may be used to determine the position of any point, the ribbon being divided into degrees by which declination may be reckoned. The ribbon is movable about the center stick of the parasol and indicates Right Ascension by hour and minute divisions marked on the rim of the parasol.

The Distribution of Gases in the Bunsen Flame

THE Bunsen burner, in which the gas is mixed with air in order to produce complete combustion and a non-luminous flame, is no longer confined to chemical and physical laboratories, but has passed into general household use, for every incandescent gas burner is essentially a Bunsen burner. So, also, is the gas stove, which is happily and rapidly absorbing the incandescent method of cooking over a coal fire. If the air inlet of a Bunsen burner is completely stopped the flame immediately becomes luminous and yellow, and blackens objects exposed to it. If the air inlet is partially stopped, its change takes place only at the tip of the flame. At the last meeting of the German Physical Society Prof. Halber discussed the question of the blackening of the tip and not at the side of the flame. As the blackening is caused by incomplete combustion, which is due to insufficiency of air, the composition of the gaseous mixture must vary in different parts of the flame, so that it is less favorable to complete combustion at the tip than at the base. Chemical analysis, in fact, proves that the composition is different at the tip and at the side of the flame. Experiments with other combustible gases, hydrogen for example, show that the ascending column of the gaseous mixture separates, the heavier constituent going to the axis of the column, the lighter to the periphery. This separation is not caused by the upward flow of the gaseous mixture, for it does not occur unless the jet is lighted. It is due to the action of the flame, that is, of the combustion, which causes variations in pressure and density, in consequence of which the streamlines are curved even before they enter the conical flame. The result is an acceleration, analogous to that produced in a centrifugal separator, which explains the peculiar distribution of gas and air. In the discussion Prof. Warburg suggested that differences of temperature in different parts of the flame might play a part in the action.

State Department Activity in Trade-mark Matters

THE U. S. Ministers to the various republics of South and Central America have received requests from the State Department to urge on the part of the countries to which they are accredited the ratification of the Buenos Ayres Trade-mark Convention of 1910. It appears that ratification by but one more of the republics of the northern group is necessary to make it effective or operative in the northern countries, and efforts to this end are being made in Costa Rica and in Salvador.

The ratification of the convention is important to American manufacturers since, as we have before pointed out, one of the American countries it is the one who first registers the mark who is entitled to it in such country irrespective of any use of the mark and even against one who has well established and recognized right in the market in other countries. The Buenos Ayres convention arranges for one trade-mark office at Havana, Cuba, for the northern countries, and another at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, for the southern countries, and in the event of ratification by the United States, the office at Havana will doubtless be opened in the near future.

Visible Speech

The Eye Seeing and the Rule Measuring the Difference Between Sounds

By Prof. A. L. Kroeber, Department of Anthropology, University of California

ON January 31st, 1914, there closed at the University of California the first exhibit of "visible speech" ever attempted on a large scale, and with a view to intelligibility by the non-technical public. "Visible speech" is more than ordinary writing or printing. It represents the fruits of scientific endeavor to represent human language in such a way that the eye can see, and the rule measure, the difference between sounds. Mechanical processes are employed to convert the air-waves which constitute sounds into graphic tracings and diagrams that permit of classification and analysis.

The most important apparatus used for this purpose is that devised by the French Abbé Rousselot, one of the founders of the science of modern phonetics. The principle of this mechanism, like that of most useful inventions, is exceedingly simple. Essentially it is a phonograph constructed not for the purpose of producing indentations in a wax-like material which will subsequently reproduce the actual sounds uttered, but intended to record in enlarged and visible form the air movements and vibrations which are the physical basis of these same sounds. A mouthpiece and tube very much like those used in the commercial graphophone convey the sound waves to a tambour or diaphragm which is set in corresponding motion. The center of this diaphragm, which for some purposes is made of glass and for others is a membrane of soft rubber, bears a pin to which is fastened a slender straw tipped with a fine-pointed needle shaved from a piece of horn. This needle operates on a revolving cylinder of this familiar

kymograph type, carrying a paper coated with that most delicate of all surfaces, soot deposited from a candle flame (Fig. 1a). When the instrument is properly attuned, even the faintest tremors of the air occasioned by scarcely audible vibrations of the vocal cords, produce motions of the needle point sufficiently large to scratch into the soot surface a fine white line whose undulations are visible to the naked eye. As soon as a tracing, or set of them, have been recorded, the paper carrying the perishable legend is passed through a bath of dilute shellac, and on drying has become permanently fixed and hardened.

The Dying Indian Dialects.

The California exhibit is unique in representing the first and probably the most persistent endeavor to use this mechanical means of recording speech for the study and preservation of the fast-perishing native dialects of the American Indians. Very different in their sound from most European languages, these tongues are so peculiar in many respects that their examination by mechanical means has proved of the greatest value.

The University of California has been able to amass a collection of some ten thousand tracings of Indian words which will be even more highly prized in times to come when the languages to which they refer are merely a memory.

Nose, Throat, and Mouth.

Perhaps the most valuable of all tracings are obtained by the method of simultaneous recording. Tubes leading from the Adam's apple or nose are both operated on diaphragms whose needle points have been placed parallel with the point which traces the record from the mouth. Nose records offer little difficulty, a glass bulb attached to the end of the tube being slipped into one nostril while the speaker or subject holds the other nostril shut with his finger. In all of the following illustrations which contain nose or throat records, the fact is indicated in the diagram itself.

Continental and English *r*, although written and printed with the same character of the Roman alphabet, differ very thoroughly. The acquisition of the French or German *r* is usually of considerable difficulty to the English speaking person, whereas an abnormally correct enunciation of the English sound is almost a physical impossibility to all those attempting to acquire this speech in addition to their continental mother tongue after the age of about twenty to twenty-five. The English and German *s* sounds in Fig. 9 are particularly interesting in this connection.

The Kanaka dialect of the Marshall Islands in the South Seas shows an entirely new type of the familiar sounds *d* and *t* (Fig. 7). It has been determined that they are absolutely identical in method of formation,

except that for *t* the tongue is held against the gums for a period averaging about one third of a second, whereas in *d* the same period of tongue contact lasts only about one

(Continued on page 340.)

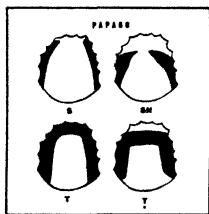


Fig. 2

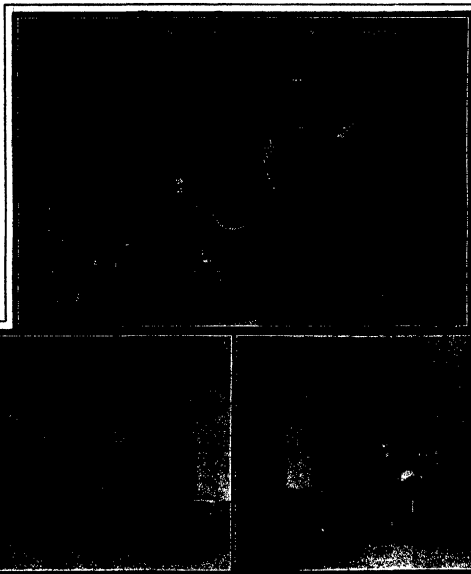


Fig. 1a

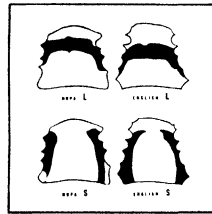


Fig. 3

Fig. 3b

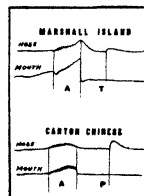


Fig. 4

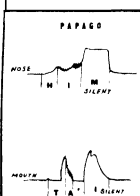


Fig. 5

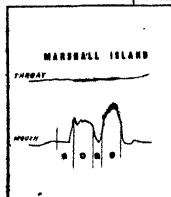


Fig. 6

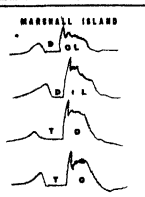


Fig. 7



Fig. 8

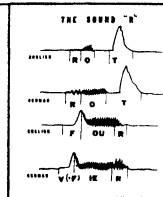


Fig. 9

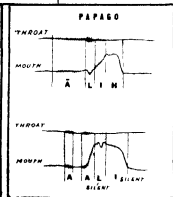


Fig. 10

Fig. 1 shows the apparatus in use. Fig. 1a is a side view of the apparatus, showing the carbon coated paper on the cylinder, and a record line scratched on it. Fig. 1b is an end view of the apparatus. Fig. 2—"Paintrags," or false palate records. Fig. 3—Other records secured by use of the false palate. Fig. 4—Records of nasal *p*, *t*, and *k* sounds. Fig. 5—"Sifted," or alveolar sounds. Fig. 6—Records of two pronunciations of the same sound. Fig. 7—New types of familiar *d* and *t* sounds. Fig. 8—Lip photographs of vowels. Fig. 9—Records of English and German *r* sounds. Fig. 10—Influence of fully voiced vowel on succeeding sounds.

Visible speech.

Actual and Theoretical Ranges of the United States Coast Defense Guns

By the courtesy of Brigadier-General William Crozier, Chief of Ordnance of the United States Army, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN is enabled to present a most interesting diagram, showing both the actual and theoretical ranges of the rifles and mortars with which our coast defenses are armed. The actual ranges are those which can be covered under existing conditions and with those increases in the possible elevation of the guns which are now being made. The theoretical ranges, or maximum distances to which the projectiles could be fired, are those which would be secured were the mortars so constructed that the guns could be elevated to forty-five degrees.

In the table accompanying the diagram, column 1 contains the trajectory numbers corresponding to the numbers written just below the base line of the diagram, and it should be noted that the vertical and horizontal scale are the same, so that the trajectories, as shown, are an exact reproduction to scale of the line of flight followed by the projectiles.

At the time when the 12-inch rifles and mortars were built for our fortifications, no such guns were carried on naval ships as are to be found mounted today. Seven to ten thousand yards was considered the maximum possible range at which warships could carry out effective artillery practice, and consequently, it was considered that if our heavy coast defense guns were given a maximum range of thirteen thousand yards, it would enable our defenses to bring the enemy under very accurate fire long before he could get within effective bombarding range. Consequently, the maximum elevation for our rifles was set at a point (10 degrees) corresponding to 13,000 yards for a

raised the possible range. Increasing the elevation from ten to fifteen degrees makes it possible to increase the range of the 1,070 shell with an initial velocity of 2,250 foot-seconds from 13,000 yards to over 17,000 yards. Again, by using a 700-pound shell with an initial velocity of 2,700 foot-seconds and an extreme elevation of ten degrees, we get a range of about 15,500 yards, and by increasing the elevation to 15 degrees the range with the same shell and the same velocity increases to over 10,000 yards.

When the 14-inch gun was introduced the mounts were all constructed so as to permit of 15 degrees elevation, and the range of this gun when firing a 1,000-pound shell with a velocity of 2,300 foot-seconds is over 10,000 yards. If a lighter shell of 1,200 pounds weight is used, the initial velocity goes up to 2,775 foot-seconds and the range becomes over 21,000 yards.

The great 16-inch gun, with 15 degrees elevation, can throw its 2,400-pound shell to a distance of 15,500 yards, and a light 1,800-pound shell to a distance of about 21,000 yards.

By increasing the length of the 12-inch gun from 35 to 40 calibers, and increasing the powder charge the velocities, both with the 1,070- and the 700-pound projectiles, and consequently the range, have been greatly increased. Thus with ten degrees elevation, the 40-caliber, 12-inch gun throws a 1,070-pound shell to a distance of 14,500 yards and with 15 degrees elevation to a distance of 20,000 yards. The lighter 700-pound shell fired with an initial velocity of 3,100 feet per second would have a range with ten degrees elevation of 18,000 yards and with 15 degrees of 22,000 yards. The 12-inch mortars, which are so mounted that they can be fired with elevations up to sixty degrees, can fire a 1,040-pound shell to a distance of 11,750 yards,

do not remember just how many times it would reach in its flight its extreme altitude of about 15 miles, and that it would not fall to earth until it had covered a horizontal distance of forty miles.

Such a gun would, of course, be impracticable, for the reason that the erosion due to the enormous heat of the gases, would wear out the rifling and spoil the accuracy of the gun before very many rounds had been fired.

In this connection it is interesting to note that on April 19th, 1902, on Krupp's practice ground at Middelburg, in the presence of the Emperor, a round was fired from a 24-caliber coast gun to an angle of elevation of 44 degrees. The range was measured and found to be 22,120 yards. Furthermore, as far back as 1886, certain rounds known as the "Jubilee shots" were fired at Middelburg with a 0.2-inch wire-wound gun. The projectile weighed 350 pounds, the muzzle velocity was 2,300 feet per second. Three shots, fired at 25 degrees elevation, gave ranges of 20,223, 21,048, and 21,058 yards, respectively, and the observed time of flight was 68.45 seconds. Our chart shows that the Dunkirk range of 22½ miles for a 12-inch shell was perfectly possible, for we have plenty of guns, which, if mounted for that long distance, could give even greater ranges.

The Current Supplement

THE development of the aeroplane continues to be a matter of widespread importance and many will appreciate the opportunity of the article on European Aeronautical Laboratories in the current issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2905, for May 22nd, 1915, to learn something of the methods followed in Europe for the scientific investigations of the many problems yet to be solved. Measuring Distances in War

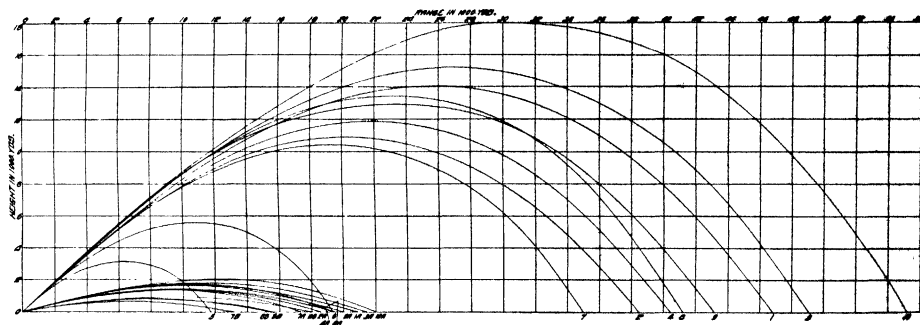


Diagram showing the actual and theoretical ranges of the coast-defense guns of the United States.
Note—The numbers written below the base line of diagram correspond to those given in the first column of the accompanying table under the heading "Trajectory Number."

12-inch gun, firing a 1,070-ton projectile with a muzzle velocity of 2,250 feet per second. The resulting trajectory is marked 7H on the diagram. The 12-inch, 15-caliber mortar had a maximum range when firing a 1,040-pound shell with 1,200 foot-seconds velocity, of about 11,750 yards.

With the rapid increase in the range, fire and accuracy of naval guns which has taken place in the past few years, it became necessary to increase the range of our coast defense guns. This could be done in two ways: by decreasing the weight of the shell, thereby insuring an increase in its velocity, or by maintaining the weight of the shell and increasing the elevation of the gun or by both. A study of the diagram and its accompanying table will show to what a remarkable extent the use of these methods has in-

creased by using a 700-pound shell, the range can be increased to over 10,000 yards.

If there were any occasion for using the maximum theoretical range of the 12-inch rifles, and they were mounted so that they could be elevated to 45 degrees, some very surprising results could be obtained. Thus:

The 12-inch gun of 35 calibers would throw its 1,070-pound shell to an extreme range of 35,000 yards. The 16-inch gun would throw a 2,400-pound shell to a distance of 38,500 yards. The 14-inch gun would carry its 1,000-pound projectile to a distance of 40,500 yards. The 15-caliber 12-inch gun would throw its 700-pound projectile 41,000 yards, and the 40-caliber 12-inch at 45 degrees would throw its 1,070 shell 45,000 yards. The 16-inch gun, using the lighter 1,800-pound shell, would have a range of 46,750 yards, and the 14-inch, firing its lighter shell, 1,200 pounds, would carry to a distance of 40,000 yards.

The most spectacular result would be obtained with the 40-caliber, 12-inch gun, which, if it used a 700-pound shell, fired with an initial velocity of 3,100 feet per second, at an elevation of 45 degrees, would throw the projectile to a vertical height of 18,000 yards, or say 10½ miles, and it would cover a horizontal distance of 55,000 yards, or, say, 31½ miles.

Is this the limit? Not by any means. It would be possible to build a gun which would carry to far greater distances than these. Thus, the writer remembers several years ago reading a letter from Col. Ingalls, probably the greatest expert in ballistics in our army or in that of any army in the world, in which he gave some most astounding, but perfectly reliable figures. He had been asked to determine the trajectory of a Brown, 10-inch, wire-wound gun, with a very large powder chamber and the enormous muzzle velocity of 4,000 feet per second. He found that the projectile (we

describes the ingenious instruments, generally known as "range finders," by means of which the distance of an enemy's position can be accurately ascertained, and explains the principles involved. There is also a description of the periscope that gives considerable information in regard to different types, and diagrams showing their construction. Another interesting article, that is also fully illustrated, is that describing a very ingenious telephotographic apparatus by which transmitted letters or characters are directly visible to the eye. The Romance of the Motion Picture gives some interesting facts about the early history and the development of this popular form of amusement. There is an interesting description of how the big guns used in our dreadnoughts and coast defense forts are made, guns that will throw a projectile twenty to thirty miles, and which are claimed to be the best in the world. A communication from a correspondent furnishes a description of America's first submarine, and a graphic account of an attempt to operate it in New York harbor. There is another of the invaluable lectures on "Atoms and Ions," by Mr. J. J. Thomson; and the article on the Pathology of mental disorders is concluded. There is also the usual number of shorter but valuable notes on various topics.

An Interesting Panoramic Camera.—Joseph Boring of Washington, D. C., has patented, No. 1,120,731, a novel panoramic photographic camera for taking one perspective film as the object would appear to the eye of an observer, by means of a lens which, in its movement, changes its focal length. The camera is provided with a compound objective which revolves about a vertical axis and has means for changing the angle of vision of one or more of its component lenses from 300 to 180 degrees of rotation during the exposure.

TABLE OF BALLISTICS OF THE U. S. COAST DEFENSE GUNS

Trajectory Number	Gun Caliber	Length Calibers	Proj. Weight Pounds	Muzzle Vel. Feet per Second	Elevation Degrees
1	14-inch	35	1,000	2,300	15
1A	14-inch	35	1,800	2,000	15
2	14-inch	35	2,400	2,250	45
2A	14-inch	35	2,400	2,250	15
3	12-inch	40	1,200	2,775	45
3A	12-inch	40	1,000	2,775	15
4	14-inch	40	1,000	2,300	45
4A	14-inch	40	1,000	2,300	15
5	12-inch mortar	15	1,040	1,200	45
6	12-inch mortar	15	1,040	1,200	15
7	12-inch	35	1,070	2,250	45
7A	12-inch	35	1,070	2,250	15
8	12-inch	35	1,070	2,250	15
8A	12-inch	35	1,070	2,250	15
9	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	45
9A	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10A	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10B	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10C	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10D	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10E	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10F	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10G	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10H	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10I	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10J	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10K	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10L	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10M	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10N	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10O	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10P	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10Q	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10R	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10S	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10T	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10U	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10V	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10W	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10X	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10Y	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15
10Z	12-inch	40	1,070	2,700	15

Naval Lessons of the War

Other editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence columns. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.

Naval Lessons of the War

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:
I perhaps seem a little premature at the present time to formulate any positive conclusions that may be drawn from the naval operations of the European war or to supply them in the naval construction of the near future, but there is one vital truth, it seems to me, which has at last become unmistakable in its convincing evidence of actual battle record after several years of theoretical and academic deductions.

It is the old question of the future battleship, always in controversy, with the extremes of the very fast all-gun gun but lightly armored battle-cruiser and the much slower but heavier armed and armored dreadnought. The merits pro and con of these two classes of capital ships, their examples in the different navies of the world, and lately the gradual merging of the two types have been written in your columns many times, so I will not repeat them here, but I believe that what I believe is most important, i. e., the immediate realization on the part of the United States naval designers of the inferiority of even the latest of our big-gun vessels and publicity on this question through such papers as the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

Our designers have always gone on the theory that, in considering all the points of armament, armor speed and radius of action, speed was the least important factor, and that as some one feature must be sacrificed to attain the best result for the purpose of our navy, speed should be considered last of all. Thus, all of our dreadnoughts, from the "Michigans" right down through the two "Pennsylvanias" launching this year and the three "Californias" authorized last year, have the heaviest armament possible for their displacement and maximum broadside fire, and the heaviest armor of any ships of the same class and date in the world, but speeds of only from 18 to 22 knots. To be sure, we need battle-cruisers, but not being able to get them without sacrificing our battleship appropriations, we should have concentrated even further on the mere theory of the thing. Now, the war has driven it home to us and not too late to take effect on the design of the two new vessels authorized this year if action is taken at once, which ships, if we refuse to change our ideas, will probably be merely slightly improved "Californias."

To-day the 14-inch and 15-inch guns are the accepted naval armament standards; the 16-inch gun is being experimented with and will arrive shortly. The sea engagements of the present war have shown that no armor can withstand the modern armor-piercing shell of large size even at extreme ranges, that the new high explosive shells are more destructive than we were expected, and that it is no longer a question of being able to keep afloat by taking a lot of hammering and pounding back in return, but simply of landing a few salvoes on the enemy first and sinking him, or you get sunk yourself. This simply means big caliber guns, lots of them, and ability to open fire at the range of your choosing, not the enemy's; in other words, superior or at least equal speed. The ordnance makers have at last far outstripped the armor manufacturers and armor becomes a minor factor. In the fight off Coronel and the Falkland Islands the comparatively heavy armor for the caliber of guns it was opposed to was useless. The defeated squadron in each case might better have had quicker boats, and while both engagements were won by the overwhelming gun fire of the victors and superior speed, the results would have been the same, though longer perhaps in attainment, if the opposing armaments had been equal. The faster fleet in that case would have simply stood off and pounded away at a favorable range for its own caliber, to a favorable position as to wind and sun (a very important factor, as in the Coronel fight, and a line of battle must be favorable to itself which would return greater damage per shot and greater concentration of fire. This last was an important feature of the Falkland Islands battle.) All this is, of course, assuming equal fire accuracy, an equal number of shots, and an equal number of guns of equal caliber. But when the fleets are unequal, as in the North Sea fight, the speed factor multiplies in importance. There was an engagement of battle-cruisers, with the possible exception of the "Bismarck," five against five, for some twenty at 17,000 yards. The "Bismarck" was damaged from the start because of her slow speed of 26 knots (faster than any fighting ship in our navy). The heaviest armor in the world and the most powerful guns would have saved her had the other side not had more than twice the speed of the "Bismarck." The "Bismarck" was damaged from the start because of her slow speed of 26 knots (faster than any fighting ship in our navy). The heaviest armor in the world and the most powerful guns would have saved her had the other side not had more than twice the speed of the "Bismarck." The "Bismarck" was damaged from the start because of her slow speed of 26 knots (faster than any fighting ship in our navy). The heaviest armor in the world and the most powerful guns would have saved her had the other side not had more than twice the speed of the "Bismarck."

severely punish the German battle-cruisers and without which the British could not have claimed a victory in a running fight. They would simply have recorded the sinking of one ship of the enemy. As it was, the minefields alone prevented a more decisive result.

So, the importance of armor being nullified, whether it be in actions between armored cruisers, battle-cruisers, battleships, or dreadnoughts, it is evident that a vessel of 30,000 or 35,000 tons displacement mounting twelve or more 14-inch or 15-inch guns on a speed of from 25 to 30 knots or over with as much thickness of armor as can be secured in conjunction with the other two features, is the ideal type of capital ship. Germany realizes it by now; England will produce it immediately following her "Malaya" and "Royal Sovereign" and "Queen Mary"; while Russia, generally the most backward of all the powers in naval development, has struck it right at last and is already commissioning her four "Kislovsks" of 32,200-ton displacement, 27 knots speed, and mounting twelve 14-inch and twenty-one 5.1-inch guns. Of course, like all Black Sea built ships, they probably have small fuel capacity and therefore small radius of action, which accounts for the heavy armament; but the ideal is there and can be developed further.

The situation of the United States is serious. Not only could the "Wyoms" and 25- and 26-knot dreadnoughts steam rings around our main fleet, but we haven't even got fast cruisers to pick off isolated units of the enemy or harass him, or even any scouts to locate him in time to insure an advantageous disposition of our forces. And inevitable result, as foretold in the Pacific, North Atlantic, and North Sea, in spite of our superiority in numbers and marksmanship and seamanship and the greatest bravery of our personnel, gives large quantities of unburning food for the minds of our naval experts at the present moment. Let us throw our ultra-conservative overboard and save this year's ships before it is too late.

HAROLD M. KENNARD.

Brooklyn, N. Y.

The Naval Review at New York

ALTHOUGH the noble array of warships which was gathered last week in the North River does not by any means represent the full strength of our Navy, it was a striking expression of its high quality, particularly as regards the first fighting line as represented by the dreadnoughts. The impression produced upon the minds of the citizens who saw the review was determined by the point of view from which they looked at it. Judged as an assemblage of modern fighting ships, irrespective of any considerations of its strength relatively to the naval strength of the other navies of the world, it was calculated to arouse a very proper patriotic pride, for the dreadnoughts, pre-dreadnoughts, destroyers, submarines, and particularly the auxiliaries were among the very best in their respective classes that are to be found in the world today. The dreadnoughts, particularly in regard to the center-line disposition of their guns (a distinctly American arrangement) have received the unqualified commendation of the naval designers of every navy in the world. Their batteries are excellently placed and the armor and interior bulkhead protection is as good as the best and considerably better than that on most of the ships of the foreign navies.

It may surprise some of our readers to know that relatively to the other navies the most advanced and best elements in the whole fleet were the auxiliaries, and particularly the large colliers; for we have paid particular attention to the question of ability to keep the sea, and to this end, instead of following the foreign practice of sailing existing merchant ships and fitting out their guns (a distinctly American arrangement) we have built a class of large and exceedingly well-equipped vessels of great carrying capacity and good speed, which in the event of war will prove to be of incalculable advantage to the American fleet. Our destroyers are the largest and most powerfully armed afloat. Our modern submarines are thoroughly up-to-date so far as the latest units are concerned, and, after a little more shaking down, the modern boats in this class will be as good as any in the world, with the possible exception of those of the German navy, which owe such superiority as they have to German proficiency in the construction and operation of oil motors.

The most serious defect in the fleet is the absence of our next main armament of any representative of that most useful and formidable type, the battle-cruiser. If Congress in the future, as it ought to, should adopt the budget system, voting the total sum required and leaving to its naval experts the question of its distribution among the various types of vessels, one of the first things to be done will be to include some battle-cruisers in our next naval programme and also to make provisions for at least half a dozen scouts of the latest and fastest type.

No far so good. If the fleet is to be considered by itself and without reference to any other standard of strength, on the whole it is calculated to create a sense

of pride and security. But the proper point of view, if one would gain a true sense of the adequacy of our fleet to the national needs, is to judge it in comparison with the fleets of other nations, and particularly of those which are now engaged in the great European conflict. If this be done, we shall find the alarming fact brought home to our minds that, in point of strength, our Navy is to be considered as in the third class and utterly unable to engage with any hope of success the fleets of the two principal naval powers engaged in the present war, namely, those of Great Britain and Germany.

If anyone doubts this, let him look at the facts. Thanks to the great naval activity in the shipyards of contending nations, Great Britain today has completed a total of thirty-eight dreadnoughts. Germany has twenty completed. The United States has eight only, or, if we stretch the point to include the comparatively small and slow "Michigans" and "South Carolinas," we have ten.

It is our patriotic duty to draw attention to these facts, and particularly at such time of jubilation as that expressed by a great national naval review. In view of the large size, the enormous wealth and the ambitious foreign policy of the United States, it is certain that her Navy should be at least the equal of that of Germany. Instead of eight or ten ships of the first line, we should have at least twenty. After the Spanish war, under the influence of the lessons as to the value of sea power taught by that conflict, we built up our Navy so rapidly that by the year 1901 we were equal to the second naval power—as we should be. Our present condition of relative weakness is due to the fact that since 1901, Congress has allowed political considerations to interfere with the upbuilding of the Navy, and we have steadily dropped back to our position of a poor third.

The most modern dreadnoughts of the fleet were the "New York" and "Texas," 26-knot ships, each mounting ten of the new 14-inch guns and twenty-one 5.1-inch—the former a fine piece which will form the main armament of the new "Oklahomas" and "Nevasas" and of the "Pennsylvanias" and "Arizonas" and of all future ships, unless, indeed, it should be decided to mount the 16-inch gun. The "Wyoming," the flagship of Admiral Fletcher, of 20,000 tons, completed in 1912, carries, like her sister the "Arkansas," twelve 10-caliber 12-inch guns in six two-gun turrets and twenty-one 5.1-inch. These are, to our thinking, the most shapely dreadnoughts afloat, the long straight sheer of the main deck giving them an appearance of length greater than they actually possess. The "Vandal" and "Florida," of 21,825 tons, mounting ten 12-inch 45-caliber guns and sixteen 5.1-inch, were completed in August, 1911. The "Alabama" and "North Dakota," our first dreadnoughts, were completed in 1910. These are vessels of 20,000 tons, carrying ten 45-caliber 12-inch and four ten 5.1-inch. The dreadnought line also included the two semi-dreadnoughts, the "Michigan" and "South Carolina," vessels of 19,000 tons, carrying each eight 10-caliber 12-inch and twenty-two 3-inch guns. These two ships were originally intended to be of the "Vermon" class, but after the designs were produced, and due to the appearance of the British dreadnought, it was decided to give them a main battery entirely of 12-inch guns.

Of the same displacement as the "Michigans" was the "Kansas," carrying four 45-caliber 12-inch, eight 8-inch, twelve 7-inch, and twenty 3-inch guns. She was the last of our pre-dreadnought class to be built. Her sister ships at the review were the "New Hampshire" and the "Louisiana," whose displacement, speed and armament, etc., are practically the same as those of the "Kansas." These ships were built in 1906 and 1907.

The two-deck turret type was represented by the "Georgia," "Nebraska," and "Virginia," and "Rhode Island." The armament of these ships consists of four 45-caliber 12-inch eight 8-inch, and twelve 4-inch guns. The destroyer fleet consists of forty-two vessels with their flagship, the scout cruiser "Huntsman" and the tender "Dixie."

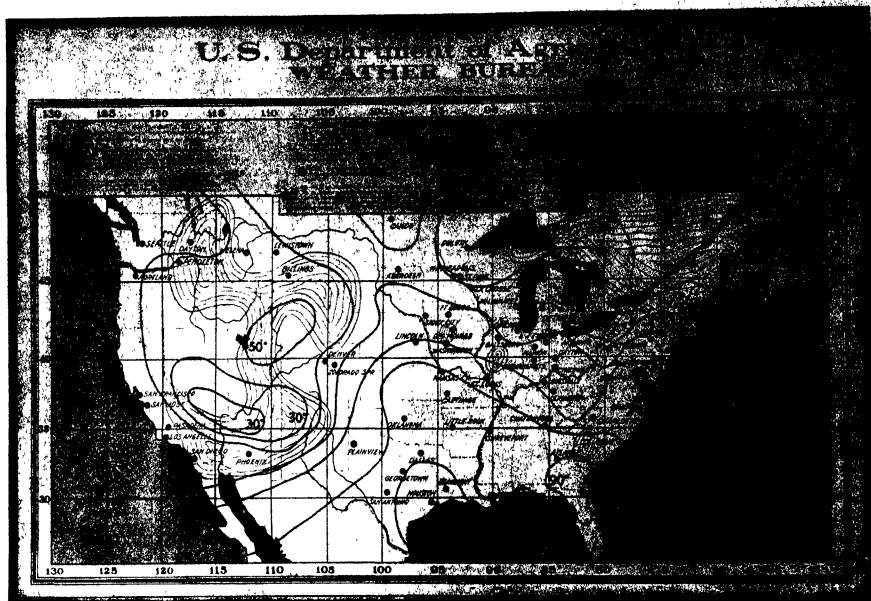
Between 135th and 142nd streets were a dozen of our latest submarines of the "D", "E", "G", and "K" classes, with several tenders.

Off Fort Washington Park was moored a fine fleet of auxiliaries, among which the mine-laying cruiser the "San Francisco," the supply ship "Cittie," and the fuel ships "Neptune," "Orion," "Cyclops," and "Jupiter." Present also was the repair ship "Vestal" and the hospital ship "Solace."

4,250-Pound Block of Coal for Fair

A SINGLE block of coal, six and a half feet long, five feet wide and about three feet thick, has arrived from Hugob, Mo., en route to San Francisco, where it will be placed on exhibition in the Missouri mining display.

The specimen was received by Otto Ithul, who is preparing an exhibit. It weighs 4,250 pounds, and is securely crated in a framework made of timbers.



SATURDAY, May 1st, 1915, at five o'clock in the afternoon, the U. S. Government Weather Bureau at Washington marked this map showing weather conditions during the Great National Efficiency Test of the Franklin Car that day.

Throughout the Rocky Mountain States there was rain. In thirty localities high winds prevailed. At Chicago, Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit and other lake points there was a fifty-mile gale to contend with.

This automobile test was for the American public the most significant ever held.

Its effects will be felt by every American able to own and run a motor car—and there is an automobile to every seventh voter in the United States.

The Cost of Inefficiency

The nation's yearly tire bill is more than \$200,000,000—its gasoline bill more than \$150,000,000. Add the sums spent for repairs—for unnecessary wear and tear, and you have an annual expenditure startling even to a people like our-

selves, accustomed as we are to big figures.

The waste due to inefficiency is a drain on the economic life of the country.

The subject of *Motor Car Efficiency* enlisted the special interest of the great American Universities and Technical Institutes.

Laboratory tests at Yale and at the Worcester Polytechnic Institute, showing the remarkable efficiency of the Franklin in comparison with other cars, excited professional comment everywhere.

Other Universities took up the study of the Franklin principles.

The Engineering Department of the State University of Kentucky made "The Test of the Franklin Car" a thesis required for graduation.

This is an age of efficiency. Men's minds have a practical turn. So widespread became the interest, that to supplement laboratory tests a Great National Efficiency Test on the road was arranged.

The Great National Efficiency Test

Among the Supervisors of the test were representatives from the

Engineering Departments of the following Universities: Toronto, Yale, Pittsburgh, Cornell, Pennsylvania, Brown, Rochester, Syracuse, Kentucky, Ohio, Lehigh, Cincinnati, Nebraska, Washington, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Armour Institute of Technology, Stevens Institute of Technology, Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Pratt Institute.

At nine o'clock on the morning of May first, the Franklin Cars started in all parts of the United States and Canada, over all sorts of roads, and regardless of weather conditions.

Each car carried a Supervisor of Tests, who had already certified the preliminary details—

The gasoline tested to prove that it was the ordinary commercial quality; officially measured by the Sealers of Weights and Measures of the respective states—

The routes planned so the cars would be compelled to go and return by the same roads to equalize any advantage of wind and grade—

The car a regular model Franklin Car—

The drivers men with experience on a par with the average automobile owner.

Results: 137 regular Franklin Cars, in 137 cities, averaged 32.1 miles to a single gallon of gasoline—

The highest record 55 miles to a gallon of gasoline—

44 cars averaged 40 miles to a gallon of gasoline.

A New Standard for Measuring Motor Car Efficiency is Established

Here at last, with this remarkable record, the Franklin Car establishes a standard for comparison of automobile efficiency. It provides the public with a simple and definite means for judging automobile values—the best they have had since the automobile was invented.

Everybody knows how to judge the relative value of upholstery, paint, leather, fittings—the things on the outside of a car.

It is the things on the inside—things the buyer doesn't see, that burn up money.

If a car is not right in design, in construction, in material, it will show first in the gasoline tank.

Engineers determine the efficiency of an automobile by comparing the useful power delivered to the driving wheels, with that which is lost by friction.

Gasoline Consumption will show up inefficient tires. They will use extra power in friction—more gasoline is used.

Gasoline Consumption will show up excessive weight. Excess weight requires more power to move—more gasoline is used.

Gasoline Consumption will indicate whether a car will last. Where more gasoline is used there is friction, and where there is friction there is wear and tear.

Gasoline Consumption will show up useless mechanical complications. The more working parts to a car the greater the friction—more gasoline is used.

The mileage secured from a gallon of gasoline is a true indication

of the total efficiency of the whole car. It takes into account the efficiency of the tires, axles, universal joints, transmission, clutch, mechanical efficiency of the engine, thermodynamic efficiency of the engine—everything about the car.

Consider what this test of the Franklin Car means to you—to every owner of an automobile—to the scientific and technical men who watched the test from start to finish.

Think what it means when so little power is lost by friction: when the maximum of power is delivered to the driving wheels with an average of 32.1 miles to a gallon of gasoline the country over!

Only a Fine Car can do it.

You have had your experience. Now make your comparisons.

Sworn Final Results

City	Driver	Road	Record
Akron, O.	A. Auble, Jr.	Good	51.8
Aberdeen, S. D.	C. M. Worthington	Rough	52.0
Albany, N. Y.	C. G. Heck	Heavy	30.5
Amboy, Ill.	A. Aschenbrenner	Good	25.6
Athens, O.	C. H. Welch	Dry	31.8
Atlanta, Ga.	W. M. Hull	Rough	31.3
Auburn, N. Y.	G. H. Leonard	Muddy	31.4
Baltimore, Md.	W. F. Knepp	Good	38.0
Bar Harbor, Me.	F. L. Savage	Muddy	22.2
Billings, Mont.	Arthur Barth	Muddy	20.0
Binghamton, N. Y.	S. H. Lewis	Muddy	27.0
Boston, Mass.	Otto Lawton	Fair	39.9
Brooklyn, N. Y.	G. B. Perkins	Fair	36.1
Buffalo, N. Y.	George Ostendorf	Fair	26.2
Canton, O.	G. W. Belden	Good	43.5
Carthage, Mo.	A. L. Caulkins	Muddy	36.0
Charlotte, N. C.	J. D. Woodside	Fair	36.2
Chattanooga, Tenn.	H. H. Alday	Dry	30.3
Chicago, Ill.	F. H. Sanders	Good	30.7
Cincinnati, O.	Newman Samuel	Fair	35.7
Cleveland, Ohio	C. H. Eckenroth	Fair	24.4
Colorado Springs, Col.	G. W. Blake	Good	30.0
Columbia, S. C.	Wm. Gibbs	Fair	26.1
Columbus, O.	O. C. Bell	Dry	31.7
Concord, N. H.	W. E. Darrah	Wet	33.6
Concord, N. Y.	J. A. Farrell	Wet	28.8
Dallas, Texas	W. G. Langley	Good	38.6
Danvers, Ill.	Frank Simpson	Fair	31.5
Dayton, O.	F. B. Heathman	Good	30.5
Decatur, Ill.	C. E. Dawson	Dry	32.9
Denver, Colo.	F. C. Cullen	Heavy	21.0
Des Moines, Iowa	S. P. Johnston	Good	34.2
Detroit, Mich.	W. J. Doughy	Fair	42.3
Duluth, Minn.	J. F. Peacha, Jr.	Heavy	35.2
Eau Claire, Wis.	G. R. Wood	Fair	26.7
Elizabeth, N. J.	F. V. Price, Jr.	Fair	40.8
Elkhart, Ind.	Fred M. Jones	Muddy	31.4
Enrie, Pa.	John Griffith	Fair	31.5
Fall River, Mass.	Ernest Fitch	Fair	37.8
Falmouth, Mass.	F. W. Crocker	Heavy	29.9
Fleetwood, Pa.	Wilson Sell	Fair	34.4
Fort Wayne, Ind.	L. Ohnhaus	Good	31.9
Galesburg, Ill.	E. T. Byram	Dry	22.6
Geneva, N. Y.	W. W. McCarroll	Fair	34.5
Georgetown, Texas	T. J. Caswell	Dry	23.6
Grand Rapids, Mich.	W. H. Lyons	Heavy	27.6
Grand Rapids, Mich.	J. R. Jackson	Fair	28.1
Great Falls, Mont.	B. D. Whittier	Dry	37.6
Houston, Texas	E. L. Turner	Fair	28.6
Greenville, S. C.	R. N. Tannahill	Dry	34.4
Hampton, Va.	J. V. Bickford	Fair	22.0
Hartford, Conn.	H. P. Seymour	Good	40.0
Helen, Minn.	W. L. Swendeman	Muddy	18.4
Holtville, Cal.	W. J. Seely	Sandy	24.1
Hoosick, N. Y.	John Mosley	Fair	36.4
Houston, Texas	Rudolph B. White	Fair	22.5
Indianapolis, Ind.	Glenn Diddel	Good	35.0
Indianapolis, Ind.	E. Nelson	Heavy	27.9
Itasca, N. Y.	H. L. Cobb	Fair	30.4
Jacksonville, Fla.	W. F. Winchester	Dry	30.0
Kankakee, Ill.	F. A. Belcher	Good	29.1
Kansas City, Mo.	E. S. Williams	Fair	43.7
Kingston, N. Y.	W. M. Davis	Fair	32.3
LaCrosse, Wis.	Alfred James	Dry	29.0
Lake Park, Iowa	H. C. Meyer	Rough	27.6
Lexington, Ky.	V. K. Dodge	Fair	33.5
Lincoln, Neb.	Fred M. Ryan	Rough	24.6
Little Rock, Ark.	D. F. Jones	Dry	37.1
Los Angeles, Cal.	R. C. Hamlin	Good	35.1

City	Driver	Road	Record
Louisville, Ky.	G. M. Younger	Dry	36.8
Marion, Ind.	M. L. Swayzey	Good	33.0
Menden, Conn.	J. F. Miller	Dry	49.2
Milwaukee, Wis.	Wm. F. Sanger	Fair	51.2
Minneapolis, Minn.	C. A. McKay	Good	47.8
Minneola, Ill.	D. H. Duncan	Fair	23.1
Montreal, Can.	H. Grothe	Muddy	24.6
Neenah, Wis.	H. Stroebel	Dry	26.3
New Bedford, Mass.	S. C. Lowe	Good	33.0
Newark, N. J.	W. L. Mallon	Dry	36.5
New Haven, Conn.	George Tisdale	Wet	35.0
New York City	Glenn A. Tisdale	Wet	35.2
Oil City, Pa.	H. S. Thumy	Sandy	18.3
Oklahoma City, Okla.	C. A. Weber	Good	36.3
Paris, Ky.	W. P. White	Fair	31.4
Pasadena, Cal.	Nichols Hughes	Good	34.9
Patterson, N. J.	James Sweeten, Jr.	Wet	41.9
Peoria, Ill.	George Hageman	Wet	53.0
Philadelphia, Pa.	John J. Hled	Muddy	21.1
Phoenix, Ariz.	H. D. Cushman	Muddy	24.9
Pittsburg, Pa.	J. C. Braly	Good	41.8
Portland, Ore.	W. L. Wilcox	Wet	43.8
Portland, Ore.	O. C. Bosworth	Muddy	29.8
Putnam, Conn.	B. S. Hittell	Muddy	34.3
Redlands, Cal.	A. O. Store	Good	13.9
Remington, Ind.	C. B. Johnston	Dry	25.5
Rochester, N. Y.	G. R. MacCollum	Dry	34.9
Rockford, Ill.	L. J. Thiers	Good	13.4
Rutland, Vt.	O. H. Coddage	Muddy	26.6
Saginaw, Mich.	Fred W. Witters	Dry	25.1
San Antonio, Texas	J. F. Birdsong	Wet	35.6
San Diego, Cal.	W. S. Smith	Muddy	29.8
San Francisco, Cal.	John F. McLan	Good	36.1
San Jose, Cal.	D. S. Norman	Good	35.6
Sarana, Lake, N. Y.	I. E. Bellows	Wet	30.3
Scranton, Pa.	O. D. DeWitt	Good	36.4
Seattle, Wash.	W. A. Weeks	Good	35.6
Sharon, Pa.	C. H. Wilsie	Dry	24.4
Shreveport, La.	J. M. Nichols, Jr.	Dry	22.2
Sioux City, Iowa	Thos. J. Murphy	Good	21.5
South Falls, S. D.	Knapp Brown	Good	41.0
St. Bethlehem, Pa.	L. L. Sterner	Fair	25.8
Springfield, Mass.	T. G. Jager	Heavy	36.1
Springfield, Mo.	H. L. Seelye	Fair	26.9
St. Louis, Mo.	J. B. Dryer	Wet	36.9
St. Paul, Minn.	A. H. Clark	Fair	31.8
Syracuse, N. Y.	C. W. Bull	Fair	41.7
Toledo, Iowa	Harvey Jones	Heavy	24.8
Toledo, O.	Thos. Jager	Good	31.7
Toronto, Ont., Can.	A. W. Wilson	Good	36.1
Trenton, N. J.	Walter Richards	Bad	25.8
Utica, N. Y.	W. W. Garbrant	Wet	39.3
Vincennes, Ind.	D. D. Alder	Good	35.6
Walla Walla, Wash.	R. H. Tuttle	Muddy	34.2
Walton, N. Y.	R. B. Bryce	Muddy	18.8
Washington, D. C.	D. S. Senzkruck	Good	34.9
Waterloo, Iowa	R. B. Cramer	Fair	39.7
Wellsville, N. Y.	Oak Duke	Fair	27.7
West Brooklyn, Ill.	J. W. Thier	Rough	35.1
Wheeling, W. Va.	J. O. Keefe	Good	26.2
Williamsport, Pa.	S. A. Courson	Bad	20.3
Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	Wm. Hanson	Fair	23.1
Wilmington, Del.	Peter Hanson	Fair	23.1
Worcester, Mass.	F. B. Williams	Muddy	29.7
Youngstown, O.	Jacob Stillfleiter	Good	27.9

Make Your Own Comparisons

Many people do not want agents calling on them until after they look into and check up the facts—then make their own comparisons.

To any man or woman who cares enough about motor car efficiency—motor car economy—to write us, asking for *Franklin Facts*, asking us to show why the Franklin Car is the most efficient automobile in America today—why it is the easiest riding car—why it will go further in a day, with the greatest comfort and least expense—we will send the proofs.

We rely entirely upon our certified facts, upon proven results. They mean so much to you, we want you to have them even though you do not buy another car in five years.

FRANKLIN AUTOMOBILE COMPANY
Syracuse, New York

Connecting Idaho With the Sea

Completion of the Celilo Canal Along the Columbia River

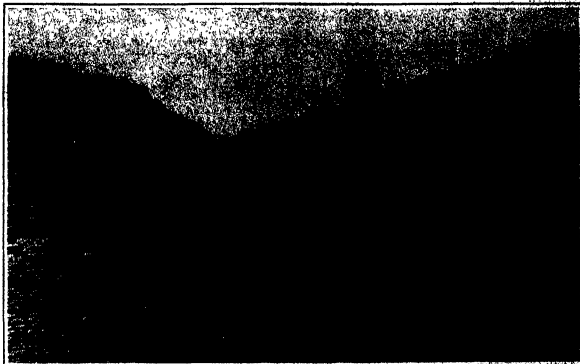
By Fred W. Vincent

THE largest lock canal in the West has just been completed by the Federal Government on the Oregon side of the Columbia River just above the Dalles, Oregon. This waterway makes the Columbia River navigable continuously for 500 miles from the sea. It is eight and one-half miles in length, and was constructed at a total cost of approximately \$5,000,000. The construction period ranged over almost a decade, and the operations have progressed with practically no interruption since the initiation of the huge job in 1900. The canal was formally opened to traffic on May 2th, with elaborate ceremonies in which all parts of the 300,000 square miles of territory comprising the Columbia basin were represented by prominent citizens.

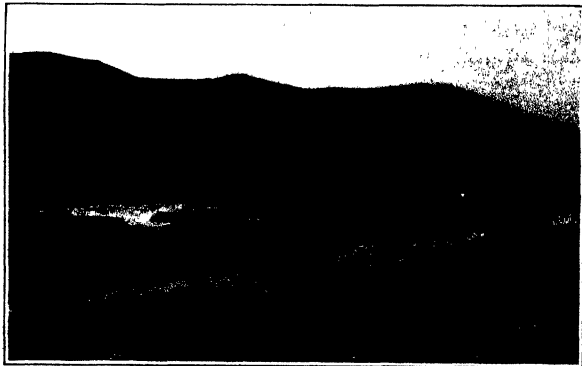
Through the operation of the canal the inland state of Idaho enters the category of commonwealths that boast a seaport, as vessels of the river sternwheel type can now navigate from the Pacific Ocean to Lewiston, head of navigation on the Snake River, the principal upper tributary of the Columbia a distance of 480 miles.

The construction of this canal was by no means a simple task, and its successful completion reflects great credit upon our army engineers. For a length of about five miles it had to be cut through solid rock, and in some cases it was necessary to make cuts seventy feet deep.

The Columbia, which is the third largest river in the country, has a drop of ninety feet in eight miles,



Reinforced concrete paving through the sand belt.



Upper portion of the canal, showing the Celilo Falls.

where it passes through the Cascade Range. After a series of falls and rapids it is compelled to traverse a channel only 165 feet wide for three miles, while its normal width is almost a mile. Through this narrow crack the boiling current is 200 feet deep. Both shores are made up of lava, a solidified stream that in centuries past flowed across the wide valley and dammed the mighty river. When the engineers surveyed the site they found what was not rock was shifting sand. The rock question was merely a matter of dynamite and the sand and gravel question was settled by lining the canal with concrete reinforced by heavy steel.

This work called for the excavation of practically 1,000,000 cubic yards of solid lava rock, 504,000 cubic yards of common dry excavating, and 530,000 cubic yards of sand. As many as 1,500 men were at work at one time, and eight steam shovels, 22 locomotives and 200 cars were used. There are 5 locks, with eight passing basins. The minimum depth of water is 8 feet and the ordinary width of the canal is 45 feet. Each lock is 300 feet in length. The principal locks are at Big Eddy above the Dalles and at the lower end of the canal. There three gates serve to form tandem locks, or two locks, that give a lift of 70 feet out of the total 90-foot fall that the canal overcomes.

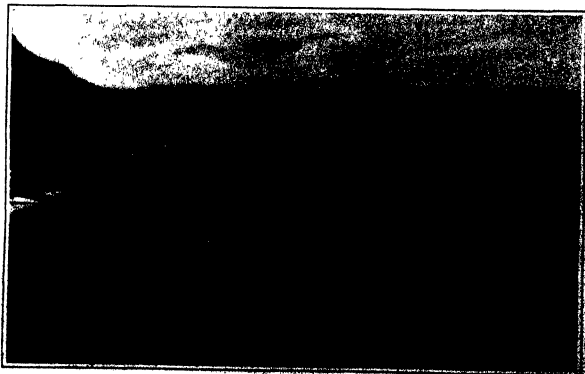
Now that the Celilo bar to navigation is overcome, the next step in opening the Columbia as far as Revelstoke, British Columbia—1,000 miles from the ocean—will be the removal of the obstructions at Priest River

Rapids, Washington and Kettle Falls. This done the Columbia will come to be numbered as the longest navigable river in the United States, except the Mississippi, and the great inland empire of the Northwest will enjoy the advantages of a waterway to carry its fruits, timber, wheat, wool, and livestock to the seaboard.

The Miracle of Bird Migration

THE mystery of bird migration has proved a fascinating subject for speculation and study from the earliest times," writes Mr. Wells W. Cooke in a very comprehensive and instructive publication just issued by the Department of Agriculture (Bulletin No. 198, "Bird Migration"), "but fuller knowledge has served to increase rather than to lessen interest in the subject. More persons to-day are watching birds and noting their times of arrival and departure than ever before. Indeed, the Biological Survey has received migration notes from more than 2,000 different observers. The Survey has been collecting data on bird migration for more than twenty-five years. Investigations by its field naturalists extending over the North American continent from Panama to the Arctic Circle have resulted in voluminous notes, and in addition the assistance of ornithologists throughout the country has been enlisted."

Thus, a great body of information is now available, concerning not only the migratory habits of birds in



Looking west through Five Mile lock.

Journal, but of each species separately, viz., the location of breeding grounds and winter haunts, dates and periods of migration (the latter in many cases varying greatly for different parts of the flight), the principal routes, and the relations of all these things to meteorological and geographical conditions, the distribution of food, and other circumstances. The text and numerous charts of Mr. Cooke's memoir present this information in much detail.

The favorite highway extends straight across the Gulf of Mexico, and recent evidence dispenses the old belief that after traversing this and similar stretches of water most birds are exhausted and promptly seek the ground. In fact, with increasing knowledge of bird migration, we are more and more impressed with the wonderful efficiency of the bird as a flying-machine. Of the golden plover, which in favorable weather flies 2,400 miles over the ocean from Nova Scotia to South America without

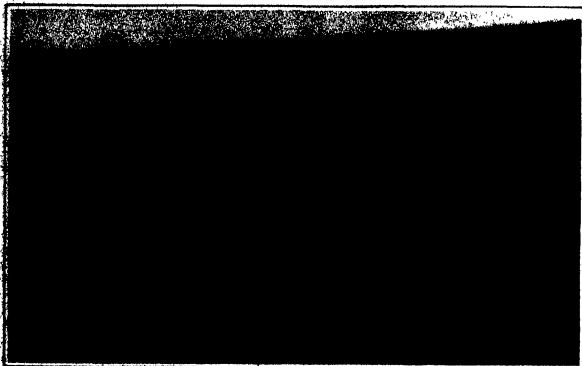
a stop, probably spending some forty eight hours on the wing, Mr. Cooke says:

"There is an aerial machine that is far more economical of fuel, i. e., of energy, than the best aeroplane yet invented. The to-and-fro motion of the bird's wing appears to be an uneconomical way of applying power, since all the force required to bring the wing forward for the beginning of the stroke is not only wasted, but more than wasted, as it largely increases the air friction and retards speed. On the other hand, the screw propeller of the aeroplane has no lost motion. Yet less than two ounces of fuel in the shape of body fat suffice to force the bird at a high rate of speed over that 2,400-mile course. A thousand-pound aeroplane, if as economical of fuel, would consume in a 20-mile flight not the gallon of gasoline required by the best machines, but only a single pint."

How do migrating birds find their way? This is the greatest mystery of all. The familiar inhabitants of our dooryard martin boxes will return next year to those same boxes, though in the meantime they have visited Brazil, flying by night and crossing a great body of water where there are no marks to guide them. So many hypotheses have been advanced on this strange subject (one of the latest of which regards birds as natural compasses having a subtle response to the earth's magnetic lines of force), that we turn with interest to the latest authoritative opinion as given by Mr. Cooke. Slight, he says, undoubtedly plays a part in the process, by night as well as by day. "Nevertheless something besides sight guides these travelers of the upper air." They possess a power, whatever its nature, which may be called a sense of direction. "We recognize in ourselves the possession of some such sense, though imperfect and frequently at fault."

Russia and Alcohol Utilization

CONSUL-GENERAL JOHN H. SNODGRASS of Moscow, reports the Russian Ministry of Finance, to

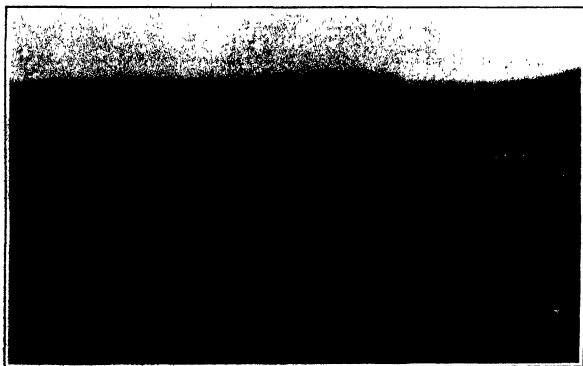


Five Mile Rapids, where the Columbia is 165 feet wide and 200 feet deep.

The differences between the habits of various species are striking. As to the distances covered in migration, we have at one extreme a few non-migratory species, such as the grouse, bobwhite, cardinal, and Carolina wren, and at the other that marvelous traveler, the Arctic tern, which nests within a few degrees of the north pole, and migrates thence to the borders of the Antarctic continent. The Arctic tern makes its annual round trip of 22,000 miles in barely twenty weeks of flight; hence, even if it flew in a straight line, it would need to cover more than 180 miles a day. Actually this distance is doubtless multiplied several times by zigzag windings and turnings in pursuit of food. A noteworthy fact in connection with this bird is that it enjoys more hours of daylight and sunlight every year than any other animal on the globe. During at least eight months it lives where there is no night, and during the other four months where daylight is much longer than darkness.

The dates of migratory movements are determined by average weather rather than by that which happens to prevail during the season of migration in any particular year. Thus, migration may be said to be a question of climate and not weather. However, after a bird's travel begins the weather encountered en route influences the process in a subordinate way, retarding or accelerating advance by not more than a few days in the aggregate. The winds seem to have little to do with the process.

Different species affect different routes of migration.



Lower end of the Cello canal, showing work on the locks.



A view out through solid lava at the western end of the canal.

promote the industrial and technical utilization of spirits for technical requirements, has decided to establish an international competition with premiums for the best inventions, which must be presented by January 1st, 1916, to the Chief Administrator of Taxes and Sale of Drinks.

The prizes are five in number and include one of 100,000 rubles (\$51,150) for a new method of utilizing alcohol for making a product different from the alcohol used, such as vinegar, ethyl chloroform, etc. Other prizes, approximating \$30,000, \$25,000, \$12,000, and \$2,500, are offered for new methods of utilizing alcohol as a solvent, for its utilization in smokeless powder and artificial silk, in increasing its heating value to render advantageous use of the alcohol as a fuel, and for inventions or improvements in apparatus for utilizing alcohol in internal combustion engines and for heating and illuminating purposes. Those especially interested can doubtless obtain detailed information from the Department of Commerce.

Fire Peril in the Patent Office.—The Washington Times, in a recent editorial touching the danger from fire in the various federal buildings, remarked that the Patent Office was perhaps the only public building in which there was great danger to human life and that such danger had been attested to by the Commissioner of Patents and by the District Fire Marshal. The fire danger has been called to attention in these columns.

Our Army Wireless Automobiles

Portable Radio Telegraph Apparatus of 200-Mile Sending Radius

By C. H. Claudy

THE Signal Corps of the United States Army has just completed its second successful wireless plant in an automobile and has now under construction a third such unit, which will be in commission in May for use in the proposed problem work in the field when the campaign which culminated in the battle of Antietam are gone over in the field this spring.

The just completed car is a 2½-ton truck chassis, with a special body, in which is built the apparatus for wireless transmission and receiving. The antenna, composed of sixteen 100-foot wires, is supported by an 80-foot mast, which can be erected in six minutes. This mast is made of artificial bamboo, a Signal Corps design, in which half round, hollowed out, sections of spruce are planed together with glued dowels and wrapped at the joints with phosphor bronze wire. The result is a tube of great strength and lightness, and, when arranged in 10 foot lengths, a mast which can be erected and put in commission in the minimum time mentioned. The sixteen 100-foot wires have ropes at the ends which continue to the ground, forming braces. Two other sets of braces are also provided to hold the mast erect and steady in all weathers. The sending radius of the apparatus is approximately two hundred miles, varying to some extent, of course, with local conditions. The current is supplied from a 500-yard cycle alternating current generator of 2 kilowatts capacity. This generator is driven by the automobile motor, by means of special clutch built into the apparatus. As the generator requires only about 6 horse power to drive it to its full capacity, the automobile motor uses but little gasoline for that purpose, and generates so little heat that the ordinary cooling system and fan suffice to keep it cool.

The receiving radius is practically without limit. The wireless car now in service in Texas along the Rio Grande has picked up messages from Fort Egbert on the Yukon, almost three thousand miles away. The

wireless apparatus, of the quenched spark type, includes no particularly unusual features, with the exception that it is all built in an extremely compact manner, and so constructed as to be unusually strong and thus able to resist the shocks of rough transportation. The

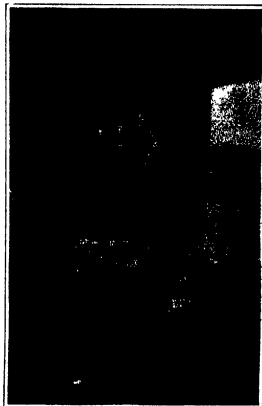
his duty, his special station and his particular task. Only by such a thorough understanding is it possible to dash up to a stop, unlimber the mast sections, erect the 80-foot structure and get into communication with the base of supplies in the short time of six minutes. The

cars themselves, considered as automobiles, are all of different types. One is a 2½-ton truck of the ordinary construction; the other is a 2½-ton truck with the new four-wheel drive, able to go anywhere the wheels will not sink in, whether there be a road or not; and the third, and smallest car, now being rapidly finished, is a three-quarter-ton truck of the ordinary drive type.

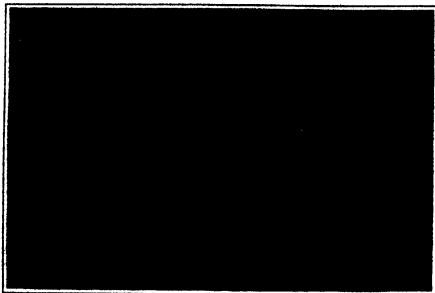
The larger cars cost, complete, about \$8,000 each. They have a maximum speed of fifteen miles per hour, and carry gasoline—twenty gallons—sufficient to run the thirty-horse motors for a distance of upward of one hundred and fifty miles. It is to be noted, however, that as the gasoline must be drawn upon for generating electric power for the wireless, the effective radius is probably not to be considered as above one hundred miles of travel for any one car. According to Brig.-Gen. George P. Scriven, Chief Signal Officer, the car in service in Texas has done satisfactory work and demonstrated the wisdom of making others for the Army.

With wireless demonstrated daily about as being a most important element in modern warfare, it is an interesting side light on the question of the United States "preparedness" to find its Signal Corps providing itself with the most up-to-date and efficient type of apparatus for the transmitting of intelligence, and testing the units so provided in the field, with unqualified success.

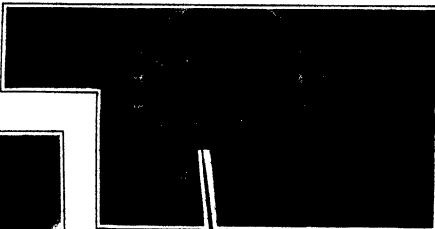
A Big Telescope for Argentina.—A 60-inch reflecting telescope is to be constructed at Cleveland, O., for the National Observatory at Cordoba, Argentina.



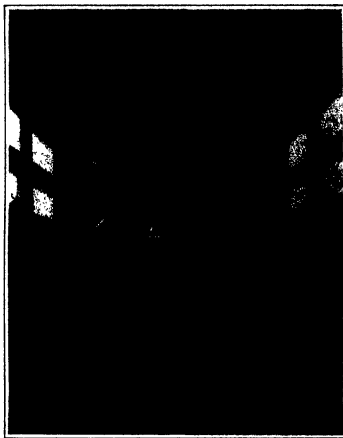
Audion receiving set.



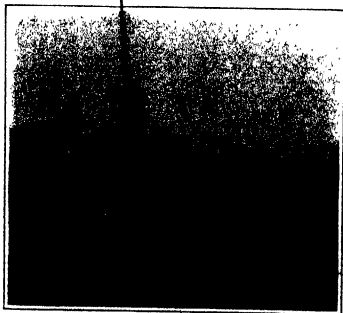
Rear of main switch board.



Quenched spark gap.



Operator receiving message.



Erecting the sectional mast.

A mobile wireless plant of the United States Army signal corps.

apparatus, while using accepted ideas as far as its principles are concerned, was all designed expressly for this work by Signal Corps engineers, and constructed in Washington under their direct supervision. Commercial electrical firms, while willing to undertake such work, lack the special experience of army needs for field work and a thorough comprehension of the requirements. Experience has shown the Signal Corps that no apparatus for their special needs so satisfactory as that which they themselves design and build.

The cars are operated by a squad of ten men, of which one is designated as "chief of the section," one is driver and mechanic, two at least are skilled wireless operators, and the rest thoroughly drilled in the swift erection of the mast. In this drill every man has

"Canvastown" for Government Employees

BECAUSE of the considerable amount of unemployment due to the war, the New South Wales government decided to place all men employed by the government on the various construction works on four days per week. By this means an additional four thousand men were given employment without exceeding the amount spent on these works prior to the war. The loss of two days per week was a very serious matter for the men so reduced, and in view of the very high rentals charged for all sorts of habitations, it was decided to meet the reduced earnings by providing temporary dwellings at a nominal rental; hence the decision to erect canvas dwellings and to reserve them exclusively for the present at any rate, for employees of the Public Works Department.

The site chosen is an open piece of Crown land country, near Sydney, and close to the trolley line. The dwellings are constructed of cloth sides (covered with a coating of paint) tacked to wooden studs, and a rubberwood roof. Each house is 60 feet and has doors front and back, in addition to a window. Each has 20 feet of ground space, and is separated by that distance from its neighbor on all sides. The houses contain in some cases two, and in others three rooms, each measuring 8 feet by 10 feet. Electric light, running water, and proper sanitary provisions have been installed.

At time of writing 20 families were in residence, totaling 140 souls, including 63 children. School facilities are provided by the Department of Public Instruction, and a matron from the Board of Health visits the settlement once, and sometimes twice weekly, for the purpose of health talks with the mothers. A sanitary inspector has been appointed, whose services are devoted exclusively to the settlement. A public telephone has also been installed. Provision, too, has been made to supply the residents with all food requisites at wholesale prices from a government institution which adjoins the settlement.

Each two-roomed dwelling costs £10 to erect, and a rental of 1s. 6d. weekly is charged the occupier. If an extra room is added the rent is then fixed at 2s. The money derived from rent is used to defray the cost of sanitary services, water and lighting rates, repairs, etc. Should there be a surplus it will be used for further improvement on the area; therefore, the government will not benefit financially by the scheme.

Beetle Pest in Museums

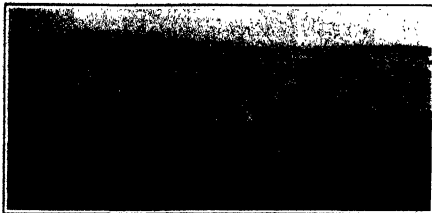
ONE of the worst enemies curators of museums have to contend with is a tiny beetle which works so neatly that there is no evidence of its woful work until the specimen is found dismembered or otherwise ruined. Neither in America or England has any effective remedy been found.

The tiny mischievous worker is the *Aethusa muscorum*. The adult measures only, or even less than, one eighth of an inch in length, and is convex in form. The female lays eggs in specimens and the larvae feed on them—the ruined butterfly and the magnificent beetle—brought from afar. These larvae are small plump, hairy grubs, and the sole sign of their presence, likely to be overlooked by the amateur, is a few specks of brown dust in the case.

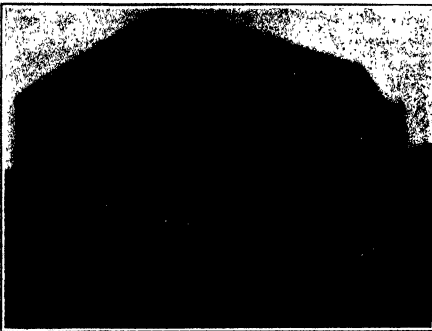
The illustration shows a 14-inch stick insect, from Assam, in the collection of Dr. Howard Kelly, which seemed in good condition one day, and the next was found as shown.

A Fire-fighting Trolley Car

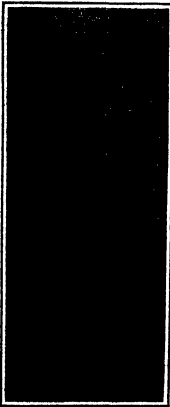
THE accompanying illustration shows a fire-fighting trolley car in service at Duluth, Minnesota, as a part of the equipment of the fire department. An unusual condition was responsible for the "partial trolleyization" of the fire-fighting equipment. The harbor of Duluth is formed by a narrow strip of land extending across



An official visit to "Canvastown."



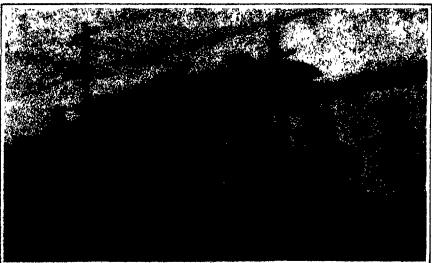
Typical "calico" house, showing part of the interior.



Specimen of stick insect destroyed by beetle larvae.



Growing two tails to replace an injured original.



The fire-fighting trolley car of Duluth, Minnesota.

the western end of Lake Superior. This strip of land, only four to six hundred feet in width, extends for a distance of seven miles from the Minnesota to the Wisconsin shore. About three miles of it, extending from the Duluth shore, is built up. Many of the cottages are merely summer homes, but others are permanent residences of comparatively expensive construction. Park Point is cut off from the city proper by the entrance to the harbor, spanned by an aerial bridge. Crossing the bridge is sometimes a slow process—slow compared with the dispatch necessary in response to a fire alarm. But that is not the main obstacle to reaching the houses on Park Point with fire-fighting apparatus. This suburb is so narrow that only one street is laid out. The car tracks are laid in that street, the surface of which is beach sand, loose and shifting and offering no foundation to team travel. The fire-fighting problem proved a difficult one for many years. Bucked brigades did what they could, but when a house on Park Point took fire the chances were ten to one that it would burn to the ground. Insurance rates were high, permanent residence was discouraged and cheap construction encouraged.

A fire tug would solve the problem under ordinary circumstances, but the water along the shore is so shallow that a fire tug could not approach. Finally the idea of the trolley fire department was considered and the co-operation of the street railway company was obtained. A car that was in good condition but had served its usefulness as a passenger car, was purchased. The seats were taken out and the braces retained. A hose box was installed the whole width of the car. It was left open at both ends, so that no matter which way the car is going it can carry the hose line from the trolley to the point of the fire. The equipment consists of 1,500 feet of 2½-inch hose, a set of ladders, axes, and pole-poles, two six-gallon Babcock extinguishers, extra chargers, rubber coats and hats for volunteers.

The car is stable near the main offices of the company, so there is always a motorman on hand to respond to an alarm. When an alarm is turned in from Park Point the car is started down the tracks immediately, and has absolute right of way. An automatic electric gong is cut in as soon as the car starts, so that all along the Point notice is given that a fire alarm is being answered, and volunteers are picked up on the way.

A Two-tailed Lizard

THE accompanying photograph of a lizard with two tails was sent to the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN by George F. Mins, who found the curious specimen in the vicinity of Edgemoor, S. C. The photograph was referred to Dr. Raymond L. Ditmars of the New York Zoological Park. His comment on the specimen is as follows: "While we occasionally see lizards with two tails, this appears to be a remarkable case of reproduction. The growing of two tails is caused by a portion of the original tail being broken off. With lizards an injury to the tail is always repaired within a few months. A repair sometimes results in the formation of a fork appendage, but rarely of such symmetry as shown in this photograph. The species of lizard shown is known as a race runner. Its scientific name is *Cnemidophorus scutatus*. Lizards of this type live in dry, sandy places, and are very quick in running. An injury to their tail is often caused by hawks dashing at them and, owing to the lizard's agility, being able to seize no part of the reptile but its tail."

Patented Razor Blade Box—King Camp Gillette of Brookline, Mass., in a patent, No. 1,132,925, issued on an application filed in October, 1918, seeks to protect the small metal box for holding Gillette safety razor blades and which has a telescoping cap or closure designed to form a hermetic joint with the body portion of the box.



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A. Baffled Sound.

Just as the silent *m* in Fig. 5 is not to be understood as a non-existent or unpronounced sound. It is a sound *m*, silent only in the sense of the vocal cords being at rest during its formation. This, however, is so anomalous to the ear accustomed to the English speech that the *m* is barely audible as a sort of sniff through the nose while the lips are shut. The Papago language is peculiarly rich in such "silent" sounds. In fact, every letter that it possesses appears in both the "sounded" and "silent" forms, a quite unusual circumstance.

Not all the experimental determinations in the science of phonetics are made by the kymograph. Numerous "mouth explorers" and other ingenious appliances have been used to supplement the apparatus. Some of these have yielded pretty results; but the simplest and at the same time most productive are two—the camera for the outside of the mouth and the false palate for the inside.

Writing on the Roof of the Mouth. The "false palate" is grandfather's "plate" with the teeth left off, and extended somewhat further back to the rear of the mouth. A cast of the roof of the oral cavity is taken, and from this is made a thin sheet of aluminum, vulcanized rubber, or dental compound, reaching from the edge of the gums to the soft palate. This sheet is the "false palate." Slipped into the mouth and gently pressed upward, it coats the surface of the natural palate like a tight glove, and does not seriously interfere with pronunciation. It is dusted with chalk or powdered soapstone. The subject of the experiment then speaks the desired word or sound. Whenever his tongue touches his palate in this cast, the saliva sticks off the white chalk, exposing the red or black surface of the artificial sheet. This is then removed and the white and dark areas sketched, or in important cases photographed. The dark regions represent the portions of the gums or palate against which the tongue "articulates" for any given sound.

As might be expected from what has been said before, the "same" sound in different languages is often produced in sufficiently distinct portions of the mouth to be not really the same. Hupa Indian *i* and English *i*, for instance, are forward, respectively, forward and to the rear (Fig. 3); and in the same way English *s* is proved to be nearer *sh* than Hupa *s*.

Just so, in one and the same language, there are often two sounds made in the same way, but in such slowly adjacent parts of the mouth as to be distinguishable with difficulty. Papago Indian *s* and *sh* are considerably more alike than English *s* and *sh*. Among us, a man coming home late may explain to his wife how he has been to "shee a shick free"; but in Papago and many other Indian idioms such pronunciations seem, to the English ear, to be typical even of unalcoholized conversation. Of course, the confounding is in the perceiver, not in the speaker, as the "palatograms" or false palate records of Papago *s* and *sh* in Fig. 2 demonstrate. In the same way, this language possesses two baffling *i* sounds, which may be represented by *i* and *i*, and which the false palate quickly reveals as being formed just like English *i*, except that in one the tongue touches a little nearer the front teeth and in the other a little farther away from them.

A Life for a Letter.

Such differences may seem immaterial, but are sometimes fraught with the gravest meaning. The intrepid English explorer, Douglas, relates how when alone among the Bedouins of the Arabian desert he was called in to aid a sick chieftain, his ability to read and write being enough, in the minds of this unlettered folk, to endow him with a knowledge of all the arts and sciences, including medicine. As he was warned from the tent, the chieftain's anxious followers inquired his condition. "His heart still lives" was the reassuring reply which the Englishman made; or thought he made in the Arabic language; and he was startled to see every man reach for his gun or knife. It was only when a



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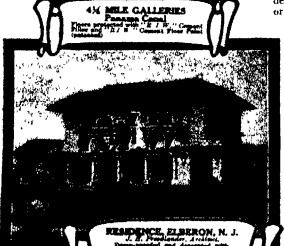
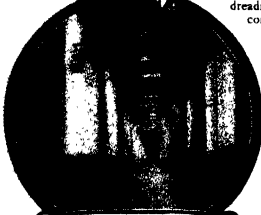
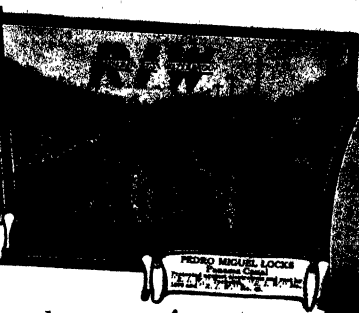
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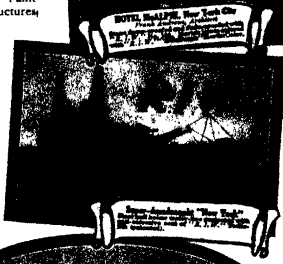
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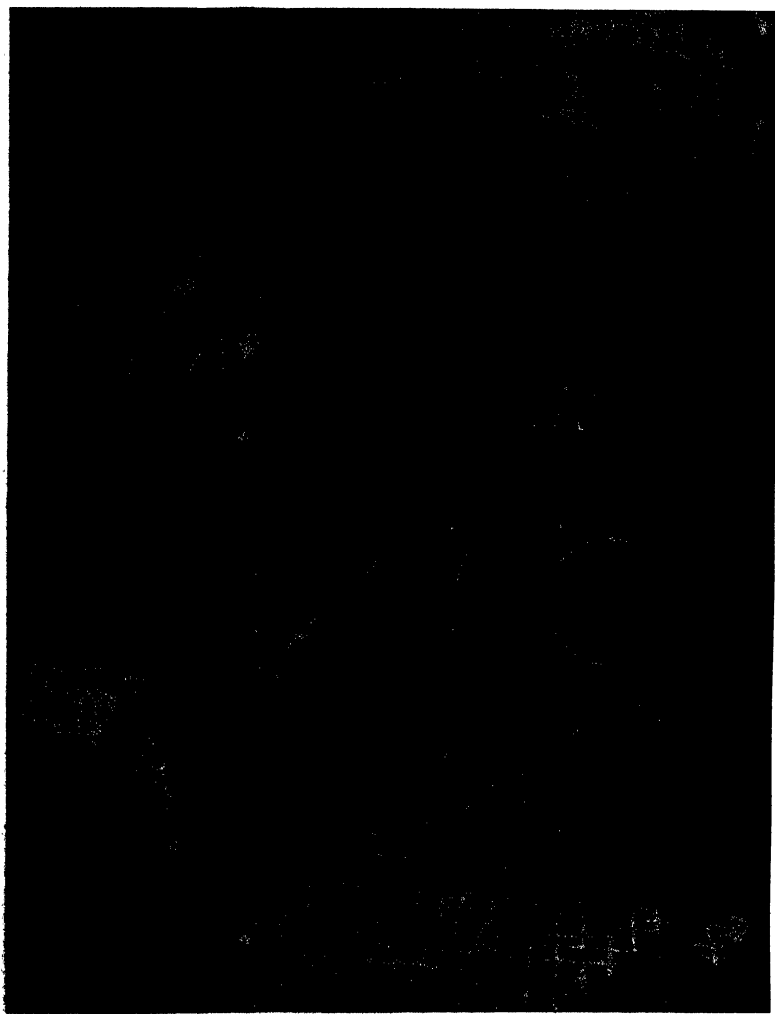


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LOADING A TORPEDO INTO ONE OF THE FOUR FORWARD TUBES OF A SUBMARINE.—[See page 493.]

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SEVENTY-FIRST YEAR SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

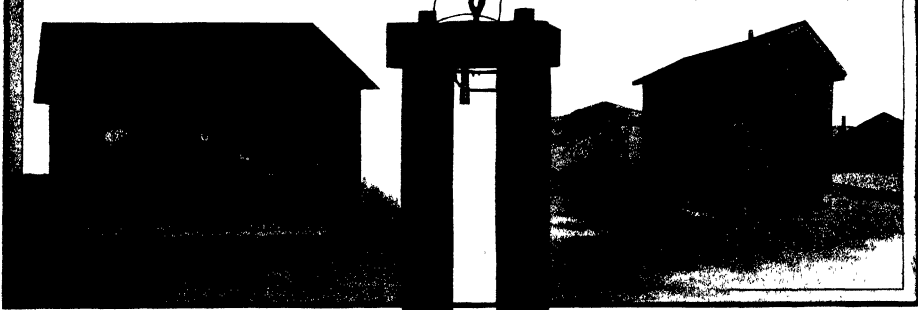
THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

NEW YORK, MAY 29, 1915

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NUMBER 22

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Interior of first Edison central station.



The first Edison central station—1882.

This earliest central station in the United States was built in

Appleton, Wis. It had a capacity of two hundred and fifty lamps.

When Electricity Was Really in Its Infancy

By Prof. Francis B. Crocker

DR. WHEELER and I first turned our attention to electricity about 1874, which was forty years ago of course it was only the play of two boys who had the same bent, but we actually began to make crude forms of electric batteries, etc., at that time.

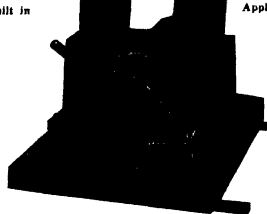
In the early days general knowledge of electricity was very limited. Few persons, in fact, not one in 10,000, knew anything about the subject. Even the books were largely confined to frictional or static electricity. For many years after that time there was a general notion that the dynamo acted by friction.

Quantitative ideas were particularly vague. For example there were no voltmeters or ammeters. During my career there have been three different kinds of ohms and volts with somewhat different values, that is, the B. A., Legal and International ohms. One inventor whose ideas were submitted to me claimed that his dynamo generated *better quality* of electricity which would produce more light, although it did not measure more, the same way that better quality of coal would produce more steam per pound burned under a boiler.

When we first began to study electricity, the telegraph was the only practical application. It was before the telephone was invented or any commercial forms of dynamo-electric generator or motor; arc or incandescent lamps; electric railway, power transmission or electro-chemical apparatus were used or even seriously considered. At that time the only important electrical plant in New York city was the main Western Union Telegraph Office on Broadway at Try Street. In which one whole floor was filled with cells of gravity battery. The maximum output was about one eighth watt per cell, and there were, I think, 20,000 cells, which would give a total of 2½ kilowatts. Yet that was the largest electrical generating plant in commercial operation in America!

The telephone was first exhibited at the Philadelphia Exposition in 1876. The first ones that I ever saw were those we made ourselves from descriptions in the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*. For a long time the telephone was regarded as merely an interesting toy. A friend of ours who owned the exclusive rights for New York city and vicinity sold them for \$20,000, and thought he had done well.

The first arc lamps were those of Brush, Weston, and Thomson-Houston. I remember that one of the first practically used in New York was in the Equitable Building, where it was visited by thousands as a great curiosity. The "sub-division of the electric light" had been a great bugbear until Brush was able to run a number of arc lamps in series on the same circuit, without interference between them. Before that time each lamp had to have its own generator! How would the



Edison dynamo of 1883.

New York Edison Company like to operate on that plan today?

I remember very distinctly that I saw at Menlo Park the first successful incandescent lamp ever produced. There were only a few of them in Edison's laboratory. They could all have been easily put in a small basket. When they were brought out publicly they created a great sensation, and the gas stocks tumbled in price to the extent of millions of dollars throughout the country, and the Edison Company's stock went up to \$250 per share; that is, twenty-five times the par value. They reached this enormous figure on the theory that the Edison stock had gained all that the gas stocks had lost! Edison "sub-divided" the electric light by putting his incandescent lamps in parallel. He devised the safety fuse, but at first it was single pole, that is in one wire only. At that time the sockets, switches, and fuse blocks had wooden bases which were so many pieces of kindling wood for starting fires. The so-called "underwriter's wire," then generally used, was miserably insulated and for that reason soon came to be known as "undertaker's wire."

For a long time the generators were all bipolar even up to 100 kilowatts or more. With the exception of a very few so-called "Jumbo" Edison machines they were high speed and belted.

Long after electric lighting started there were practically no motors. Central stations objected to having them on their circuits for fear of affecting the lights. It took years to overcome this prejudice. Today the motor load is considered much more desirable than the lighting load because it lasts longer and is more nearly constant. Motors began to be used commercially just about the time the Crocker-Wheeler Company was started in 1888, which was about ten years after electric lighting was introduced. At first it was hard to convince people of their value. People would ask, "Why turn the mechanical power of steam, gas or water into electricity and then back again into mechanical power?" That simple question seemed almost unanswerable

When each new application of electricity came out, and for applications in general, the public has always taken the wrong view or applied the wrong test. The new way was expected to be cheaper immediately, and near it every one thought that the whole story. In point of fact electric lighting from central stations cost more than gas light up to the advent of tungsten lamps, certainly more than from kerosene oil. Convenience, cleanliness and many such advantages are really the reasons why it was preferred. The same is true of electric motors. Each new application of electric drive had to overcome the same old opposition. Apparently there was no great advantage in cheapness, and few could see the other fifteen merits which are really more important. Even if it was successful for other service each man thought that it was not good enough for the peculiar conditions of his particular work. This was notably true of carpet and silk looms. It was awfully hard to get people to try the first motor, but in a year or two you could not take away their electric drive for love nor money. The first induction motors were described in Tesla's paper at the A. I. E. E. meeting in May 1888. I remember distinctly seeing there the only induction motors in the world (two small specimens lying on the table). Tesla did not invent the polyphase system or generator, or even the rotary field. Deprez in 1882 laid down the theory. Charles S. Bradley applied for a patent in May 1887, a year ahead of Tesla. This patent covered both a rotary converter and the double-current machine, that is, it may be employed as a double-current, single or polyphase generator or motor.

The electric railway also came in about that time, that is, 1888 and 1889. At first there was much trouble with burning out of motor armatures. I remember that in one case a man in charge of repairing them was asked if they did not often burn out. He answered "Oh, no, only three to-day," and it was then about noon! In all the earlier forms of electric motors, even those used for traction, the working parts, coils and commutators were much exposed, with little or no protection. The partly and wholly inclosed types of machine were not generally adopted until ten or fifteen years after motors had been in commercial use.

I was present when the first important power transmission system in the country was started. The power was generated at Niagara Falls and transmitted to Buffalo, the line being less than twenty miles long, but it was considered long distance transmission. The pressure used at first was 11,000 volts, which later was raised to 22,000 volts. The former voltage ranked as the highest in the world at that time in commercial service, and was regarded as an extraordinary thing; all sorts of precautions and special arrangements were required to handle it. It seemed to involve as many problems then as the 110,000 volts of to-day.

Science

Wrapping and Unwrapped Bread.—A considerable amount of recent literature has been devoted to the subject of wrapping bread. An elaborate chemical and bacteriological investigation of this subject was reported some time ago by Jacobs, Leake and Jensen in the *American Journal of Public Health*. The investigators sought to determine the kind of paper most suitable for wrapping, the length of time after baking that bread should be wrapped, and the bacteriological condition and weight of both wrapped and unwrapped bread. For bread three crants are to be kept dry and firm, such as Vienna and French breads, paper is better than waxed paper. Bread, reaching the temperature of the room almost long before being baked, and this is the best time to wrap it. Further delay entails the danger of contamination with bacteria and molds. If wrapped too soon—say, one hour after baking—it retains sufficient heat and moisture to favor the growth of organisms, especially when waxed paper is used. The crust of the loaf as it leaves the oven is practically sterile. The same writers examined a large number of samples of both wrapped and unwrapped bread bought in retail stores. Of the unwrapped loaves 62 per cent showed organisms of the st. coli type, as compared with only 7 per cent of the wrapped loaves. Another contributor to this subject is an article by Barnard and Bishop in the *American Food Journal*, dealing with the effect of wrapping upon the chemical composition of the loaf. It was found that wrapping in either semi-porous waxed or paraffin paper prevents the escape of moisture and tends to preserve the acidulated condition and physico-chemical equilibrium, the destruction of which produces staleness. The effects of wrapping vary considerably for different kinds of bread.

A Guide to Our Edible Fungi.—As everybody knows, a delicious amount of good food goes to waste because the public is familiar with but few of the many edible species of fungi. It is true that the nutritive value of fungi has been much exaggerated; they are by no means comparable in dietary value to meat, as is often claimed; but on the other hand, they are more nutritious and, when properly cooked, decidedly more palatable than many things that enter into the everyday menu. A delectable propaganda in behalf of mycophagy has been carried on for years, both in this country and abroad. The latest contribution to this campaign is Bulletin No. 175, just issued by the Department of Agriculture, entitled "Mushrooms and Other Common Fungi." In this useful manual, the authors, Flora W. Patterson and Vera K. Charis, tell us, among other things, of the efforts which certain European governments have made to teach their citizens the food value of mushrooms. All over France exhibits of the more desirable species are held; while at Rome during the season there are daily lectures on this subject illustrated by fresh specimens. In Saxony systematic instruction concerning mushrooms is given in the public schools. The French have taken to canning many wild mushrooms, in addition to the familiar *Agaricus campestris* grown in mushroom culture, and these are now exported to the United States, which also receives tons of dried wild mushrooms from China. The new bulletin contains descriptions, in language as non-technical as the circumstances admit, of more than 150 species of fungi, together with splendid photographs of at least half of the species described. The poisonous species are carefully pointed out, and several recipes for cooking the other kinds are appended. There is a simple key to the genera and a glossary.

The Chemistry of the Pacific Kelp.—We have recently noted the appearance of a bulletin of the Department of Agriculture giving full statistics as to the extent of the giant kelp beds on the Pacific coast, and suggestions regarding their exploitation. A further important contribution to this subject is an article by Guy R. Stewart, of the California Agricultural Experiment Station, on the "Availability of the Nitrogen in Pacific Coast Kelp," published in the *Journal of Agricultural Research*. As a result of extensive experiments the author finds that in using dried and ground kelp as a fertilizer the readiness with which the nitrogen in it is changed to ammonia and nitrate in fresh fields is well varied with different species and with the mode of preparation. The nitrogen of *Nereocystis luetkeana* is relatively very available, but this species is of minor commercial importance. The principal commercial species, *Macrocystis pyrifera*, is very slowly changed in the soil, the availability of its nitrogen being greatest when the kelp is added in a fresh or only slightly dried condition. *Macrocystis* must, however, be dried till crisp in order to grind readily. This drying should not be continued longer than necessary, and the kelp should not be washed or overboiled. In the same *Journal* another California chemist, D. R. Combs, gives a detailed account of the "Organic Constituents of Dried Kelp." In connection with the nitrogenous constituents, he has determined ammonia plants and animals, the possible feeding value of kelp for man or animals, the utilization of its organic constituents, and the destructive action of kelp on certain nematodes. In all these directions the present paper appears to be very helpful.

Astronomy

The Spectrum of Melib's Comet was observed at Lowell Observatory with the slit spectrometer on April 20th, and according to a telegram from Director Lowell, published in *Popular Astronomy*, was found to consist of the usual series of cometary bright bands, but with a relatively intense background of continuous light, a solar spectrum of the emission bands. The group of bands about wave-length 6040 was brighter and those of hydrocarbons fainter than in most comets. A photograph of the comet on the same morning showed a tail of two divergent branches, 134 and 34 degrees long, respectively.

The Time Service at Antwerp, or Bureau de l'Heure, located at the Pilotage, continued its work up to the date of the German bombardment, last October. This office normally gets its time by telephone from the Royal Observatory at Uccle, but after the latter institution was seized by the Germans on August 20th communication with it was cut off. Thereafter the service was maintained without astronomical observations, as the Riefler clock at the Antwerp office was known to have a very regular rate, and it was checked with the aid of a number of good chronometers. The small observatory at the Antwerp Astronomical Society is reported to have suffered no harm in the bombardment.

The Astronomical Society of Pomona College, at Claremont, California, consists of students of astronomy and members of the faculty of the college, together with resident college graduates engaged in astronomical work or study; there are also associate members, including alumni and others. Concerning the local character of the society, its quarterly journal, known as the *Publisher of the Astronomical Society of Pomona College*, now in its fourth volume, is a remarkable production. It is printed on the best paper, fully illustrated with photographs, charts, etc., and, last but not least, is replete with interesting astronomical literature. For instance, in its earlier number contains signed abstracts of the most important current astronomical articles in other journals. The editor of the *Publisher* is, president of the society, and director of the college observatory is Prof. Frank P. Brackett.

An Association of Amateur Telescope Builders.—There has recently been organized in the Society for Practical Astronomy a Section for Construction of Astronomical Instruments, and efforts are being made to enroll therein as large a number as possible of amateur constructors of telescopes and other astronomical apparatus in all parts of the world. Builders of home-made telescopes are very numerous. The new association offers them an opportunity of aiding one another with suggestions, hints, and advice, and of exchanging a correspondence course in telescope building is to be given by the director of the section, Prof. M. T. Follen, of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Ala. Persons who wish to become members should write to Prof. Follen. Although the section is interested primarily in the making of telescopes, especially reflectors, it will also extend its attention to such accessories as photographic camera, spectroscopes, eyepieces, sidereal clocks, and other kindred apparatus.

Suggestions for Observing Mars.—Prof. W. H. Pickering's latest Report on Mars (No. 9) consists entirely of suggestions for the guidance of amateur and professional observers of the planet at its next opposition. No one who intends to make drawings of Mars can afford to ignore this report (given in full in *Popular Astronomy* for May). For studies of color a large aperture is desirable, but the definition of the surface markings is satisfactory, under good atmospheric conditions, with an aperture of 5 inches, while many canals were clearly seen by Prof. Pickering at the last opposition in his 3-inch device with a magnification of 181. For studies of the "seeming" at different stations or on different nights a standard scale is recommended, defined by the appearance of the image or disc of a bright star and the diffraction rings. Perfect seeing is designated 10 in a 5-inch refractor, 11 in a 7-inch, 12 in a 9-inch, and 13 in a 10-inch. It is of little use to observe Mars when the seeing is below 6 or the altitude is below 30 degrees. The writer uses water colors for the groundwork of the disk, the yellow ochre, orange and reds, but for the greens, blues and browns he finds colored pencils, in connection with lead pencils of various degrees of hardness, more satisfactory. In order to apply the correct tint it is very important that the source of light illuminating the paper should be of the same color as the sun seen from a distant body. Prof. Pickering used small tungsten lamps at the last opposition, and at the next proposes to have the light of the same lamp transmitted through a blue glass, thus giving the paper an illumination very nearly the same color as the illumination of the surface of Mars by the sun. It is especially desired to secure as many drawings as possible of the planet in certain standard aspects; viz., when the Martian longitude 0, 90, 120, 150, 240, and 300 are central at the point of observation. This plan was followed by a few observers at the last opposition, and comparisons of the drawings have given very interesting results.

Notes for Inventors

Woman Patenteé Abroad.—It is believed that Sybilla Masters was the first American woman to secure a foreign patent, she having, through Thomas Masters, secured a British patent No. 401, dated November 25th, 1715, for a Process for Treating Corn.

Lighting the Key-hole.—August Sundth of Hastings-Upon-Hudson, New York, has patented, No. 1,136,378, an illuminated door knob having an electric lamp which may be lighted by a suitable button to give light to a key-hole or to the dial of a safe.

Deck Seats Convertible to Life Boat.—David Davies of North Carlton, Victoria, Australia, has obtained patent No. 1,134,672 in which are shown two longitudinal half sections adapted to be used separately as deck seats on a ship and to be united and secured together to form a life boat.

A Golfer's Exerciser.—A patent, No. 1,137,349, has been issued to Francis W. Patterson of Wilmington, Del., for an apparatus in which a golf grip or handle is connected at one end to a flexible cord which is wound on a spring spool and operates with tension on the grip in the successive movements representing the swing of a golf club.

Apparatus for Cooling and Agitating the Ice.—Herman E. Baumgartner of Osaque, Iowa, has patented, No. 1,135,285, an apparatus in which a pump supports a block of ice alongside of which is formed a housing for an electric fan, the effect of which opens toward the block of ice so that the air is sucked over the block of ice and the cool air is forced into circulation.

Influencing Unmerged Teeth.—Patent No. 1,137,298 to W. E. Walker of New Orleans, La., is for a device for influencing the alveolar process, seeking to develop artificially a pressure sufficient to pressure and thereby exert an influence through the gums upon unmerged but wrongly disposed teeth, or counteract the influence of the tongue in a patient predisposed to press the same against the gums as frequently occurs in mouth breathing.

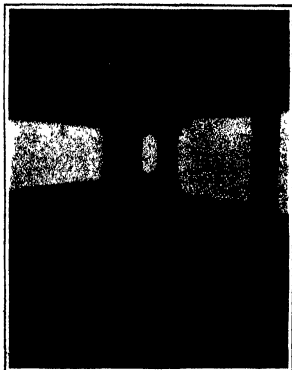
Adjustable Golf Stick.—D. & K. Roberts of Grantham, England, in patent No. 1,135,921 present a golf stick the head of which is formed to permit the convenient interchangeability of heads or striking faces, each of the head pieces having two faces either of which may be adjusted into playing position and the several different forms of head being interchangeably applied to the head of the club so that each loose head is the equivalent of two ordinary clubs and by carrying a number of loose heads the necessity of carrying numerous clubs will be avoided.

Oscillation-receiving Devices for Wireless.—Four patents, Nos. 1,136,044 to 1,136,047, inclusive, have been issued to the Wireless Specialty Company of Boston as assignee of Greenleaf Whitfield Tinkard of Amesbury, Mass. In the first patent the receiving device has a member containing silicon with a contacting member containing metal antimony, in the second patent the contacting member contains arsenic and antimony, in the third patent the contacting member contains metal bismuth and in the fourth patent the contacting member contains metal arsenic.

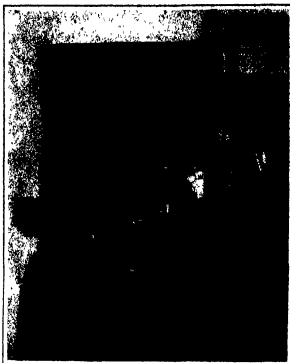
A Golf Pate for Keeping the Eye on the Ball.—C. T. Ramsey of Liverpool, England, patent No. 1,135,921, shows an optical instrument which can be worn over the eyes like a spectacle and by which the sight of the player is concentrated on the ball, the opaque "blinkers" having a relatively small aperture through which, and through which alone, the viewer can see and thus the distance in front and behind the ball is so small that he must see it definitely and he is thus compelled to keep his eye on the ball. The blinkers are adjustable so they can be set to suit the eyes of different persons.

Novel Hat Brush.—A hat brush which is carried with the hat itself is a recent Paris novelty. It can be used with felt or silk hats. The brush is of small size and very light weight, and is provided with a device which allows of fixing it inside the hat, and in this position it is out of the way and does not add materially to the weight of the hat. Such a little device will prove most convenient either for ordinary times or in traveling. Two kinds of brush can be used according to the case, that is, a fine brush for felt hats or a plush makeup for use with silk hats. The brush in any case does not weigh more than half an ounce.

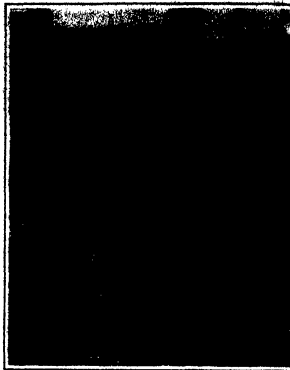
War's Effects on Foreign Patents.—It is sometimes asked by Americans whether patents can be obtained at the present time from the nations at war and it is somewhat remarkable how little difficulty is experienced in transacting business with the foreign Patent Office. Nevertheless, the number of applications filed abroad has been greatly reduced as illustrated, for instance, in the United Kingdom, reports giving the number of applications received in the British Patent Office in 1914 as smaller than in any other year of the last decade, the number of applications for 1914 being 21,820, while in 1913 it was 30,077. Design applications in 1914 were 24,254 and in 1913 were 40,429 and trademark applications in 1913 were 9,689 as against 8,317 in 1914.



Storage compartments in closed cars generally are a problem; in this car, the basket slides down into a compartment behind one of the seats.



Most bodies are mere shells. This is an example of how a thinking designer has made use of what otherwise would be waste space.

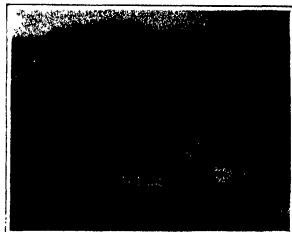


Here is an example of how a manufacturer has made use of space that otherwise would be wasted; a tool locker under the floor.

Storing the Tourists' Needs

By Stanley Petman

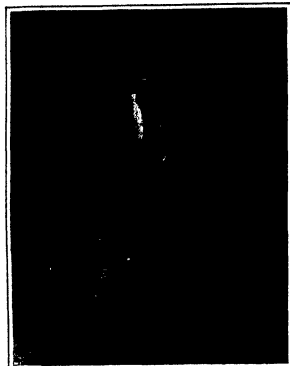
WHEN the first automobile tourist filled his tanks, cranked up and started on a journey fraught with more or less excitement, he experienced no particular problem in disposing of the equipment, the edibles and what-nots that then and now are a penance and a pleasure. In the first place he had not a great deal in the way of equipment, and in the second place, the appearance of his car on the road could create no more comment if loaded down with boxes, baskets, and carry-alls than if it had none of these homely conveniences. The early tourists made no bones about appearance.



Large compartments at the back of the front seats serve to house the auxiliary chairs when they are not in use.

One box, more or less, strapped to a running board or to the back of the tonneau, made no difference to the peace of mind of the owner.

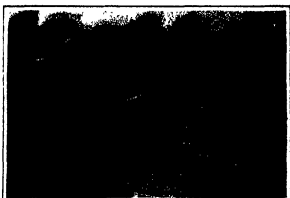
But automobiles and the persons they carry have changed somewhat since those early days. The modern creation, to find favor in the eyes of a purchaser, must be long and lean and sleek and smooth. In short, it must be a finished creation in the fullest sense of the word, make shifts have no place in its makeup. There must be a place for everything, which it is the duty of



How waste space is utilized in a closed car. The compartment is large enough to house several bags in addition to spare tires, tools, etc.

the manufacturer to produce, and everything must be in its place, which is the duty of the owner.

It is a fact worthy of note and comment that though the modern car is carrying a great deal more equipment than did any of its illustrious predecessors and there is a great deal more room for the disposal of the things the tourist considers necessary, there is less in the appearance of the cars now to indicate this than ever.



Route books, maps, touring data and other things that are wanted quickly fit nicely into these deep pockets.

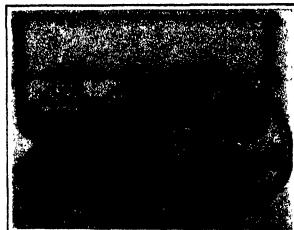
before; and what is of greater importance, it seems likely that though the cars that are to come next year and the year after will provide carrying space for still more of what may be termed luxuries, there will be still less indication of their increase in capacity.

Now, the most natural question in the world is, Why? Why can the modern car be made such a carry-all without in the least destroying its lines? Why are there no

bulbous protuberances? Where have the designers put all the things that once were in more or less plain view?

The answer to the first question is to be found solely in the skill of the designers. In a way they may be accused of taking a leaf or two from the books of their French cousins, for assuredly the French—and other European designers, be it added—are past masters in the art of providing almost extraordinary carrying capacity for freight other than passengers, and concealing it in the most ingenious manner.

Though the modern motorcar has proceeded along scientific lines and its development has come slowly in the light of past experience, it would seem that there is at least one feature of design that has not been given

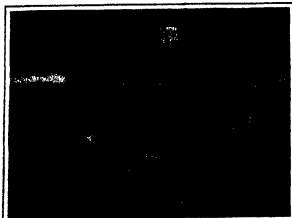


Small cupboards in the deep cowl serve as convenient receptacles for goggles, gloves and the like.

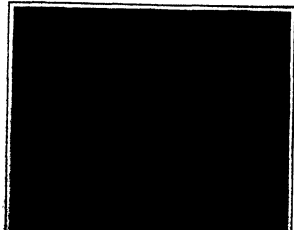
all the attention that it warrants, and, in the same breath, it would seem that this feature now is being given more attention than ever before.

That feature is the careful utilization of waste space. To the average owner who knows not a great deal about the actual construction of his car, it may appear that there is not a great deal of room that has not been put to some useful purpose. But in the majority of cases this is not so. There are a dozen places where

(Continued on page 500)



When tools are placed in this locker they are instantly available without the need for disturbing the passengers.



Here are some clever compartments that utilize the space between the foundation of the body and the outer shell.



Life-boat divided into two parts to demonstrate buoyancy.

Thirty-four men on one side of the boat to show stability.

A New Life-boat

THE periodic recurrence of startling disasters at sea keeps the subject of efficient life-boats prominently before the public, and the apparent failure of the life-saving devices in many such cases, whether through deficiency in the apparatus, or in the utilizing and handling the same, frequently raises this most important question.

Efforts by inventors are, however, not lacking, and only a short time ago a new craft was tested out in England with apparent satisfaction. In principle it does not seem, from the information at hand, that there is very much that is new in it; but in the carrying out of the design unusually excellent results have been secured in buoyancy, stability and strength, for it can be raised or lowered with great weights, without injury or distortion, and apparently can be safely launched overboard from a considerable height, as from the upper deck of a ship, in case of necessity and when davits were not available. In cases of this kind roller chocks, upon which the boat is adapted to rest, would make the operation possible. These same chocks can be arranged so that a boat can be easily moved forward or aft to a convenient position for launching.

The foundation, so to speak, of this boat appears to be three lines of air tanks running longitudinally in its bottom, leaving two bilges between in which water coming aboard can collect without flooding the passengers in ordinary cases. These tanks furnish sufficient buoyancy in a boat 28 feet long by 9 feet beam to support two hundred people, although such a number could not be practically accommodated in actual use. One of the illustrations shows thirty-four men grouped on one side of the boat, demonstrating its stability while in another illustration the two portions of a boat that has been cut in two and loaded with passengers shows its buoyancy. Of course, the lines of air tanks are subdivided into many sections, some forty in number, so that if some are damaged so that they leak there is still ample floating power left. This quality makes these boats especially valuable in war service, for they can be punctured many times by bullets without becoming unseaworthy.

These boats are partially self-emptying, as pipes are provided that will carry off all water above the tops of the air tanks. This new style of life-boat, known as the Gerard, has been satisfactorily tested in England, and is soon to be put through a thorough series of trials in this country.

The Study of Animal and Human Behavior

By Dr. L. K. Hirschberg

THE study of psychology has branched out into two new sciences of animal behavior and human behavior. Prof. John T. Watson is the leading exponent of the department of animal behavior, while Prof. E. M. Yerkes now tells the scientific world what human behavior is. This new science, he says, is only a portion of the general science of organic behavior. It presents practically the same problems as does animal behavior. To learn about the human "mind" you must perform the same sort of experiments as are conducted upon animals.

The behavior of mankind indicates the

mind of the humans. There are really no ways in which you can discover a man's or an animal's mind except by what it does, what its habits are, or what it produces.

Not only the books, the periodicals, and the teachers of popular psychology, but a whole host of men who should know better, still teach that there are such things and activities as impulsive, habitual, instinctive, voluntary and reflex behavior. Says Dr. Yerkes: "This time-honored classification is no longer in favor."

Instincts are things to be observed and re-observed under varied and rigidly controlled conditions. What is true of instincts is also true of various senses and of habits.

It is rather late to define behavior, yet an attempt to do so may serve to correct certain impressions which

seem not uncommon. The term as used by the scientist to-day, is inclusive not merely of those gross and obvious activities exhibited by man in common with the other animals but of hidden organic processes. The behaviorist is interested quite as much in reflexes which might ordinarily be relegated to physiology, as in habitual or instinctive or voluntary acts. But he is interested, also, as much in the complex forms of behavior, known as conduct, as in the simpler expressions of human intelligence.

But the practical-minded person has doubtless been asking, "How may the reactions of a person be scientifically studied?" Is it possible, ordinarily, to subject a human being to such conditions of observation as are used in experiments with other animals?" A few examples from studies of human and infra-human behavior will serve as an answer to these questions.

One of the most interesting aspects of organic activity is its modifiability. It is designated as habit formation. Now, it happens that in a great variety of organisms the formation of habits has been studied experimentally. In the case of the dancing mouse, for example, the relation of rapidity of habit-formation to certain external conditions was investigated. An apparatus was so arranged that the mouse could choose as its route either a dark or light passageway, then was determined the number of experiences necessary in order that the animal should learn that, no matter what the special relations of the passageways, only the light one could be safely chosen as a way of escape, since each time the dark passageway was entered a disagreeable electric shock resulted. In this experiment, which was so conducted that strictly comparable results were obtained from several individuals, it was first ascertained that the less the difference in lightness of the two passageways, the longer it took the mouse to learn to choose correctly. Next it was determined that the rapidity of learning varied with the strength of the electric shock, which was regularly given as punishment for mistakes. When the passageway differed markedly, the stronger the shock the more rapid the learning. When the passageways differed slightly, beyond a certain point, increase in the strength of the shock delayed the learning process. When the passageways differed by an intermediate amount, it appeared that an intermediate strength of stimulus was most favorable to habit-formation. From these observations it was possible to deduce the following law for the behavior of the dancing mouse: As the difference of visual discrimination increases, that strength of electric stimulus which is most favorable as a condition for the acquisition of a habit tends to approach a bare perceptibility.

In this investigation there is, first, a definite problem, second, a reasonably large number of observations, data, and third, a law of behavior for the particular organism in question. In effect, what was done with the dancing mouse might be done with human subjects, should it seem desirable to gain definite knowledge of aspect of habit-formation.

Another illustration may be taken from the study of imitative activity. It is generally recognized that imitation may be studied experimentally in any organism. But up to the present most observations of this group of phenomena have been



Dr. Watson's maze for white rats.

The ability of the animals to make their way out is an index of their mental capacity and behavior.



The shocking apparatus used to correct mistakes of animals in learning problems.

The shock is at its maximum never enough to cause pain.

casual, and opinions concerning the importance of imitation in any organism are quite likely to be based upon insufficient or inaccurate information.

In order to exhibit in the general features a method of studying imitation experimentally, investigations of this aspect of behavior in monkeys shall be considered. First of all, a number of acts or series of acts are sought which the animals either cannot learn to perform of their own initiative or learn with extreme difficulty. Such acts are most readily discovered in connection with artificially arranged situations as, for example, in connection with puzzle or problem boxes and similar experimental devices. The experimenter teaches one animal to perform an act, and thereafter, under definitely describable and constant conditions, he permits another animal to observe the behavior of the first. Any tendency for the second animal to imitate the first, or to modify its behavior in accordance with the activities of the first, is noted.

Such experimental studies as those of Watson and Hagerly have proved that certain monkeys imitate much less generally than is commonly supposed. And further that they imitate seldom, if ever, in the purpose manner in which man imitates. It seems that, although they imitate certain motor patterns in their behavior, this influence is chiefly a matter of the directing of attention. The imitations of means in a voluntary and wholly conscious manner rarely appears among the mammals below man.

An illustration from actual experimental work which clearly indicates the need of analyzing behavior complexes and the influence of the social situation on behavior is furnished by some recent work which was done with rats. The object was to try to discover the modes of heredity of savagery and wildness in rats. In order to accomplish this task, it was necessary to analyze this savagery and wildness. This meant discarding those acts or attitude processes which, taken together, meant to the observer or experimenter, or to the first record of observation was that biting, spouting, struggling to escape or attacking the experimenter and process of excretion appeared as important elements of savagery. The experimenter, relying upon these elements measured roughly the savagery of a large number of individuals, arranging them according to their behavior in six grades, designated roughly to five on the basis of this obviously crude preliminary work certain facts indicative of the mode of transmission of savagery and wildness were ascertained.

In yet other observations on rats which involved the comparison of two group stock, individuals and closely related individuals, it appeared that the behavior of the two groups, in the face of certain experimentally arranged situations, differed greatly. This, upon careful observation, was attributed to differences of temperament. The stock rats were rather active, energetic, quick moving, whereas the related animals were more stolid, slow and deliberate. In order that the reactions of these individuals in various experimental situations be properly interpreted, it is essential that the experimenter obtain knowledge of the temperamental character, such, for example, as degrees of nervousness or of timidity, of savagery or wildness, quickness of response, persistence, energy and so on through the list of aspects of behavior which, looked at as a whole, might be considered the temperament of the animal.

It is always safer to deal with trends of behavior in a large or wholesale manner—safer, for example, to study capacity for a particular sort of muscular expression, slugging or violent playing, than to study individual ability in general.

Methods might be described of studying attention orientation, visual discrimination, other aspects of habit formation, the permanences of habits, instinct and emotion in animals, but it will suffice for the present purposes to describe briefly two methods of analyzing behavior which have recently been used. These methods, unlike those so general use by students of animal behavior, are applicable to man and to other mammals, even to birds as well. They were, indeed, planned with the idea that they should make possible the comparison of reaction-types or reactive tendencies in birds and mammals, and all these in turn with the tendencies displayed by human beings either mature or immature, either normal or abnormal.

The two methods are the quadruple choice method and the multiple choice method. In the former the subject of the experiment is placed in a small room, on one side of which there are four doors. From experience, he learns that he may escape by one of the four doors, and only one, but which of the four to choose is his problem. It is the idea of the experimenter to lock on a given trial the door through which the animal escaped in the previous trial and two others. This animal has absolutely no way of predicting which is unlocked. The general question is, then, how will a given type of organism or a given individual meet this situation? What habitual manner of meeting it will be required? And will the modes of reaction displayed by a child compare with those of a man?

The other method is similar in purpose to that of the first, but it offers somewhat more satisfactory opportunity to evaluate and compare results. It consists, essentially, in the presentation to the subject—bird or mammal, young or old, normal or abnormal, of a bunch of twelve keys numbered from left to right, one to twelve. The subject is given to understand, verbally or through actual experience with the apparatus, that pressing some one of the twelve keys will yield a certain desired result, such, for example, as the displaying of a picture, the presentation of food, the ringing of a bell. The experimenter seeks to it that in no two successive trials is the same key the one to be operated. He is, further, able to push back out of sight any number of keys, and thus present to the subject as few as one or as many as twelve.

Assuming that in a given experiment the observer decides that the key the fourth from the left shall always be the "right" one, it then becomes the task of the subject of the experiment to suit his reactions to the number chosen by the experimenter. Only if he discovers the guiding idea of the experimenter can he succeed, trial after trial, in touching the right key at first. This method may be varied almost indefinitely in difficulty, and it may be made to elicit numerous reactive tendencies.

It is obvious that both of the methods thus briefly described are attempts to elicit general reactive tendencies rather than to analyze reactions minutely and carefully. The methods are indeed intended to bring into clear light those modes of responding to a given situation which are characteristic of different types of individuals of living beings, and thus to furnish a basis for a profitable comparison of reactive tendencies.

The question is frequently asked: "Why is it that the behaviorist deals so often with the activities of the lower animals and so seldom with those of man?" There are two reasons: In the first place, most lower animals are easily obtained, kept in confinement, bred and reared for experimental purposes; in the second place, many of them, in comparison with human beings, can be readily controlled throughout their lives and subjected to experimental conditions. Because, then, of the availability and controllability of lower animals, it is far easier and more satisfactory to make the preliminary exploration and problems defining observations on their behavior rather than on that of a man. It is further to be considered that the time of the human subject is worth infinitely more than that of an infra-human subject. On the whole, it seems clear that investigators work to advantage in the early stages of a problem in the behavior of man and lower animals. In the formulation of the problems and the development of the methods. Once fairly oriented and reasonably skilled in technique, they may with better effect attack the problems in human behavior.

What the National Guard Needs

By Lieut. W. W. Wright, Company E, Second Infantry, N.G.C.

THE Army League of the United States, an association composed of many of the nation's leading men, is putting forth an earnest effort for an adequate and efficient military force. The Army League favors an adequate Regular Army, Organized Militia and Reserves as the best guarantee of peace.

President Wilson in his last message to Congress expressed his sentiments as being in favor of an adequate Regular Army backed up by an efficient National Guard and Reserve, rather than a large standing army. The efforts of the Army League are apparently along these lines.

The President's view is a logical one. He believes that the backbone of the nation's military forces should be composed of militiamen, trained men in every-day walks of life who might be called on in case of need as were the "minute men" of the revolutionary period. The most reasonable and economical way to maintain an efficient military force for defense without the establishment of a large standing army, then, is through the National Guard.

Why do not young men join the National Guard in sufficient numbers to make it the efficient and powerful reserve that the nation desires, and what action is needed to make it appeal to the patriotism of our young men, our future leaders, the men to select?

It cannot be denied that there is a shortage of suitable recruits for the National Guard and that the War Department finds considerable fault because many organizations of the various States are unable to recruit up to the minimum number required by the Government.

There are many reasons for this state of affairs. In the first place, the National Guard is no longer to be looked upon as a social organization as it was in the years past, when the chief duties required of it were to turn out in gaudy uniforms for dress parades or at social functions.

Since the passage of the Dick law several years ago the militia has been armed and equipped in exactly the same manner as the Regular Army, and it is now a

plain business proposition, organized and equipped to be considered as a business branch as a part of the nation's arm of defense.

The issue is expected of it, as of the Regular Army, whose regulations it must follow to the letter, and of the M. While on duty its members must drill, march, and study the same as the regular, only not at night if it is. Therefore, why should not its members receive a certain per cent of Regular Army pay?

From personal observation, made during more than ten years' service in the National Guard of three States, I believe that the sooner the "Pay Bill," which has been pending before Congress for the past three years or more, is passed, the sooner will the National Guard become the powerful and efficient backbone of our defense which the nation needs and deserves it to be.

It has been said that you cannot buy patriotism. This is very true, but how many men would join the Regular Army if they were not to receive some compensation for their services?

The one great fault with the National Guard, the cost of all the trouble and the cause of the greatest anxiety to nearly all company officers, is the lack of suitable recruits with which to fill up their companies.

Give the average company man in the National Guard enough good money and provide a source of available recruits to draw from to fill up vacancies which constantly occur, and I dare say that he will turn out a company to be proud of and one which will compare favorably with a company of the Regular Army.

How many captains of the Regular Army could remain in the service if they were required to go out and supervise and handle men and pull them into the service? Yet this is practically what company officers in the National Guard are required to do to maintain their commands.

Each year recruits are becoming scarcer and scarcer, and the work demanded of both officers and men becomes more exacting. Each year the Government supplies us with more modern equipment, but what can we do with new guns and modern equipment, if we have not the men to use them? We are now furnished with practically everything required, except the most important of all, the recruits.

We now have sanitary corps and headquarters companies. Why not a recruiting service?

Company commanders in the Regular Army have drilled recruits assigned to them. Company commanders in the militia have to go out and hunt for them, and in many cases it becomes necessary to place new recruits in the ranks in order to fill out their skeleton companies. When it is considered that one of two undrilled men can spoil the appearance of an entire company, is it any wonder that National Guard companies do not always appear to be the best advantage? It does not signify that the average militiaman is not well drilled.

What would the Army or Navy of the United States amount to if the Government did not have an official recruiting service to supply its enlisted personnel? The United States spends vast sums of money annually to secure recruits for each branch of the service. The recruiting branch of the service is as necessary a part of the Army and Navy as are their fighting units.

Therefore I advocate the establishment of a recruiting service for the National Guard. Not to secure recruits in exactly the same manner as the Army and Navy do, but along somewhat similar lines.

I would suggest that the Regular Army bands be brought into play, and that they be detailed by the War Department in conjunction with able patriotic speakers and recruiting officers, to go to towns where a stimulus is needed to induce young men to enlist.

Patriotic concerts by army bands, which, as a rule, are not overburdened by their duties at the army posts, and speeches by able orators should tend to awaken the dormant patriotism in many young Americans and cause them to join the National Guard.

Suitable literature, both in circulars and billboard posters, setting forth the advantages and benefits to be derived from membership in the militia, should also be an aid in securing recruits.

One of the principal aims of the Army League is to combat the systematic anti-militaristic propaganda of various organizations and of certain sections of the press, as occasionally shown in apparent efforts to prevent enlistment, and to encourage peace and disarmament in the existing personnel.

The general public, perhaps, is not aware that such anarchism and un-Americanism exists in this country, but it is true, nevertheless, that the propaganda of these various individuals and organizations has had the harmful effect of placing the National Guard in an unenviable position. It is the opinion of the author that this propaganda has not only prevented many good men from joining the militia, but has also prevented many good Americans from joining the militia.

This action of the Army League is not commendable and should receive the support of all good Americans.

Sooner or later the Government will be forced to

take drastic action in regard to this matter. It has taken years of unwarranted agitation and abuse to injure the National Guard in this manner. It will take considerable counter action to again place it in the esteem of all the people, where it rightly belongs.

Another point I wish to bring out is the promiscuous use of the uniform or parts of the uniform by persons unaffiliated to wear such. One of the first things that officers are required to teach their men is to take pride in their uniforms.

What effect, then, does it have on the men of the Regular Army or the militia, when they see ex-servants, ex-drivers, members of lodge organizations, drum corps, etc., wearing the same uniform as they, or so near alike as to be undistinguishable to the eye of the ordinary layman? These men may be honorable enough in their respective callings so far as that is concerned, but surely they are not entitled to wear the uniform of the American soldier, and it is doubtful if such action would be tolerated in any other country. It does not tend to make the uniform respected either by the men of the service or the public in general, and no doubt this is one reason why men in uniform are not welcomed in many public places.

There is a law restricting the use of the uniform of the men of the service. It should be enforced to the letter.

These are some of the reasons why young men do not join the National Guard. These are some of the things that should be brought before the powers that be at Washington.

Leading and Firing Submarine Torpedoes

SPEAKING broadly, the submarine is a gun and the torpedo is its projectile. Just as the field gun must be brought within range and trained upon the target, so must the submarine. The range of the submarine projectile varies according to the type which is used. The latest torpedoes, designed for long range firing, have a range of ten miles, or ten thousand yards. These are used on battleships, cruisers, destroyers, and other surface vessels. The submarine torpedo is of a special type, designed to deliver an unusually large charge of explosive at short range.

Experience had during the present war seems to show that it is extremely difficult to secure a hit against a fast-moving ship at a range of several thousand yards, and this is in spite of the fact that the most recent torpedoes have a speed of 40 knots. This is explained by the fact that in order to secure a hit on a vessel which is moving athwart the course of the vessel which does the firing, it is necessary to aim the torpedo a considerable distance ahead of the moving ship, so that the torpedo and the ship shall reach the same point together. In order to secure accuracy, therefore, it is necessary to know the speed of the enemy and his distance with a very close approximation. It has been estimated that during the first battle in the night off Heligoland there were over fifty high-speed ships engaged, all of which were using torpedoes from the battle, even if the intention be omitted, lasted several hours; and yet not a single torpedo hit was recorded.

The successful torpedo work in the present war has been done almost entirely by submarines; and this, of course, is due to the fact that the submarine, because of its invisibility, is able at times to get so near to the course of a passing ship that it can fire its torpedoes at ranges of from say 500 to 1,000 yards, at which, if the officer in command of the submarine is at all capable, a hit should readily be made.

The submarine torpedo, that is to say, the torpedo used on submarines, because of its short range requires less air capacity and smaller engine power than the ordinary type, and the weight thus saved can be put into the charge of explosive, which, in the case of the latest German submarines, amounts to 400 pounds of extremely powerful trinitrotoluol. One successful hit by such a weapon will probably sink any ship afloat; for not only will an enormous rupture be made in the hull of the vessel at the point of contact, but the expansive energy of the gases within the hull will so strain and start the seams of the bulkheads in the vicinity of the explosion, that the ship, if she does not go down at once, will be filled by the gradual seepage of the water, and most ultimately founder.

Our front page engraving shows the front end of a typical submarine, which is provided with four torpedo tubes, grouped in the nose of the boat and parallel to its longitudinal axis. The tube, or gun, consists of a stout and strong bronze cylinder, into which the torpedo fits with a contact sufficiently close to prevent the escape past the surface of the charge of compressed air with which the torpedo is filled, and hence its being forcibly ejected from the tube. The torpedo, of which the latest submarines will carry three or four, is picked up by a crane on the pier and lowered to the front of the launch on the pier, where it is hoisted from the pier by the crane. The launch is then towed to the launch block of the pier, and is then lowered by means of the crane.

hand-wheel shown in the engraving. Another hinged door at the muzzle of the tube outside the submarine is lifted, and a charge of compressed air introduced at the back of the torpedo serves to fire it. As the torpedo passes down the tube, a small lever projecting from the torpedo is tripped and thereby admits the compressed air which drives the turbine engine of the torpedo.

The tube being fixed firmly in the hull of the submarine, it is necessary to train the submarine itself directly on its object, or, somewhat alike of it, as the case may be. This is a difficult maneuver and calls for quick work with the rudder. Sighting is done by means of the periscope.

The Current Supplement

THERE is a gratifying variety in the matter contained in the current issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2060, for May 29th, 1915. Some excellent pictures and a short article describe a new railway that has been built through a particularly picturesque region of the Alps from the Rhône to the Rhine. In the soldier line is a valuable article on the Development of Electromagnetism, which reviews some of the newer important problems. The Protection of the Strong discusses the results of the practical working systems for protecting the post and covers an interesting ecological question. Making Museums Useful will appeal to every reader interested in educational matters. The impression the public has heretofore had of museums appears to be that they are merely decorative public buildings, but this writer points out forcibly the great educational value of even a small museum, intelligent, arranged and conducted, and covers resources are limited and the outfit inconspicuous. The History of Optum gives a large amount of historical and technical information that is both interesting and useful. There is another of Sir J. Thomson's remarkable lectures on Atoms and Ions, which give the most complete exposition of the subject that has been published. The description of the European aeronautical laboratories is concluded, and there are a number of shorter articles of interest.

Pavement Patent Sustained

By a recent decision of the Supreme Court of Alberta the Canadian patent to Warren Brothers for the wearing surface of street pavement, known as the bitulite pavement, was sustained. The case arose over a paving contract in the city of Calgary undertaken by the Canadian Mineral Rubber Company, Ltd., in which there was practically no question as to there having been an infringement, and the matter before the court was as to the validity of the patent, No. 88,116, which is identical with U. S. Patent No. 727,505, and this was fully sustained by the court. This is the first case under the Canadian patent, but the United States patent has been sustained in several decisions.

Another decision that has recently been rendered in relation to this pavement was in a case where the city of Rochester had specified this pavement, a proceeding which it was claimed was prohibited by the charter. The court decided that this was a distinct "kind of pavement" and was not "a particular kind, make, style, or brand of material" which could not be specified under the charter.

Home-made Fire Extinguishers

IN many situations, especially in rustic localities, an abundance of hand grenades for extinguishing fire is a very necessary precaution. Many persons who hesitate to provide themselves with sufficient stores of these because of the expense will be glad to know that they can easily be manufactured at home at a trifling cost. A late number of *La Nature* gives three new inexpensive formulas for solutions which make excellent grenades when placed in mineral water bottles, which are easily broken when required.

Hazard grenades are tanks containing not quite a liter of the following solution:

Magnesium chloride	157 grammes
Water	56 grammes
Water	797 grammes
Hollow grenades contain a scant half liter of the following solution:	
Marble salt	200 grammes
Alum ammoniac	90 grammes
Water	110 grammes
The Schwabach "Death to Fire" grenades contain a trifling less of the following mixture:	
Marble salt	85 grammes
Water	17 grammes
Water	825 grammes

A Novel "Get Out and Get Under."—Patent No. 1,138,327 to Frank A. French of Pittsburgh, Pa., provides a repairman's trunk which is adapted to receive a repairman and his tools and is low enough to roll under an automobile. It also has a convenient head-rest and is designed to add to the comfort and facilitate the work of the repairman.

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

Rufus Porter, Founder of the Scientific American

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

My acquaintance with Rufus Porter began comparatively short time before his death.

In 1870 I was running a printing office in Boston, Conn., and a man came in one day, and asked about some printing which he wanted. He had a fiddle-bag, and a fiddle in it, and I judged him to be one of the old-time fiddlers and dance masters.

He seemed advanced in years, and yet not an old appearing or an old-looking man. I would have placed him at about 55 to 70 years of age, instead of the 80 or so which he actually was. He was of medium height, not over 5 feet 6 or 7 inches. I judge, eyes of light blue or gray, as I remember them, not requiring glasses, except for reading. The general impression that he gave was that of sturdiness.

He had evidently a well-stored mind, and was an interesting talker on the subjects of conversation which came up in our interview.

Such was Rufus Porter, founder of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, a typical Yankee of the old school, one who could turn his mind and hand to many things.

He wanted some printing to use, and as he was lacking money, he wanted to make an exchange of some service he could render to pay for it, and feeling an interest in the old man, I allowed him to print a sign, and did him the printing he wanted. Afterward he came again, and wanted to exchange a fiddle and a signglass for some more printing. I accommodated him, and kept them in my store for a number of years. I was told by some one who knew him that Porter never used the curs in his travels, but always trudged on foot to his destination. I think that he would have tired out many a younger man.

It may be of interest in those days of the automobile and its tremendous development to know that Rufus Porter was working on the plans of an automobile, and was planning to form a company to manufacture the same.

He showed me the sketch of one, neatly drawn on brown or buff drawing paper. A steam carriage, he called it. The plan was that of an ordinary carriage, with a boiler placed underneath, and using oil as a fuel. The engine was of the rotary principle, with chain drive.

Such was his outlook at his advanced age. In the non-utilization of his capabilities the world suffered an economic loss. He ought to have had a conservator over him in the shape of a captain of industry, or of some syndicate, who would have kept Porter's fertile mind at work on new ideas, backing them up with capital and business push, and then the world would undoubtedly have been the gainer.

Richard M. How.

In strong contrast to Rufus Porter was another man whom I met about three years after meeting Porter. This was Richard M. How, head of the great printing machinery firm of R. How & Co.

Mr. How came into fame by reason of his noted invention of the type-setting printing press about the time of the founding of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. His main patent was issued in 1844, the year previous to the founding and another important one in 1847. As I remember him, Mr. How was a small man, probably not larger than Rufus Porter. He attained fame and fortune, Porter did not, yet I am inclined to think that the latter was fully as richly endowed mentally as the former, and even more so in physical toughness.

Mr. How was brought up in a business of which he became the head, and in it he spent his life. He made a remark which may be considered as an epitome of his life-work in contrast to Porter's. In our conversation I expressed my doubts as to the probability of machinery being ever built absolutely perfect. Mr. How deliberated a moment, and then said, "Well, we try to get down a little closer, a little finer each year, and we think that we do it."

Mr. How gave to the world his best, and was an economic success. The conception of Rufus Porter—a journal for the diffusion of scientific knowledge—was a rich conception for humanity; by the labors of those who continued the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN this one production of his was redeemed from failure, and has been a splendid economic success.

Hartford, Conn. RICHARD AYATON.

In a patent, 1,137,393, Newell T. Fogg of Sanford, Me., discloses an apparatus for throwing the rays of sunlight into the throat and surrounding parts for the purpose of killing bacteria which may have secured a lodgment therein.

A Mercury-Vapor Engine

Increasing the Efficiency of a Heat Engine by Employing a Liquid of High Boiling Point

TO the layman the word *thermodynamics* suggests something abstruse, something perhaps remotely connected with practical things. Yet one of the fundamental conclusions from the principle of thermodynamics is as intensely practical as it is unexpected. The maximum efficiency of a heat engine working between a temperature t_1 of the boiler and t_2 of the condenser is wholly independent of the working substance (steam, hot air, gasoline, etc.), and depends solely on the temperatures t_1 and t_2 . It is a common fallacy, among persons not well versed in these things, to suppose that for an engine working at a low temperature (as for example in the exploitation of the sun's radiation) some volatile substance, such as ether, would offer advantages over water. As already stated, this is not the case, the efficiency is wholly independent of the nature of the working substance, given a stated temperature of boiler and condenser.

Yet Mr. W. L. R. Emmet, working in the research laboratories of one of our most progressive industrial enterprises, has recently spent much time and effort developing an engine which uses the costly element mercury in place of water in the boiler. How is this to be harmonized with what was said above? The explanation is simple enough. It is true that the theoretical maximum efficiency of a steam engine working between, say, 672 deg. Fahr. (the boiling point of mercury at atmospheric pressure) and 100 deg. Fahr., would be exactly the same as that of an engine in which mercury vapor took the place of steam. But a steam engine working at such temperatures would be impracticable, owing to the enormous pressure to which the boiler would be subjected. A mercury vapor engine can be and has been, built to work effectively at the high temperature stated. And the higher the boiler temperature, the greater the efficiency.

To recapitulate, the nature of the working substance has no direct influence upon the efficiency of the engine. Indirectly it affects this efficiency, in so far as it determines, owing to practical considerations, the temperature at which the engine can be worked.

This, then, is one reason for Mr. Emmet's labors in perfecting a mercury vapor engine.

But there is another point to be considered. The steam engine, as commonly operated, is extremely wasteful in its use of fuel. The combustion of coal furnishes a temperature of some 2,700 deg. Fahr. The proper conditions are, therefore, presented for obtaining a high thermodynamic efficiency. But owing to the properties of steam a large amount of heat must be allowed to go to waste through the stack, and, though a temperature of 2,700 deg. Fahr. is available in the furnace, actually only about 600 deg. Fahr. (using a superheater) can, at the very best, be made use of in the cylinder. Now Mr. Emmet does not propose to work his mercury vapor independently, but to intercalate it between the furnace and the steam boiler, so that all the advantages of the steam engine will be obtained as before, and the additional power furnished by the mercury vapor engine will be a net gain.

Whether the type of engine developed by Mr. Emmet is destined ultimately to figure prominently in industrial operations is perhaps at the present moment somewhat open to doubt. The prospect seems fairly promising, as will be seen from the description given below. In any case Mr. Emmet's engine possesses many features of the very highest interest, owing to the peculiar conditions which have been faced and the ingenious manner in which the problems involved have been solved.

The method applied in his process is described by Mr. Emmet in a paper read before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, as follows:

Mercury is vaporized in a boiler heated by a furnace of ordinary type. From this boiler (see Fig. 1) it passes at a pressure near or not much above the atmosphere, to the nozzles of a turbine which drives a generator or other utilitarian of power. From this turbine it passes to a condensing boiler where it is condensed on the outer surface of tubes which contain water, and this water is vaporized by the heat delivered, and the steam produced is used to drive other turbines or for any other purpose. This condensing boiler is preferably placed at a level above the mercury boiler, so that the condensed liquid will run back into the mercury boiler by gravity without the aid of a pump. Since the mercury vapor is much hotter than the steam the gases will normally leave the mercury boiler at higher temperatures than the gases leaving a steam boiler. To utilize this extra heat in the gases, it is proposed to convect them, first after leaving the mercury boiler through a heater which raises the returning liquid almost to the boiling point; second, through a superheater which superheats the steam delivered by the condensing boiler; and third, through a condenser which heats the feed water for the condensing boiler and so reduces the gases to the lowest practicable base temperature.

Very careful study and experimental development, means have been devised for reducing the amount of mercury used, for effectively preventing its loss or dissipation, and

for immediately detecting any failure in such prevention."

Mr. Emmet then goes on to discuss the disadvantages and the advantages of mercury for a heat engine.

"The disadvantages of mercury for such a process are: First, that it is very expensive, its cost being about 80 cents per pound. Second, that it is intensive and is capable of pervading the atmosphere in a very finely divided state in the neighborhood of places where the vapor can escape. Third, there are certain difficulties in confining both the vapor and the liquid although these, with proper methods, are not serious."

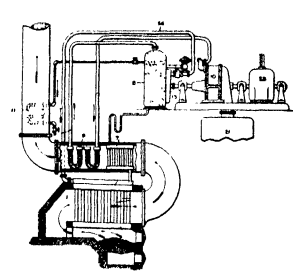


Fig. 1.—Diagrammatic view of apparatus to generate power.

1, mercury vapor boiler; 2, heater for liquid mercury; 3, condenser boiler; 4, superheater (steam); 10, steam turbine; 11, feed water condenser; 14, mercury turbine; 21, steam turbine condenser; 22, electric generator; 24, mercury vapor pipe.

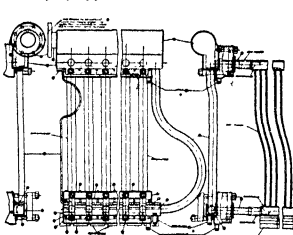


Fig. 2.—Assembly of experimental mercury boiler.

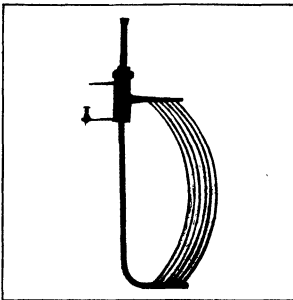


Fig. 3.—Second experimental mercury boiler tube.

"Mercury's advantage as a thermodynamic fluid for the purpose desired are many. First, its boiling point at desired pressures are convenient. Second, its high specific gravity makes possible the use of gravity feed, sealing of valve stems, etc., and centrifugal sealing of turbine packings. Third, it is completely neutral, at the temperature used, to air, water, iron, and such organic substances as it may come in contact with. Fourth, it carries nothing in solution which can adhere to or affect heating surfaces, consequently the interior of boiler is always perfectly clean. Fifth, its vapor density is so high that it gives a very low escaping velocity, and consequently a very simple type of turbine can be used.

Sixth, it does not wet the surface of turbine blades and consequently gives apparently no erosion. Seventh, its volume at convenient condensing temperatures is so small that it can be used in turbines without excessive bucket heights. One of the greatest limits of design in steam turbines is the large area required for the steam discharge of the low-pressure steam. With mercury vapor, this difficulty does not arise. Eighth, delivering its heat at the temperature and in the manner which it does, the condensing boiler in which this heat is used to make steam is very small and simple as compared with a steam boiler. Steam boilers transmit an average of about 6 watts per square inch with an average temperature difference of about 1,100 deg. Fahr. A surface condenser transmits 18 watts per square inch with 80 deg. Fahr. temperature difference. The mercury boiler is about equivalent in dimensions to a surface condenser, and since there is no high temperature involved, there will be no possibility of scaling or burning. High temperature, unequal distribution of heat, and the necessity for large heating surface constitute the principal difficulties of boiler construction. All of these are overcome in this method of making steam."

As regards the economy to be gained by his process, Mr. Emmet remarks:

"Before entering into the details of experiments or of the methods by which it is hoped to accomplish these results, it may be well to state the degree of economy which should be accomplished if this development succeeds. Assuming heat delivered to surfaces exposed equal to that in steam engines under equivalent conditions of temperature difference, gas velocity, and radiation, and assuming a turbine efficiency equal to that of steam under equivalent conditions, the calculation shows that in an efficient modern power station the same amount of steam can be delivered to the turbines at the same superheat as steam delivered in the present output, and that in addition about 60 per cent of the power so delivered can be delivered by mercury turbines, the fuel required being only about 15 per cent of that required for which would be used with the steam alone. Thus the gain in capacity of an existing station would be approximately 60 per cent and the gain of output per pound of fuel would be about 44 per cent. This calculation is based upon a mercury vapor pressure 10 pounds above the atmosphere and a vacuum of 28.5 in. low at the steam turbine condenser."

"About 10 pounds of mercury would be evaporated for each pound of steam produced, the steam pressure being about 115 pounds gauge, superheat 180 deg. Fahr., and the final temperature after gas leaves economizer being about 300 deg. Fahr. The vacuum in both steam and mercury turbin can be maintained by the same air pump, means being employed to separate all mercury vapor from the air in a suitable cooler."

"Experimental data indicate that not more than \$10 worth of liquid mercury per horsepower output is required. This is a small amount, and it is probable that with suitable arrangements, this amount can be considerably reduced. The general application of this process would require immense quantities of mercury, but inquiry has indicated that the sources of supply are such that the largest conceivable demand for such a purpose would not permanently increase the price."

Mr. Emmet then proceeds to describe his mercury boiler:

"With a view to developing a design for a mercury boiler which would produce the vapor with the practicable methods of firing without destructive temperatures in the steel and with a small total amount of mercury in use, it has been necessary to do much experimenting to determine the behavior of mercury under boiler conditions. The construction of the boiler as finally developed is shown by Fig. 2, and the experimental unit used to determine its characteristics is shown by Fig. 3."

"This boiler is made up of a number of heating units, each consisting of an upper and a lower header which are connected together by curved flattened tubes. The flattening is to reduce the space which must be filled with liquid mercury without distorting the surface. The curvature is to prevent mechanical strains through unequal expansion caused by irregular heating. These flattened tubes are connected into the headers by spot-welded joints. The tubes are first welded from the inside into channel-shaped pieces; these channels with the set of tubes connecting them are then annealed so as to relieve the stresses. After annealing, they are tested with high-pressure air, suitable clamps being used to confine the air in the channels. These channel pieces are then welded to the headers so that the whole unit becomes perfectly tight and capable of standing a high pressure. The headers of these units terminate in taper cones, which fit into taper holes in the box header at the bottom and into a vapor chest at the top. A curved liquid duct connects the vapor chest to the bottom header of the box and so that the heating units which are exposed to the greatest heat receive the most direct supply of liquid. In these hot units, a larger internal space will be allowed, and the units which receive the least heat will be made so that the colder part will not carry an unnecessary amount of liquid."

"The arrangements of the turbine have been improved as the result of experience. The first turbine arranged was made from an old experimental steam turbine, and had many joints which were difficult to keep vacuum-tight. The new experimental turbine has only one joint arranged in a manner which has been experimented with and which will avoid leakage."

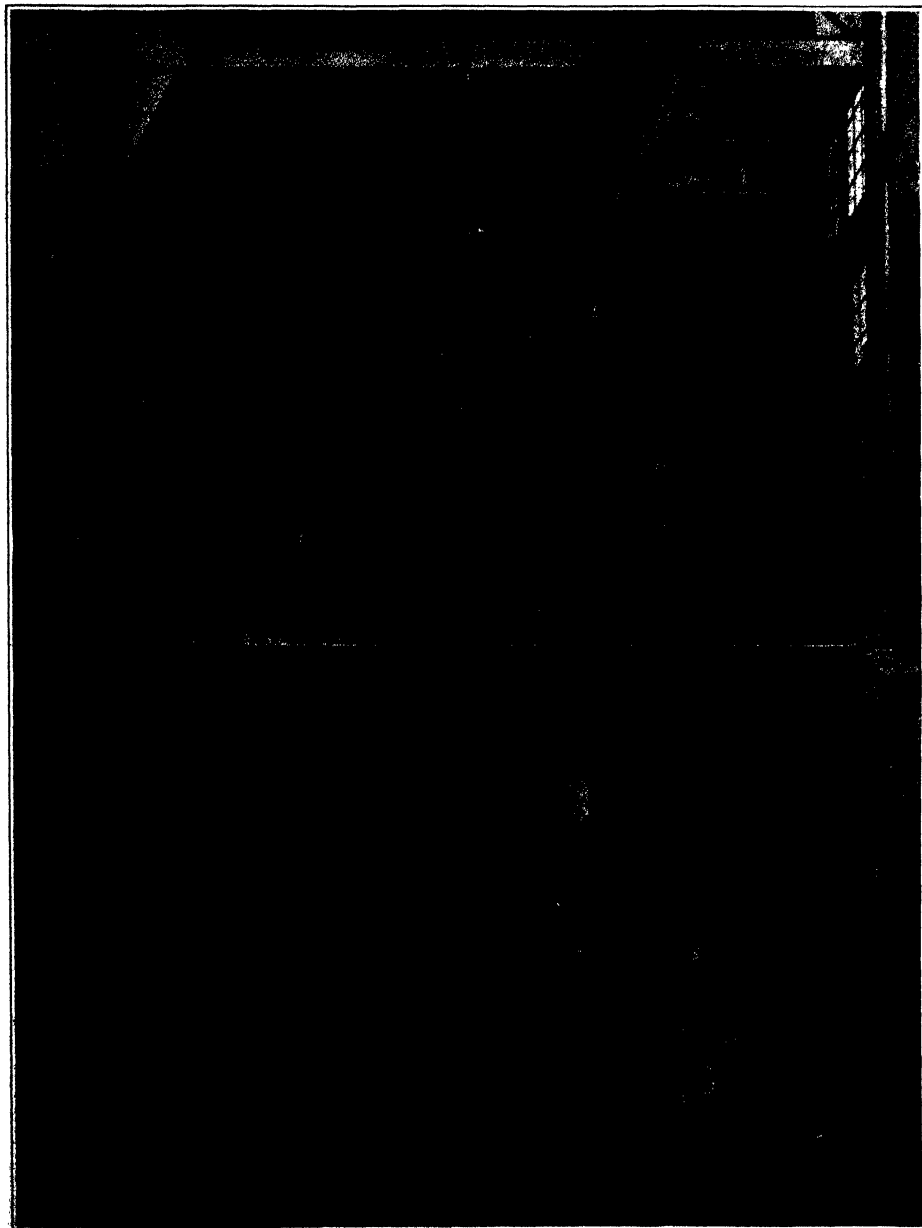
"The condensing boiler used in the experiment now in preparation is made from a standard high-pressure feed heater having a water space at the top and bottom connected by tubes in the middle. The heater is made of steel. This boiler has apparently worked satisfactorily and produced steam from mercury vapor in the manner expected. It is, however, somewhat inefficient in the manner of operation, since the temperature difference between a single stage of the expanded tube sheets. It is thought that other designs at once and very economical in the matter of space and cost. The Nicholas boiler will afford the most satisfactory means

for such condensers. Since no violent temperature differences will exist, it is believed that these condensing boilers can be made practically free from deterioration and entirely free from leakage."

The Kashmir Shawl Industry has not only declined since the days of our grandmothers, when it gave employment to over 90,000 people, but has also sadly

deteriorated, according to Consul Henry D. Baker, who has been writing a series of able and voluminous reports on the commercial and economic conditions of all parts of the Indian Empire. France was formerly the best market for these shawls, and the industry experienced its greatest setback from the calamities attending the Franco-German war. Many of the best

shawl weavers have left Kashmir and settled elsewhere, while others have taken to carpet making or embroidery. French patterns and new colors, such as magenta, are beginning to prevail over genuine Indian designs and colors, and the goods are rather cheap and showy instead of being real works of art as heretofore.



A MERCURY-VAPOR ENGINE

The Heavens in June

Studying the Acceleration of the Moon

By Henry Norris Russell, Ph.D.

IN certain branches of astronomical research there has gone on for centuries a rivalry between the observer and the mathematician, which Prof. Brown of Yale has wittily compared to the contest between the knights of cannon and armor-plate. The mathematician, equipped with the tools of modern analysis, attempts to force an invulnerable theory of the matter of some heavenly body—for example, the Moon—while the observer, to test the strength of the theoretical construction, hammers at it with an ever-growing artillery of observational facts. But in this friendly contest the observer has a great advantage. In Prof. Brown's phrase, he has "a gun whose power increases with the time." However accurately the theorist may calculate the future course of the Moon, knowing only that at a given time it was in a certain position and moving in a given direction and at a given rate, he must depend upon observation to tell him what this position and this speed was, and it is clear that, the longer the interval of time over which our observations of any moving object extend, the more accurately we can determine its rate of motion. It is for this reason that the few ancient observations of the Moon which have come down to us, though made with the unaided eye, and very roughly, are still of importance. If her motion were exactly uniform, after correction for the well-known periodic "inequalities" which set her alternately forward and backward at regular intervals, it would be possible to work out its rate so accurately from the telescope observations of the past 150 years that we could carry it back to classical times and compute her position then more clearly than the observers of that day could possibly have observed it. But, as a matter of fact, the Moon's motion shows a small but undoubted "secular acceleration," which means that, from century to century, she appears to move a little faster in the sky. The effect in any one lifetime is very small. The length of a month (measured by the Moon's motion among the stars), which in 1900 was 27 days, 7 hours, 43 minutes and 11.83 seconds, is steadily decreasing, but it will take 3,400 years to change it by a single second.

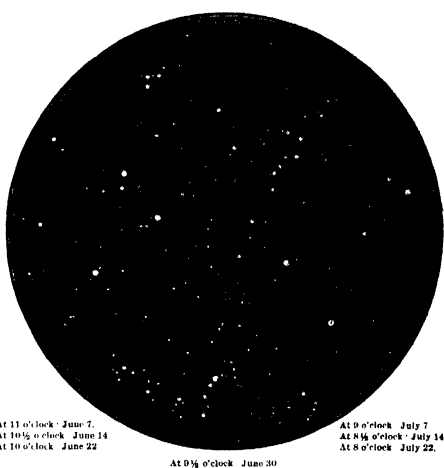
It may seem incredible that so small a change can be detected at all, but its influence is cumulative, and increases with the square of the time so that for a long interval it is important. Two thousand years ago, for example, the month was six tenths of a second longer than today. Its average length throughout the twenty intervening centuries must have been three tenths of a second more than at present. But in this time there were almost 27,000 (labeled) months so that the total effect of this small change in the length of each amounts to about 5,000 seconds, or more than two hours. If, then, we calculated the Moon's position 2,000 years ago, ignoring this change, and carrying its motion back at its present rate, we should go wrong by about 2½ hours' motion of the Moon, which amounts to 1¼ degrees. This is more than twice the Moon's diameter, and could not fail to be recognized by the naked eye. If good sky-maps were near the Moon, in the shape of neighboring stars or if observations were made at the time of an eclipse.

For more than two hundred years, since the time of Halley, it has been known that the Moon's motion presented this peculiarity; but the determination of the exact amount of the change is very difficult.

The latest word upon the subject, published but a few weeks ago, comes from an English chronologist and astronomer, Dr. Fotheringham, who has worked out the results of certain ancient observations, recorded by Ptolemy in his classic treatise known to us under the Arabic name of the *Almagest*. In this work, written in Greek at Alexandria about 140 A. D., are recorded a number of observations of occultations of stars by the Moon, or close approaches of the Moon to certain stars, with such clear statements of the place, year, date, and hour of observation that there seems to be no doubt of their meaning. Seven such observations, the earliest made at Alexandria by Theonichus in the year 281 B. C., the last at Rome in the reign of Trajan, in 98 A. D., are given by Ptolemy, and it is from these that Dr. Fotheringham has derived the value of the

change in the length of the month which is given above. The average outstanding discordance between the positions of the Moon so calculated and those described by the ancient observers is slightly over a quarter of a degree. It is probable that most of this discordance arises, not from the estimates of the Moon's position relative to the stars, which could be made under favorable conditions with much smaller errors, but from the difficulty of determining the time of observation with the very imperfect means at the disposal of the ancients. It is believed that the time between the moment of observation and the preceding sunset—or the following sunset, in case of a morning observation—was measured by means of a water-clock. From the magnitude of the discordances, Dr. Fotheringham concludes that these small water-clocks, on the average, ran wrong by about twelve minutes per hour!

In spite of these difficulties which beset the work of the ancient astronomers, these few recorded observations suffice to fix the rate at which the month is growing shorter with a "probable error" of about one per-



NIGHT SKY: JUNE AND JULY.

cent of its own amount. If only we had all the observations on which they based their own calculations, we would be better off, as is shown by the fact that Hipparchus, fully 250 years before Ptolemy, was able to determine the length of the sidereal month (the average period of revolution of the moon among the stars) within two seconds of time—that is, within a millionth part of its true value—and the length of the synodic month (from new Moon to new Moon) within a small fraction of a second.

The ancient observations of eclipses show that the Moon's daily motion, compared with the Sun's, is also growing more rapid, but at a slower rate than the motion compared with the stars; so that the Sun, too, must be moving a little faster per day through the heavens than once it did. According to Fotheringham, who substantially confirms an older investigation by Cowell, the Sun's "secular advance" amounts to about three seconds at the end of a century, which corresponds to a shortening of the year by a second and a half every century.

What the reasons are (so far as is known) for these singular changes in the lengths of the month and year, we must leave to be told next month, only remarking here that, since we use the Earth's rotation as the standard in all our measures of time, a minute increase in the time required for this rotation, i. e., in the length of the day, would make the number of days in a month or a year smaller, and so cause an apparent decrease in their length, due only to the slowing of all our clocks.

The Heavens.

As our map shows, the most brilliant part of the sky

is now in the southeast and south. Its opposite extreme from the bright stars within its confines than from the magnificent region of the Milky Way, which extends from Aquila southward through Sagittarius into Scorpio. The great star-clouds in this neighborhood send us far more light than the individual bright stars in their vicinity, yet most of their light comes from stars too faint to be seen with any but the largest telescope. The possessor of even a small instrument, however, will find innumerable fine star-fields and many beautiful nebulae and clusters, which will richly repay his study. One cluster in particular, between λ Scorpii and γ Sagittarii, is a splendid object, even in a field-glass.

Scorpio itself, now fully in sight, with the sweep of its tail curving down to the southern horizon and upward again, is the finest constellation in view. Following the Milky Way upward and to left, we reach Sagittarius; then, beyond the star-clouds, Aquila; later Cygnus, with Lyra above, and finally Camelopard, low in the northeast. Draco and Serpens are high in the north, and the Great Bear is fully displayed in the northwest. Leo is due west and near setting, and Virgo is higher up, in the southwest. Bootes, Corona, and Hercules are grouped about the zenith, and Ophiuchus and Serpens are on the meridian in the south.

The Planets.

Mercury is evening star until the 29th and morning star after that date. He is well visible during the first week of June, when he sets a little after 9 P. M., but disappears in the twilight before the middle of the month.

Venus is a morning star in Taurus and is now pretty near the Sun, rising at 3:30 A. M. in the middle of the month, just before daybreak.

Mars is likewise a morning star, in Arles and Taurus, rising about an hour earlier than Venus.

Jupiter is in quadrature with the Sun on the 19th and is due south at 6 A. M. on that date. He is in Pisces, close to the vernal equinox, and rises about 1:15 A. M. at the beginning of the month and 11:30 P. M. at its close.

Saturn is an evening star in Gemini and is very close to Mercury at the beginning of the month, but later falls below him in the sky, so that he will be the first of the two to be lost to view. On the 28th he is in conjunction with the Sun and becomes a morning star.

Uranus is in Capricornus, and comes to the meridian at 3:40 A. M. in the middle of the month. Neptune is in Cancer, visible in the early evening at the beginning of the month, when he sets at about 10:30 P. M., but lost in the twilight before his close. The Moon is in her last quarter just before noon on the 4th, is new at 2 P. M. on the 12th, in her last quarter at 9 A. M. on the 20th, and full at 11 P. M. on the 28th. She is nearest us on the 28th and farthest away on the 11th. She is in conjunction with Uranus on the 2nd, Jupiter on the 5th, Mars on the 9th, Venus on the 10th, Saturn on the 12th, Mercury on the 26th. The conjunctions with Uranus are close, but not observable from this part of the world; the others are wide.

At 7 A. M. on the 22nd the Sun reaches his greatest northern declination, and, in the phrase of the almanacs, "summer commences."

Comets.

Mellier's comet, though a fine circumpolar object last month for southern observers, has disappeared from our view, to return only as a telescopic object, when it requires a declination at which we can observe it. It is probable that it can be followed telescopically all this year and the next.

A new comet was discovered on May 19th by Behnen at La Plata, Argentina. Its position, as communicated by telegram recently, was in 0 hour and 55 minutes Right Ascension and 2 degrees 5 minutes south declination, which places it in the constellation of Orion, about 15 degrees east and 1 degree north of the present position of Jupiter. The comet is described as "faint in a small telescope."

No information regarding this comet is available as of the date of writing.
Princeton University Observatory



An old German hand-driven wheel-chair.

Measuring the Twisting Strength of Steel

By Robert H. Moulton

THE manufacturers of a well-known motor car have just installed in their laboratory a new torsion testing device for measuring the twisting strength of steel. There is only one other machine of the kind in existence, which is now being exhibited at the San Francisco Exposition, and has been purchased by the Japanese Government.

The novel part of the machine is the autographic attachment, which records in ink the torsion curve of the particular part under test. Formerly this measurement was calculated more or less accurately by an attendant. The capacity of the machine is two hundred and thirty thousand inch-pounds. It will test round, square, flat, or irregular specimens from one eighth of an inch to two and one half inches in diameter, and up to eight feet in length.

The machine is operated by a variable speed motor and two systems of clutches. It is automatic and autographic, the balance weight being operated by an electric clutch, the curve of the autographic part being taken on a drum driven through differential gearing.

The specimen to be tested is placed in position in the jaws of the machine, the gearing thrown into operation, and from this point the human element does not enter, nor is the machine again touched by the operator until the broken pieces are removed. The autographic mechanism delivers a complete curve, showing the exact performance of the tested piece throughout the operation.

Model of the Typhus Carrier

THE horrors of pestilence, a vermin borne disease, in addition to the awful sufferings on the battlefield, is the latest shock of the present European war for the dreadful scourge of typhus fever has already claimed thousands of victims in Serbia. This deadly pestilence of olden times, which must be clearly distinguished from typhoid fever, has almost disappeared from civilized countries in times of peace, and is a striking example of the relation between cleanliness and health. Typhoid fever was once confused with typhus fever, and when it was recognized as a different disease it was named typhoid because it was like the more common and more deadly scourge. Typhus fever was formerly also called "camp fever" and "foul fever," because it raged so terribly under the unsanitary conditions which prevailed in those and other vermin haunted places. In every century typhus fever has followed in the wake of armies. During the Thirty Years' war it claimed more victims than did the weapons of the combatants. It was the terror of the Napoleonic campaigns, and decimated the French army already demoralized physically and morally by the terrible retreat from Moscow. During the Crimean war it decimated both the French and English armies, especially the former.

It was only six years ago that a French bacteriologist, Nicols, followed by several American investigators, showed that the germ of this disease is carried from person to person, mainly by the bite of the louse and perhaps, at times, by other vermin.

At this opportune moment there is being constructed at the Museum of Natural History, New York, a realistic and most accurately constructed model of this devastating disease. It was planned under the direction of Dr. C. E. A. Winslow, curator of the Department of Public Health, and will

shortly be installed in the new hall of this section. It is to be shown along with other previous enlarged figures of the mosquito, fly, and flea, which have been described in this journal. These are to form a part of a new and comprehensive military hygiene exhibit illustrating the dangers of insect-borne and other camp diseases now being assembled under the supervision of Curator Winslow. This human welfare exhibit might be said to be the first attempt made in a pure Natural History Museum to regard man as after all one of the most important animals.

The model of the louse, an illustration of which is reproduced, is being prepared by Mr. Matuschak, an accomplished preparator attached to the museum, and will show the insect magnified a million times.

The Evolution of the Wheel-chair

WHEN the wheelbarrow came into general use in Europe in the middle of the thirteenth century, it was described as being, among other things, "a comfortable means of transporting invalids and other persons," and we see in an early print taken from a sixteenth century manuscript, what may, perhaps, be a prototype of that wheeled conveyance, man-pushed, seen on the Atlantic City boardwalk today!

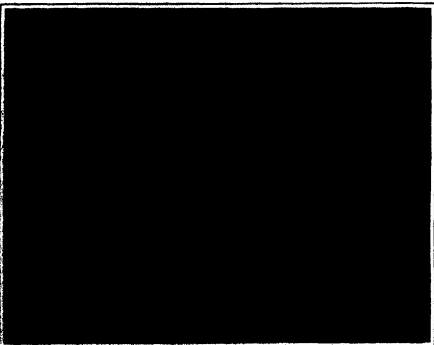
Long antedating the awkward wheeled conveyance of the thirteenth century, "invalids and other persons," including the dark-eyed beauties of the Orient, traveled more or less elegantly in litters slung on poles and carried by four bearers. Due, no doubt, to the lack of dignity in barrow riding (since we are assured of its



Machine for measuring the torsional strength of steel.

comfort) the use of the hand-pushed wheeled vehicle of the sixteenth century did not become popular, and we find a reversion to the old-time palanquin in that the typical light vehicle of the eighteenth century is the Sedan chair.

This chair was a portable box with side windows and a roof which opened to allow the occupant to stand when entering. It was entered by a hinged doorway in front, between the two poles by which a pair of chairmen carried it. These chairs were often beautifully decorated, some of the greatest French pastoralists embellishing the panels with the most exquisite paintings. Sedan chairs, with the poles so arranged that the chair was not tilted, were also used to carry invalids up and down stairs from their beds to mineral baths, and in connection with various baths and health resorts.



Enlarged model of typhus carrier in the Museum of Natural History at New York.



A twentieth century electrically-driven wheel-chair.

the use of the wheel Bath chair resulted. One can readily understand how being trundled around in a Bath chair would fall to satisfy a craving for locomotion, for the development of the motor chair seems to have come about not solely as an expedient for moving invalids but also from the desire for the pleasure of speed without exertion. And so, mankind having at length grown dissatisfied with palanquins, wheelbarrows, Sedan and Bath chairs, we find an article in the *Journal de Paris* for the 27th of July, 1779, announcing the invention of the first velocipede.

This swift and fearful vehicle consisted of a wooden bar rigidly connecting two wheels placed one before the other, propelled by the rider seated astride the bar and pushing against the ground with his feet. This rare machine was called the "gentleman's hobby horse," and immediately became so popular that it was followed by a "Ladies' Hobby horse," which was built with a neat seat like a lunch counter stool rising from a low bar near the ground so that the lady might scuff the path in a womanly manner. The hobby-horse, however, was halted in his wild career by the melancholy accusation that "this form of exercise gives rise to a disease of the legs." Thereupon an arrangement was developed whereby the front wheel was rotated by a hand crank, for strange to say, a gearing for foot power was not thought of until considerably later. An odd type of an old hand-driven wheel-chair appears in a German print in *Erldhaus's Die Technik*, which shows an enterprising gentleman evidently using all his energy to push himself along.

The motor chair seems to have come into existence in connection with the bicycle from the cyclist's desire to take along as a companion a lady or invalid who could not do a share in the propulsion. For we find the pleasant pastime advocated in *La Bicyclette* (1890) wherein is described a two-wheeled wicker chair attached to a bicycle.

A different aspect of chair cycling appears in 1890. This was what was known as the "Tocority chair," a spacious tricycle with wicker body behind which a man sat on a sort of footman's seat and pedaled, steering by means of a handle running under the chair from the small wheel in front. This elegant vehicle was declared to "fully meet the requirements of those who move in the inner circles of society." Thus we see the inception of the actual motor chair, and it is only a natural sequence that four years later there appeared in *London Work*, "Will you please give full instructions as to how to drive an invalid chair by electricity?" to which the following answer was given:

"To do this a motor that would develop about a quarter horse-power would be required, and this would have to be driven by means of accumulators. You would, I am afraid find that the accumulators would take up a lot of room in the chair, and if you had no means of recharging them, you would require an engine and dynamo. I think that you will find the cheapest and most satisfactory way is to hire a boy to push the chair."

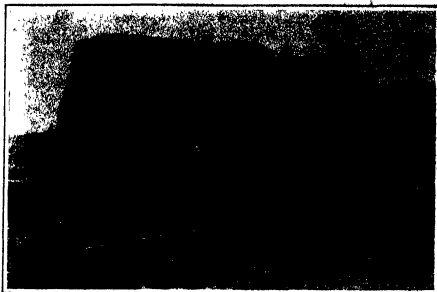
This suggestion, however, was a forerunner of the present day electric wheel-chair, which, however primitive it may appear a century hence is certainly a marvel of ingenuity beside the hobby-horses of the past, and would have seemed a piece of witchcraft in the days of the early wheelbarrow.

This unique vehicle is attracting much attention just now at the San Francisco and San Diego Panama-Pacific expositions where several hundred are in opera

(Continued on page 500)



Bathing train of the German army.



The bathing water tank car.

Mobility in Modern Warfare

THE accompanying random pictures will give some idea of what is demanded in the way of mobility in modern warfare. In Poland, where railroad facilities are very meager and roads are almost impassable in stormy weather, the warring armies have been confronted with almost insuperable difficulties. Motor trucks and powerful tractors have done heroic work in these emergencies. One of these tractors, an enormous gasoline-propelled machine, is shown herewith. It has been used by the German army for the transportation of heavy guns and trains of supply wagons.

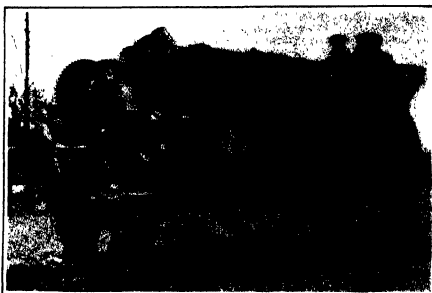
The battery of guns mounted in armored cars was photographed in Flanders and shows how the Allies are enabled to move their artillery quickly from one point to another as occasion demands.

The other two photographs are of a more peaceful character, but also have to do with mobility.

The German army has in use a train specially constructed for bathing, which can keep closely in touch with the men at the front. The train consists of a locomotive, tender, water tank car, three cars fitted up for hot baths, and several cars fitted with separate compartments. The tank car contains about 2,000 gallons of water, and about fifty soldiers can bathe at a time.

Log Train Locomotive

GASOLINE has displaced steam at Brewer Lake, Maine, for hauling logs out of the North Woods. The accompanying photograph shows an interesting tractor on sled runners, which is equipped with a caterpillar type of propeller driven by a powerful gasoline engine. Caterpillar traction is ideal for travel through snow. The machine weighs seven tons as against thirteen or more, which is the common



Huge German tractor used in Poland.

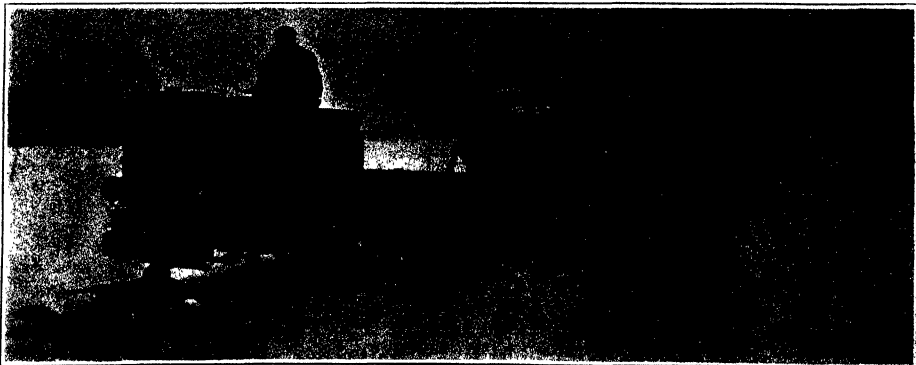


Allies' mobile battery in Flanders.

weight of the steam tractor. Some time ago this machine was wrecked by breaking through the ice of the lake when it encountered a triangular crack. The tractor went to the bottom, carrying with it the driver, who was drowned. The water is about fifty feet deep at that spot. However, the machine was raised and repaired. It is still at work when the ground is covered with enough snow, and can haul twenty cords at a load over common roads and bad hills.

Making Electromagnets.—An electromagnet is one of the most difficult things for an amateur to make without the use of machine tools. To make an electromagnet entirely by hand, the core is made of strips of thin sheet iron cut to the required size and assembled. A spool is made from sheet zinc by tracing out a figure that will fold around to make a square section, to envelop the core, while the four ends are bent out at right angles to form the spool flange. But as such flange is incomplete, it is reinforced and also insulated by a heavy cardboard split washer which is fitted on. Wood should always be avoided on account of breakage. The main part of the spool can be insulated by a paper wrapping. Such a laminated magnet has the advantage of being flexible, and the poles can be spaced at different distances apart.

A Novel Ball Rolling Toy.—Domènec Ronsoni of Chicago has patented (No. 1,132,796) a toy in which doll figures are seated one at each end and one at the middle of a table and motor mechanism beneath the table operates the arms of the dolls at the table end to roll a ball back and forth between the end dolls and also moves the head of the intermediate doll to cause it to appear to follow with its eyes the movement of the rolling ball.



A gasoline caterpillar tractor hauling a log train at Brewer Lake, Maine.

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

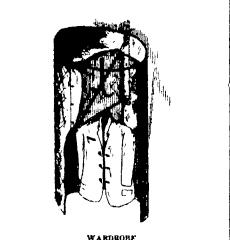
These columns are open to all patentees. The notices are inserted by special arrangement with the inventor. There is no application to the Advertising Department of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

Pertaining to Apparel.

ATKINSON—G. A. STRIMAN and F. W. TUCKERT. 85 N. 6th Street, St. Paul, Minn. This invention has reference to a device for use by butchers, bakers, waiters, hairdressers, etc., and it is the object of the invention to prevent the spreading and tearing of the tapes or the strappings during the washing process.

CORTUMER—T. P. FOWLER. 65 Bank St., Waterbury, Conn. The standard or stem of the costumer is a tubular metallic member having integral feet formed at the bottom thereof by splitting the tube longitudinally and spreading the split portions outwardly and downwardly in radial relation to the stem, so as to provide a wide supporting base, the upper end of the stem having a head provided with a series of large and small hooks for supporting coats, hats and the like, said head being formed integral with the tubular stem or separate therefrom.

WARDROBE—H. A. ROY. Jan. 10, 1907, N. 3rd St., Harrisburg, Pa. The object in this invention is to provide a device especially designed for travelers, and having mechanism for permitting it to be easily attached to a fixed support.



WARDROBE

port or detached thereof and capable of folding into small compact form for transportation and storage, and providing when in place protection for a number of garments of different character.

UNDERWEAR—R. J. OLSEN. Indianapolis, Ind. This invention has for an object to provide a garment having the characteristics of a union garment and form separate parts arranged end to end. It provides underwear substantially continuous throughout but separable substantially centrally, whereby there will be an upper and lower garment or part when separated.

Electrical Devices.

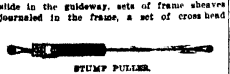
TERMINAL CONNECTION FOR SPARK PLUGS—J. F. HAYES. 244 North Broadway, New York, N. Y. This invention provides a terminal connection for spark plugs and similar devices arranged to permit of convenient attachment of a clip to the central electrode member of the spark plug and to prevent loss of the clip employed for fastening the clip in position on the spark plug.

SPARK PLUG—J. A. GILBERT. Box 103, Cocoa, Fla. This invention provides a plug which is capable of giving a multiplicity of sparks, thereby insuring the explosion of gas in the cylinder upon which the spark plug is located. It provides a spark plug having a plurality of spark gaps in series, these gaps being arranged in a substantially circular arc around the bottom of the plug.

Of Interest to Farmers.

POTATO FORK—A. H. KORTUM and F. BATE. P. O. No. 6, Long Prairie, Minn. This invention pertains to potato forks, and the object is to provide a simple, strong, and handy fork whereby potatoes or similar articles may be handled efficiently. The fork is adapted to engage a proper load and to maintain the same even when vacillated in handling.

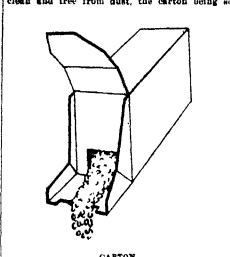
STUMP PULLER—M. HOLLAND. 500 22nd Ave., Seattle, Wash. The inventor makes use of a frame provided with a longitudinal guide-way, a driven drum journaled in the said frame, a cross-head or carriage mounted to slide in the guide-way, sets of frame members journaled in the frame, a set of cross-head



STUMP PULLER

shafts journaled in the cross-head and arranged opposite the frame sheaves, a cable fixed at one end to the cross-head and winding at the other end over the cable pulleys around the frame sheaves and the cross head sheaves, and a flexible pulling connection extending this shaft to be pulled and connected with the cross-head.

CARTON—R. GOODKIND. 820 W. 17th St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides a carton which may be used for holding cereals clean and free from dust, the carton being so



CARTON

constructed that when it is opened, one of its parts will serve as a spout and another of its parts will serve as a means to retard the flow of the cereal from the carton to the spout.

Of General Interest.

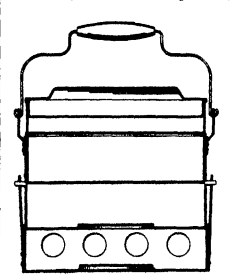
BURISH—C. A. FOWATT. 39 Wyome St., Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. An object here is to provide a simple, convenient, inexpensive and most looking brush in which the bristles of the stock are doubled up so that the same cannot fall out from the support thereof. The invention provides a brush which reinforces the stock at the handle and thereby stiffens it.

MOLD FOR CONCRETE PILES—G. A. CHAPMAN. 1035 Baum Ave., N. Y. This invention relates to a means for applying a covering of concrete to piles after the latter have been driven. It provides a mold so constructed and arranged that it may be applied and removed from the piles in water by any reasonable depth without the assistance of a diver.

IMBRICULA—KATHERINE C. HOYT. 13 Chestnut St., Schenectady, N. Y. This invention provides means for securing the cover to service relation rapidly and with increased facility, provides means for mechanically mounting the cover of an umbrella upon its frame and provides metallic members for holding the cover on the frame in line of conventional stitched construction.

PROTECTIVE TURRET—R. R. FOWETT. Yonon City, Miss. This bullet proof turret may be placed in a bank or similar building in which money or valuables are kept or which may be placed in a prison or mounted on an automobile, or mounted in the express or baggage car of a train, or any suitable car of a train, and which may be occupied by a guard, who is protected from bullets or shots of a larger or smaller, the construction being such as to allow the guard to shoot from within the turret with a minimum chance of himself being hit.

DINNER PAIL—J. SHERMAN. Niagara Falls, N. Y. In carrying out this invention the purpose is to provide a dinner bucket comprising a plurality of superimposed compartments, each adapted to receive separate articles of food, and each removable one from the other, means being provided for sustaining the said



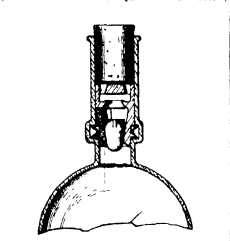
DINNER PAIL

sections one above the other, the sections being telescoped one with the other, and the retaining means being also adapted to retain the sections or compartments when telescoped within each other, which thus provides a comparatively small package which may be easily carried by the user.

SEWER CLEANING MEANS—A. BOENKE. 90 Main St., Rotterdam, Iowa. The prime object of this invention is to provide means whereby to hold the pressure of the flushing fluid in the sewer pipe and cause a sudden ejection impulse of the flushing water whereby to effectively remove any collected matter from the sewer.

APPARATUS FOR DISPENSING BEVERAGES—A. LAMORE. 1724 Jerome Ave., Van Nuys, Bronx, N. Y. N. Y. Among the objects of the invention is to provide connections between a barrel or series of barrels of beer in a cellar and the faucet at the bar on a higher floor, such connections being of a peculiar construction adapting them especially for being readily cleaned and kept in a sanitary condition.

NON-REFILLABLE BOTTLE—T. HENNING and O. A. HANSEN. 307 Camp St., New York, La. An object here is to provide a stopper which may be fitted into the neck of a bottle and which enables means to permit permanent flow of the liquid from the bottle.



NON-REFILLABLE BOTTLE

out to prevent refilling of the same. The invention also provides means for preventing the retraction of the stopper from the bottle neck after the former has once been positioned therein.

SLIPPER HEAD—A. A. PLATT and J. ZOLUNGER. Address the former, 122 W. 20th St., New York, N. Y. The purpose here is to provide a slipper head arranged to permit of convenient opening or closing it without the use of the elaborate mechanisms now generally employed. To accomplish the desired result, use is made of a spout mounted to rock in the cap of the head and controlling the outflow of the liquid.

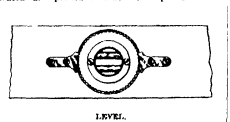
CARTRIDGE HOLDER G. SENGERS. 4052 Market St., Philadelphia, Pa. The prime object of this invention is to provide a cartridge holder whereby to hold simultaneously all the chambers of a magazine fire arm. In carrying out the invention use is made of a plurality of individual elements, each being provided with means to detachably hold a cartridge.

TRUNK M. HENRY. In 226 5th Ave., New York, N. Y. This invention relates more particularly to an adjustable support adapted to carry the corner of a tray or a hat or a similar object in a vehicle to provide a trunk which can be utilized with a tray, as an upright trunk, or as a hat trunk.

RECEIPTABLE COVER AND SPOUT F. M. ROY. 1405 5th Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. The invention relates more particularly to a cover and spout for a milk bottle. It further relates to a combination cover and spout for receptacles having means adapted to receive the receptacle stopper before the said combination cover and spout engages the mouth of the receptacle.

SHRDLIF AND TONDS.
SHRDLIF—F. J. LAMORE. 1044 8th Ave., New York, N. Y. The object of the invention is to provide a new and improved slip ladder provided with side braces for standing the step ladder sideways, and arranged to permit of conveniently folding the side braces when folding the ladder for transport on the back of the ladder.

LEVEL—T. COHEN. 1208 Clay Ave., Bronx, N. Y. N. Y. The level has a level member which is normally disposed in a horizontal position, opening in a frame an angular member being provided having openings at recesses in a curved disk and which engage the level member in the level member so that areas, which are provided may be disposed in the



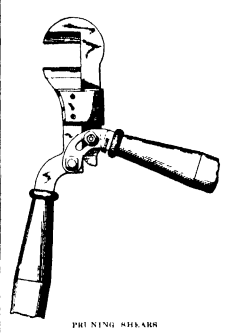
LEVEL

recesses for holding the level member in a fixed position. The level member is in two parts, which are normally held together so that the part with the threaded orifice may be moved away by the other part, which moves the level member to a position where it may be easily rotated, to permit of a readjustment of the disk relatively to the teeth on the frame which engage the curved edge of the disk.
SAW JOINER—C. MONTAGNA. California, No. 84 Quillico, Calif. The general objects of this invention are to improve and simplify the construction and operation of tools of the character referred to as so to be reliable and efficient in use, and so designed that the

Joining or sawing of the saw teeth is accomplished automatically as the tool is moved along the saw.

KNIFE BLADE—A. A. BECHER. Cochrans, Alberta, Canada. The purpose of this improvement is to provide a knife blade whereby, in trimming the nails the knife will not cut the same to the quick, which blade will easily and quickly trim the nails without any danger of injury to the nail and without poisoning the nail.

PRUNING SHEARS—W. R. BARR and H. A. BARR. 211 10th St., St. Paul, Minn. The shears are adapted to be employed for pruning the limbs of trees, the branches of bushes, or vines, and objects of the invention are, to provide an arrangement of relatively movable blades whereby the force exerted by the user



PRUNING SHEARS

will be most effectively applied to provide blade and operating means that will result in a clean smooth cut without bruising the bark or injuring the pruned member, and to provide blades that may be sharpened with the greatest facility.

REMAINING HILLS FOR PROTECTING DRILLS—W. T. LAMORE. 2230 Ridge Park Ave., Birmingham, Ala. The invention relates to formers, or supports for use in drilling holes for prospecting, and for other purposes, fastening bolts in a rack in order to anchor structures, such as buildings, towers, bridges, trusses, etc. It provides a means of holding for enlarging the hole in those portions extending through troublesome strata in order to accommodate and fasten the protecting cage or sheave.

COMBINED PIPE WRENCH AND CUTTER AND PIPE—J. J. SENGERS. 210 E. 4th St., New York, N. Y. Among the objects of this invention is the provision of a tool or implement adapted to reach down into a casing to make a pass-out for the manipulation of a gas standpipe, the upper end of which is commonly located below the surface of the pavement or within the ground.

DOUBLE ACTING TAYLOR HINGE—O. KERNSTADTER. 215 West Huron St., Chicago, Ill. The invention relates particularly to a double acting hinge which may be readily fitted to a door or support of any thickness. It provides a hinge with a center having a barrel at each end arranged on one side thereof and associated with a bay flange designed to connect the hinge with a support.

THREADED NUT—J. J. BAKER. 31 Herman St., Glen Ridge, N. J. The invention provides a threaded nut more especially designed for use in machine tools, or machines and for general purposes, to enable the user to quickly and accurately determine whether the thread of a screw, bolt, tap or similar threaded article is of the correct size, or not.

PERSPECTIVE FINDER—G. A. HEMANN. In Walnut St., Worcester, Mass. The invention provides means for locating the correct perspective angle of distant objects, provides means for determining the convergence of boundaries line of said objects, and shows the vanishing point for perspective drawings, provides for aiding and teaching elementary perspective and free hand drawing and more particularly in the teaching of the rules relating to, and for facilitating the scholar with the method followed in the construction and perspective drawing, and provides means for disposing in definite arrangement the field of vision in which a drawing is to be limited.

Heating and Lighting

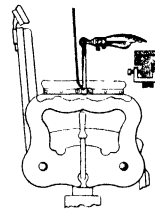
ELECTRIC WATER HEATER—H. J. QUINN. American, N. Y. The invention has for its object the provision of a heating device quickly heating a quantity of water or other liquid. Among other advantages, the invention is a handy and ready of application, it is useful in the sick room and for general purposes, and it is a great boon especially for home centers and home nursing points.

WINDING DEVICE FOR TAPE MATHS—C. H. JENSEN. 616 Sutter St., San Francisco, Cal. This invention relates to extension or

drop lights for electric fixtures, and deals more especially with improvements in the construction of a winding mechanism for the flexible electric cord. The apparatus is so designed as to be easily and quickly manipulated for adjusting the light to any desired position.

HEATER.—I. T. CHAMBERLAIN, Box 202, Orono, Wis. The present invention is designed to provide a heater having the maximum heating capacity in proportion to the fuel consumption. A further design is to provide a heater that can be utilized for effectively ventilating a room or rooms.

LAMP FOR BARBERS' CHAIRS.—A. SCLAFANI, 157 4th St., New York N. Y. This lamp is more especially designed for reasonable attachment to the arm rest of a barber's chair and arranged to strongly illuminate a man's head for shaving purposes. The lamp is made of a socket or a bracket attached to the arm rest of the chair, a post removably seated in the



LAMP FOR BARBERS' CHAIR.

bracket, an arm mounted to swing up and down on the upper end of the post and extending forwardly and an electric lamp mounted on the arm to extend forwardly. The lamp being provided with a reflector to direct the rays of light downward onto a head resting on the arm rest of the chair in which the lamp is seated.

Household Utilities.

TROUSER POLISHER.—J. A. McGRATH, Brookline, Mass. The main object in this case is to provide means for accomplishing the result in a pleasurable manner. A further object is to provide such means which utilize the weight of a person using the same. A further object is to provide such means in the shape of foot coverings, such as slippers adapted to be worn by the user.

PERCOLATOR.—W. D. COLLINS, 1907 14th Ave., Bronx, N. Y. The object of the invention is to avoid boiling of the coffee while making the same, to save heated water through the ground coffee once only, to provide an independent receptacle for the liquid coffee, to avoid recollecting the heated water back and also avoid heating the liquid coffee in its receptacle, and to avoid breaking the same over.

WINDOW SCREEN.—E. SONNEN, 240 9th Ave., L. I. City, N. Y. N. Y. This invention is designed so as to be reliable and efficient in use readily adjusted to open or closed position to absolutely prevent the entrance of flies, mosquitoes or other insects as cracks between the frame of the screen and the window frame and mashes are avoided.

CARPET STRIP.—T. P. A. F. B. 2250 k. 20th St., Oakland, Cal. The invention provides an arrangement wherein nails, tacks and the like may be used for holding carpet in place when used on stone or cement floors. A



CARPET STRIP.

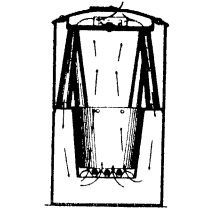
metallic strip receives a nail or other securing means for holding carpet in place, the strip being arranged so as to be readily used on floors, stairs and other places where it is desired to place a covering.

ARM AND GARRAGE CAN.—H. HARMAN, 61 E. 4th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a form of can or body which can be out of the way, the cover being permanently attached to the body of the can both in its open and closed position, so that the can will not become lost, injured or otherwise rendered useless.

WASHBOARD.—MARTIN R. KELLSTROM, 110 E. 41st St., New York. The object of the invention is the provision of a new and improved washboard arranged to permit of rubbing the clothes over the corrugated surface in the usual manner and to allow of washing the clothes while in a tub by rubbing and suction action.

FLUSTRING DEVICE.—P. W. O. BROWN, 225 11th St., San Antonio, Tex. The object of the main objects in this case is to provide a device which is readily applicable to any closed tank. A further object is to provide means operable by the closed tank for setting the valve and receding means for raising the valve when said seat resumes its normal position.

STOVE.—H. J. SCHULTZ, 337 E. Market St., Louisville, Ky. This invention relates to heating stoves, and provides such a stove wherein the air supplied to the fuel gas is heated, thereby resulting in great fuel economy.



HEATING STOVE.

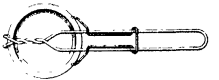
It provides top intermediate and lower chambers, the first of which is adapted to be placed in communication with other the lower chamber or with the escape flue of the stove in the normal operation of the stove, or to prevent back draft when the stove door is opened.

WINDOW CLEANER.—L. S. NEDERBERGER, 1764 Ontario Park East Bronx N. Y. N. Y. The cleaner is arranged to permit the user to conveniently attach it to or remove it from the window sill and to allow of simultaneously cleaning both the inner and outer face of the window pane with any desired pressure of the fingers against the face of the pane as required.

HUMIDIFIER.—E. J. BROWN, 557 W. 42nd St., New York N. Y. The object here is to provide an improved humidifier more especially designed for use in rooms associated with a radiator or other heating medium to supply moisture in an ample quantity to the surrounding air atmosphere with a view to properly maintain the same.

CLOTHES LINE SUPPORT AND ADJUSTER.—P. L. MURPHY, care of George Nelson, 1715 E. 14th. The object of the invention is to provide an improved clothes line supported on posts or equivalent elements and having associated therewith novel adjusting means. The pins are so slanted to the clothes that the latter will form a connection between adjacent pins and the hauling of these pins will result in drawing the pin and clothes in succession toward the support and by a reverse movement the clothes may be conveniently hung and removed.

PAN AND PLATE LIFTER.—E. L. DUNN, 126 Lorain Ave., Upper Montclair, N. J. The object of this invention is to provide a pan and plate lifter in two pieces which are constructed of wire bent to obtain the greatest



PAN AND PLATE LIFTER.

possible strength with the least weight. The construction permits the free movement of one of the pieces along the other for engaging the hooks on the pieces with a pan or plate or for disengaging them therefrom.

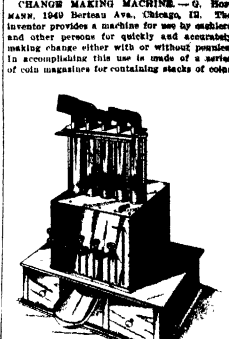
Machines and Mechanical Devices.

CIGARETTE MAKING DEVICE.—J. F. BROWN, 225 Madison St., Boston, Box 829, Boston, N. C. More particularly the device is designed to produce a device by means of which a cigarette wrapper may be pulled and filled with a tin cut tobacco of the general character of the device is known as a "cigarette" although the device is applicable for forming cigarettes from tobacco generally.

DEVICE FOR REPLACING AND ADJUSTING COILS IN FIELD COILS.—J. H. MAITZ, 40 Brooklyn Ave., Brooklyn N. Y. N. Y. The device is so arranged that the coils may be removed from the field, which will obviate the present use of block and fall with the adjusting mechanism, thereby saving the time and labor of rewinding or adjusting of the coils can be readily and quickly done without using any of the other devices, and the battery for adjustment or other purposes.

LINE ADJUSTER FOR TYPE WRITER.—P. L. MURPHY, 337 E. Market St., Louisville, Ky. The invention is a device adapted to be added to any usual or conventional form of typewriter machine to which the attachment is applicable for the purpose of adjusting the platen or roller to any desired extent less than the full space of adjustment.

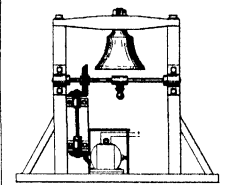
CHANGE MAKING MACHINE.—O. BOWMAN, 1940 Boreas Ave., Chicago, Ill. The invention provides a machine for use by bankers and other persons for quickly and accurately making change either with or without pennies. In accomplishing this use is made of a series of coin magazines for containing stacks of coins



CHANGE MAKING MACHINE.

of different denominations coin slides for receiving the lowermost coins from the said stacks of coins, one or two sets of setting rings for setting the said coin slides according to change to be made, and electric rings for moving the set coin slides to eject coins from under the stack of coins.

WELL RINSING DEVICE.—H. D. HAYDON, Shamokawa, Wash. The invention relates more particularly to a fog bell, in which a fixed bell is employed and is automatically sounded at predetermined intervals. The prime object of the invention is to provide in association



WELL RINSING DEVICE.

with the fixed bell an independent revolvably mounted clapper or striking device arranged to give a plurality of sounding strokes against the bell at any desired rapidity of succession, the striking periods occurring at the desired intervals.

WATER FILTER.—H. L. KERNST, Address Russell Bros., Nevada, Ohio. This invention provides a reasonable screen that may be taken out and replaced or renewed and provides mechanism in connection with the screen and the filter for preventing loss of water through the opening for the discharge of the impurities being retained or by capillary attraction. The filter is entirely automatic, every part being accessible, and it is self-cleaning.

REVEALING MACHINE.—C. M. VANDERBILT, and H. J. HOGUE, Milton, N. J. The object here is to provide a device by means of which a film may be developed, rinsed and dried without the necessity of touching the film with the hand. It provides a device in which a longer film may be placed in the machine in such a manner as to insure no part of the sensitive surface of the film coming in contact with any part of the apparatus.

TRAP.—G. W. MONTGOMERY, 302 W. Main St., Lead, R. D. The invention provides a device wherein a holder is provided, having means for supporting bait, and means for receiving and holding a cartridge, and over the holder is provided a normally active mechanism for expelling the cartridge, the said mechanism being normally held in inoperative position by a trip, which is released by the animal, when the animal attempts to release the bait.

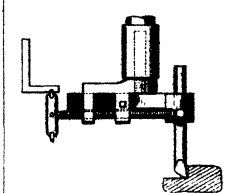
AUTOMATIC WEAVING AND WOVING MACHINE.—F. B. DAVENPORT, 606 Oak St., Chicago, W. Va. The improvement relates to means for causing the operation of the loom to be controlled by the action of the loom for automatically shifting the belt of a self driven machine from the light to the lower pulley or vice versa, depending upon the color of the warp toward the machine.

WELL PUMP.—G. B. WILSON, care of Union Club of South Africa, Johannesburg, South Africa. This invention has for its object to provide an inexpensive, simple and balanced pump. To carry this object out the inventor employs

a pump having a reciprocating piston driven by a valve rod and a series of valves controlled spring. The pump is particularly constructed for operation with a well.

CANDIDATE PILL.—J. H. HARRIS, care of Wick Court, Holborn London, W. C., England. This invention relates to a pill for the treatment of diseases or carbonated gases, such as indigestion, flatulence, etc. The invention provides a device by means of which said gases, indigestion or other flatulent contents may be placed and used within the barrel of the sugar crystallized and the juices to be filtered may be caused to pass through this layer by the action of centrifugal force.

DRILL ATTACHMENT.—C. SWANBERG, Address Geo. F. Williams, Cadillac, Mich. This attachment is for use with hand or power drills for converting the drill into a planer designed to operate upon disks, pulleys, mandrels, and like circular or cylindrical bodies wherein a support is provided having means for engaging the drill stem to constrain the



DRILL ATTACHMENT.

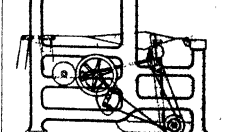
support to rotate therewith, and a holding bar mounted for rotation on the support, rotatable with respect to the drill stem, and provided with means for supporting a bit or tool for rotation about the axis of the stem, together with mechanism operating by the revolution of the bit or tool for feeding the bit or tool.

DRILL.—J. L. LARSEN, 540 3rd Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y. N. Y. The drill has an arm rotatably mounted on a motor, this arm having a section which is rotatably mounted on the body of the arm on an axle extending longitudinally of the arm body, the section of the arm having bearings on which a spindle is journaled, the spindle being operable by a belt connected with the motor shaft and having movable levers continually of the axis of its bearings to carry a tool secured to the spindle into operative position.

MACHINE FOR PREPARING RUBBER.—J. R. FURBER, Engineer, Watwood Works, Waterborough, England. This machine is of the type in which a batch of washed crude rubber is subjected to the action of rotating blades or their equivalent arranged in intercommunicating chambers. The invention provides for the more ready and effective drying or mastication of the said rubber and incorporation thereof of the usual ingredients required to adapt it to most various services.

ALERTING DEVICE AND THE LIKE.—H. K. HARRIS, care of Wick Court, Holborn London, W. C., England. The principal purpose in this invention is to provide means for transmitting a message by a controlling apparatus, designated as a Jacquard, in such manner as to display a number of lights or intelligible signs so arranged as to act as a visual signal, the Jacquard being adapted for controlling within the limits the character of the signals displayed.

SHUTTLE OPERATING MECHANISM.—G. J. HARRIS, 104 Greenville, Pa. This invention relates to looms having a series of shuttles for simultaneously weaving a plurality of looms or other narrow ways. The mechanism is arranged to insure a positive and accurate movement to the shuttle without danger of break-



SHUTTLE OPERATING MECHANISM.

ing the operating stroke. To accomplish this, use is made of a rack bar provided with a pin engaging a series of pins. The pins are arranged in a row of a roller driven in opposite directions by suitable means connected with the shaft of the loom.

RAIL DUMPING SCREW.—E. B. BROWN, 443 E. 27th St., New York, N. Y. The invention is arranged to permit of emptying a hopper

which is very kind of weather discharging, the field circuit, regarding electric power, and the other, the motor, which is electrically driven, and is adapted to the heating, producing an effect of a single use.

HEATING ROLLER FOR ROADSIDE—**W. H. WATSON**, N. Y. This invention provides for mechanically controlling and partially preventing the bare from which the rollers are substantially made; provides the rollers or rollers of the rollers with the bare and also forming rollers thereon, and releases the rollers of the rollers by the rollers when passing therefrom.

PROCESS OF AND APPARATUS FOR MAKING RECEPTACLES—**A. C. CLAIR**, 150 6TH ST., Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention relates to a process of making receptacles such as milk bottles and the like, and refers more particularly to a process of this kind which consists in introducing plastic material into a mold, in causing the viscous material to be spread upon the inner surface of the mold, and in introducing fluid under pressure into the mold to force the material against the walls of the same.

ROUNDER CUTTING MACHINE—**W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J. This invention relates to the manufacture of wall paper, and its object is to provide a machine adapted to enable the attendant to keep the design printed on the border in register with the cutting roll, to insure accurate cutting of the border along the contour of the imprint.

STAMP SUPPORTER FOR CIGARETTE BOX STAMP APPLICATOR—**W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J. This invention has for its object the provision of means for supporting the stamps in outcropped relation beneath one of the delivery points of the box, where the same is placed to receive the stamps; and to provide means for preventing misalignment of the stamps employed with the boxes to be supplied therewith.

PICKER HEAD CRACK—**A. A. PARKER**, 150 6TH ST., Brooklyn, N. Y. The aim of the invention is to provide certain features which are picker head cracks whereby the varying qualities of the ore are increased and the spring for providing power is connected within the same, thus forming a undesirable projection.

PROCESS OF AND APPARATUS FOR MAKING RECEPTACLES—**A. C. CLAIR**, 150 6TH ST., Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention relates to a process of making receptacles such as milk bottles and the like, and more particularly to a process which consists in introducing plastic material into a mold, in causing the viscous material to be spread upon the inner surface of the mold, and in introducing fluid under pressure into the mold to force the material against the walls of the same.

WORK TABLE GUARD FOR POWER PRESS—**J. W. SWANNEY**, 117 W 70TH ST., New York, N. Y. This improvement refers to automatic guards for use in connection with the work table of punching, stamping and other power presses, whereby the workman is prevented from leaving the work in such position with respect to the work that they are liable to be injured by the machine in performing its operation.

ADVERTISING CLOCK—**H. MILLER**, 110 Greene St., New York, N. Y. This invention provides means for projecting any suitable distance and formulae in any desired size, the simulation of an illuminated clock face. It provides means for projecting time, in the manner stated, in a satisfactory manner, and the distances, and providing also means for displaying upon the clock face a suitable advertisement.

PAPER FEEDING DEVICE—**J. L. THOMPSON**, Greenburg, Kan. The object here is to provide mechanism for connection with the printing press, and comprising forwarding and receiving magazines for the printed matter, together with mechanism for feeding the sheets from the forwarding magazine to the press, and from the press to the receiving magazine, the mechanism being automatic and fluid controlled.

POCKET CUTTER—**A. B. CAMPBELL**, Jr., care of Campbell-Ware Co., Jacksonville, Fla. In this patent the invention is an improvement in pocket cutters, and has for its object to provide mechanism for quickly and easily cutting pockets in the jaws of woolly crumfs, for receiving balanced masses, whereby the cutting is done by a continuous moving chain.

Electrical Instruments—**W. H. WATSON**, 127 Louisa St., Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention provides an electric and the manner is caused to strike a string and immediately recede therefrom, thus providing full vibration of the string. Means are provided for carrying a note when a key is held depressed after striking a string, and means for maintaining a damper out of the string engagement in this depressed position of the key, and allowing the damper to wear on and off when said key is released.

Machine and Water Apparatus—**W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J. This invention provides for the use of the rollers in the rollers of the rollers, and also forming rollers thereon, and releases the rollers of the rollers by the rollers when passing therefrom.

body a minimum amount of resistance and at the same time possess the requisite rigidity and strength.

Automatic Train Stop—**W. E. Wagon**, care of The Traction Co., 146 Sumner St., Boston, Mass. This invention relates to device for automatically stopping railroad trains when the latter run by signals set at danger against them. It provides an arrangement of electrical devices on each engine which may be operated by means of circuits completed by a series of third rails or short conductors disposed along the track.

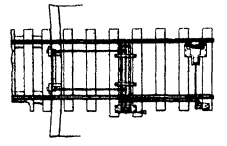
RAILROAD SAFETY DEVICE—**C. H. QUINN**, care of Byron Killett, Chicago, Wash. The improvement relates to railroad safety devices of a type suitable for giving warning to operatives about a moving train, in the event of the occurrence of a landslide, a snowdrift, or other like casualty making a substantial disturbance in the condition of the track.



RAILROAD SAFETY DEVICE.

readed. More particularly stated, it comprises a gear device, controllable directly by physical action of the landslide or its equivalent, and associated with suitable alarm mechanism to warn the operatives upon the moving train.

SAFETY DEVICE FOR RAILROAD TURN TABLES—**J. A. BRIDGES**, Bowling Green, Mo. This improvement provides a means which will lock a turn table when it is positioned relatively to a track to receive a locomotive on the track and which will automatically disengage the same.



SAFETY DEVICE FOR RAILROAD TURN TABLES.

pose a stop block on one of the track rails when the turn table is unlocked to prevent of the rotation of the turn table. The engraving shows a section of a track and a portion of a turn table illustrating the invention.

Pertaining to Recreation.

FILM REEL—**H. J. RICHMOND**, 201 Central Ave., San Francisco, Cal. The improvement relates to means for projecting pictures upon the film magazine thereof, and the main object is to provide film magazines which dispense with the need of the film after projection upon another spool now necessary to prepare the film for a subsequent projection.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

COLLAPSIABLE COIL—**O. E. HOBAN** and **C. H. WAGNER**, 180 South Main St., Akron, Ohio. The object of this invention is the provision of a simple, strong, and inexpensive coil which can be easily and quickly manipulated for use in connection with a vehicle, and a plurality of sections bound together by means of fixed and expanding rings.

RESILIENT WHEEL—**J. F. NETTLE**, P. O. Box 1007, Huron, Mich. This invention relates to a resilient wheel, and has for its object the provision of a resilient wheel, and the resilient effect of a pneumatic cushion is provided without liability of puncturing of the cushion.

GRADUATED—**W. J. SPENCER**, 1005 Cleveland Ave., Santa Barbara, Cal. The improvement in this case has reference to device for measuring inclination of a grade with reference to a horizontal line, and has reference more particularly to device for use in connection with automobiles, for indicating the grade of the road.

SUPPORT—**F. H. BARN**, Hives St., Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention here is to provide a support for portable devices and apparatus, for instance, as heaters for fire, pitch and other materials, portable kettles, dishes, etc., and means to permit of quickly changing the support from supporting to folding position and vice versa.

DIRECT DRIVE TRANSMISSION—**W. D. PARSONS**, Address R. L. Marvin, executor of Estate of W. D. Parsons, deceased, Joliet, Mo. The device is particularly adapted for use with automobiles, and other motor-driven vehicles in which final drives of different speeds are provided instead of the ordinary single final drive for shifting the drive shaft of the motor or engine from one position to another in order to engage and disengage the various final drives.

VEHICLE TIRE—**H. L. LEACH**, P. O. Box 18, Hoonah, Hawaii. Among the various objects of this invention are: To render the tire casing and the tire both readily detachable from the rim, and also to enable the tire to drop off the rim or at least to be easily detached therefrom, when the tire is distorted, to provide anti-sliding lugs, and means for securing them in position and for holding them to the casing and the tire; to give the rubber of the tire such form that its outer surface is irregular in order to fit the different shaped members of the tire casing; and to improve the resistance against lugs and abrasions and to provide for enabling the metallic portions of the tire casing to take up and sustain the pressure of the tire to inflation thereof.

BRAKE—**P. FRANK MEYER**, Kan. This invention relates to brakes of a type admitting of general use, but of special service in connection with wagons, carriages, automobiles, cars and other vehicles, the more particular purpose being to provide a brake wherein the rotation of a wheel of the vehicle furnishes most of the motive power for actuating the brake.

FEEDING DEVICE—**A. E. KENON**, 28 Housew. Ave., Jersey City, N. J. In order to comply the object of this invention, use is made of brackets permanently attached to a shaft or shafts of a motor in supporting device removably engaging the said brackets and a feed receptacle removably held on the said supporting device.

WAGON BODY—**J. McDermott**, 372 Vernon Ave., L. I. City, New York, N. Y. The purpose in this invention is to provide a simple structure for a wagon body, the main body of the built-up type which can be easily and quickly assembled into a rigid structure which can be used with animal or motor propelled vehicles.

BRAKE DRUM FOR VEHICLE WHEELS—**N. CONNOR**, care of The No. 3000 Wheel Co., 1475 Broadway, New York, N. Y. The improvement provides a drum with a flexible connection between said drum and the vehicle wheel, and a means for adjusting the drum to a driving sprocket wheel, and provides a yielding connection for said wheel with said drum.

VEHICLE WHEEL—**W. L. HOWARD**, care of Howard Wheelwright Co., Trenton, N. J. The main object of the present invention is to provide means in connection with the structure shown in Letters Patent No. 1,031,341, for preventing the creep of the rim, a further object is to accomplish this result by a relatively slight change in the wedges and stripping members shown in said Letters Patent and without any alteration in the parts of the device, therein shown as to general arrangement or operation.

WINDING MACHINE—**O. J. HOWLAND**, Johnson, N. Y. This invention relates to machines for winding or dispensing newspapers, periodicals, sheet materials and similar articles, and is referred to particularly to a machine in which is provided a movable article support so arranged that the displacement of the articles from the support is gravitationally rendered, whereby the support article of the number on the support can be readily displaced by sliding it from the next one thereunder, without tending to displace the last mentioned article.

Designs.

DESIGN FOR A RAINCOAT—**L. A. McEWAN**, Linden, N. J. This ornamental design for a raincoat comprises a soldier's helmet, at the top of which is a wide brim with elevated wings and holding in its back three spread-out pendant tails.

DESIGN FOR A MOTOR CAR BODY—**ELSA N. HORE** and **HATTIE C. ANCHUTZ**, Address the former, 966 E. Riverside St., Portland, Ore. In this ornamental design for a motor car body, the latter is shown in three views, viz., a side elevation, a rear elevation, and a front elevation.

DESIGN FOR A PAPER DISPLAY BOX—**L. HANCOCK**, 415 W. 15th St., New York, N. Y. In this ornamental design for a display box, the figure is a perspective view of a box, low and narrow paper box showing the new design.

Note.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the Scientific American for ten cents each. Please state the name of the patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

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Inquiry No. 3442. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3443. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3444. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3445. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3446. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3447. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3448. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3449. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3450. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3451. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3452. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3453. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.

Inquiry No. 3454. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for testing water equipment suitable for a maximum capacity of water of 1000 gallons. The machine should be of the following dimensions: 24" between doors and the object 1/2" high. Write for full particulars. **W. H. WATSON**, care of John Watson Co., New Brunswick, N. J.



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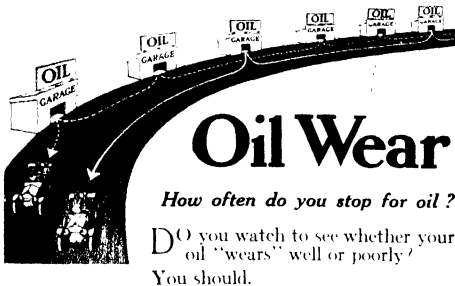
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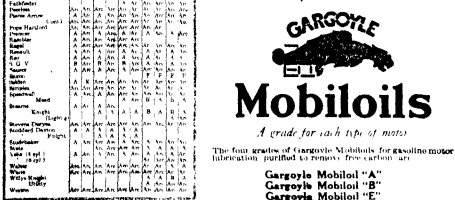
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Like hungry people, fish will bite. This is the only school that gives you the latest news of the watchmaking industry. It is the only school that gives you the latest news of the watchmaking industry.

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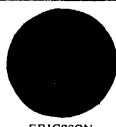
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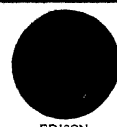
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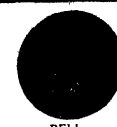
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ORVILLE WRIGHT



MARCONI

The
70th Anniversary
NUMBER of the
SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN
June 5th, 1915

THE Scientific American was founded seventy years ago, at a time when the United States of America was industrially less developed than South Africa at the present time. Even territorially, it was not the same country we know now; for California, Texas, and the great Southwest belong to Mexico.

During that long period of seventy years the Scientific American faithfully chronicled the technical and industrial progress which we Americans made. Its editors saw the advent of the reaper, the telegraph, the telephone, the great trans-con-



THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN OFFICE 1859

tinental railways, the laying of the transatlantic cable, the development of the giant steamship, the perfection of the phonograph, the glow of the first electric incandescent lamp, the coming of the motion picture machine, the miracles wrought by wireless telegraphy, and more recently the conquest of the air

What an age of wonders it has been! What a transformation has been wrought upon the face of the earth! Surely no tale of the Arabian Nights, no fantasy of

Jules Verne depicts marvels so amazing as those which the Scientific American has been the first to describe authoritatively as soon as they appeared. Who would have thought, seventy years ago, that with the aid of the X-rays we could look through a man's body; that friend could talk with friend from New

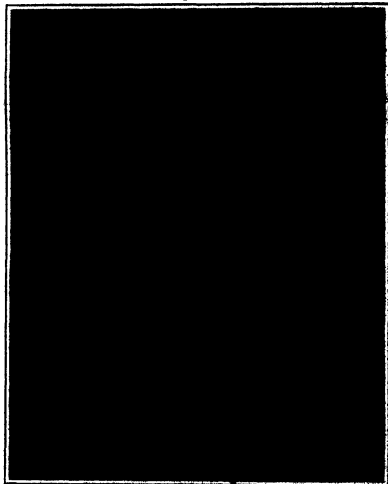
York to San Francisco; that Niagara Falls would illuminate cities; that street cars would move magically through our towns without any apparent means of propulsion; that pictures would be sent by wire from New York to Chicago, and that by means of the boundless ether a solitary passenger ship on a desolate ocean still keeps in touch with civilization.

It has been the privilege of the Editors of the Scientific American to know the men whose master minds have wrought these things, and to hear from their own lips the story of their struggles and their triumphs. Ericsson, Morse, Edison—the whole dynasty of inventive genius which has made the nation what it is—the editors have known them all.

Seventy years is a turning point not only in the life of man, but in the life of any enterprise. It seems fitting that the occasion should be commemorated by the publication of a number which will review the progress that the United States of America has made in the

three-score years and ten of our existence.

In June a number will appear which the Editors hope will do full justice to the great theme of American invention—a number which will transport us all back to the time when our fathers and our grandfathers still burned candles, when horses pulled street cars, when there were no automobiles and when the steam railway was a curiosity



Copyright by R. G. Mendenhall

THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN OFFICE 1915

that people would travel miles to see. The motion picture machine of industrial progress will be turned backward, and the flickering film will make you wonder what the future will have in store if so much that is wonderful has happened in the past.

MUNN & COMPANY, Inc., Woolworth Building, New York



DAIMLER



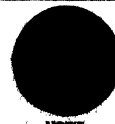
MCCORMICK



HENRY



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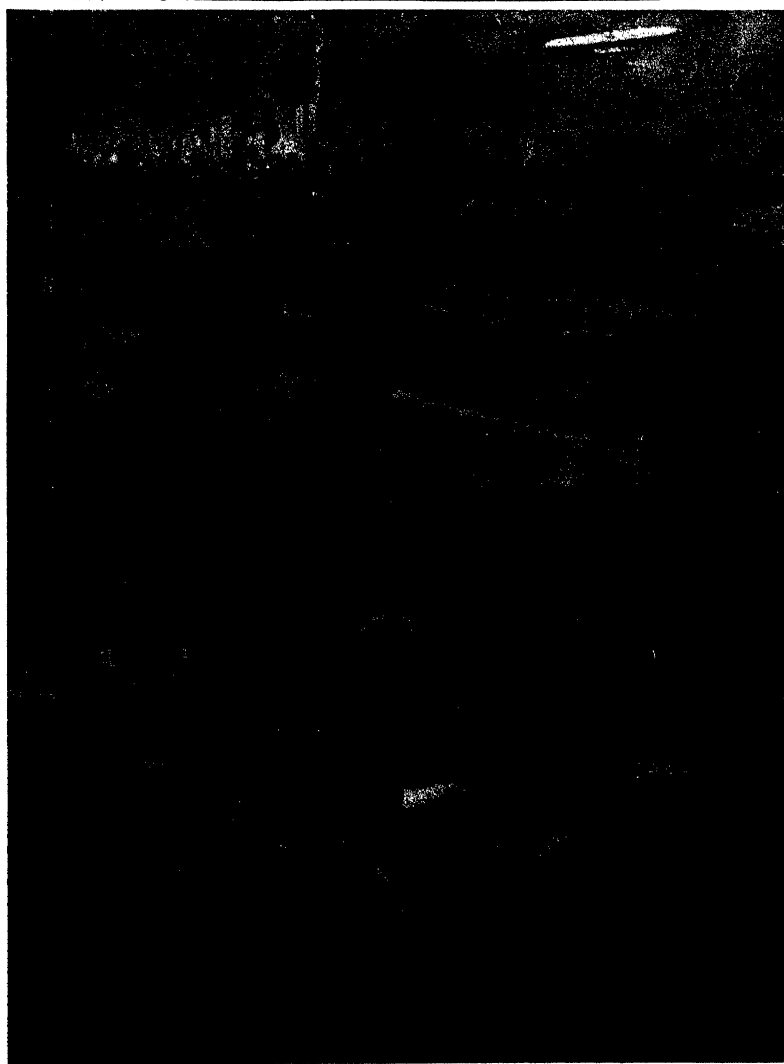
HOWE



PARSONS

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

1845 — 70th Anniversary Number — 1915



Hupmobile for Nineteen Sixteen

\$115 Lower in Price—\$200 Greater in Value

These two facts about the 1916 Hupmobile make this the most important announcement this company has ever made.

The 1916 Hupmobile is priced at \$1085—\$115 less than our 1915 model.

Yet we have gone to greater lengths than ever before to maintain the Hupmobile reputation for quality. The new Hupmobile has twenty per cent more power, giving a quicker pickup, an even stronger pull on hills and in wind, and slower running on high speed. We have made many refinements throughout the chassis, increasing the quality and improving the workmanship everywhere. Note these mechanical features: Tungsten steel valves, disc clutch with top hardened steel plates, bronze shell motor bearings, spiral bevel gears in rear axle, nickel steel axle shafts, vanadium steel mainshaft in springs, tubular propeller shaft. Compare these features of the \$1085 Hupmobile with any car on the market.

The 1916 Hupmobile maintains the reputation of earlier Hupmobiles for economy. The total repair expense of \$4,000 Hupmobiles now in service including breakages due to accidents, is less than one quarter cent per mile. The 1916 Hupmobile will probably reduce this as it ages. Though twenty per cent more powerful the 1916 car is a fit companion for our earlier models in gasoline mileage, tire service, and oil consumption.

We have been told countless times that the 1915 Hupmobile is the easiest riding car ever built. The 1916 Hupmobile is more comfortable. The upholstery is deeper. Genuine high grade hair and improved cushion construction give the comfort of an old shoe. Springs are even more flexible and easy riding. We have moved the control levers forward to add roominess, and changed their shape to give easiest operation. Tires are large in proportion to weight. The 119 inch wheelbase cradles you over bumps and smooths rough roads.

We know you will be charmed with the perfect performance and the luxurious ease of the 1916 Hupmobile.

The upholstery is genuine high grade leather. The open bodies are lined with no highly polished surface exposed to scratches or marks. A floor-board and clear running boards are best linoleum. The tonneau is richly carpeted.

The new bodies have a depth of color and luster of finish you have heretofore seen only in highest priced cars. Fenders, radiator, and motor bonnet are embellished by a new process—beautiful and long wearing.

The 1916 Hupmobile has the famous Bjor system for electric starting and lighting. This equipment is used on some of the highest priced cars. Latest improved battery ignition—surest and simplest built—enclosed. In our own shops we build the genuine Griggs no man top and Collins quick-acting curtains. Five demountable rims, complete electric lighting equipment, latest and best speedometer, an exclusive design rain vision and ventilating windshield, Hupmobile patented tail light, genuine crown fenders, non-skid tires on the rear wheels are regular equipment on the 1916 cars. You will find nothing that makes for completeness missing from the Hupmobile.

These many improvements in style and refinements in design we give you in the 1916 Hupmobile at \$1085 for the five-passenger touring car or roadster. You considered the 1915 car a big value at \$1200. Compared with our previous cars the 1916 model is not only a bigger value but it is offered you at a reduction of \$115.

We have accomplished these two results so important to you—first, by pledging ourselves to a fifty per cent increase in production for 1916, which means we buy better materials cheaper and greatly reduce overhead cost per car; second, by increasing our factory facilities and improving factory methods—new machinery and new processes enable us to build better at lower factory cost; third, we are confident that no car on the market is sold on a narrower margin of profit than the 1916 Hupmobile.

In a word, in our 1916 cars we are giving you the saving we effect through reduced factory costs, reduced material costs, and in unusually low profit per car.

For 1916, too, we offer you a complete line of Hupmobiles. We are now prepared to give you any type of car your needs or your tastes may demand—five-passenger Touring Car, two-passenger Roadster, All-Year Touring Car or Coupe, seven-passenger Touring Car, seven-passenger Limousine, five-passenger Sedan. We have absolute confidence that each of these types is the best value at the price on the market—certainly the best value ever built by this company.

All types retain the Hupmobile steady riding, low-hung chassis, all bodies are racy and distinctive in appearance, all models are highest quality in every detail of construction.

In considering the 1916 Hupmobile please remember that the Hupmobile Motor Car Company is one of the few manufacturers in the United States that have never built a poor car or had an off year. Wherever you go you will hear the Hupmobile spoken of as a car of most unusual value at its price. That is why, "we believe the Hupmobile to be the best car of its class in the world." That record of ours is fact to Hupmobile owners.

The reputation of quality in our cars is the biggest asset of our business. And we guard it most jealously.

So when we tell you the 1916 Hupmobiles are the best cars this company has ever built, and when we offer you our best cars at a reduction in price, you may well take our word for it that you will make no mistake in selecting a Hupmobile.

But we don't ask you to accept our word alone. We do ask you to see the 1916 Hupmobile—to ride in it—to drive it if you will.

Write for your copy of our new catalog which illustrates and describes in detail all the 1916 cars.

And won't you please ask the Hupmobile dealer in your city to prove to you every statement we make in this advertisement. Let him show you in an actual merit test that the 1916 Hupmobile is just what we say—truly "the best car of its class in the world."

1916 HUPMOBILE PRICES

Five-Passenger Touring Car, \$1085
Roadster, \$1085 • Sedan, \$1365 • Limousine, \$2365
All-Year Touring Car, \$1185 • All-Year Coupe, \$1105
Seven-Passenger Touring Car, \$1225

PLEASE MAIL THIS COUPON

Hupmobile Motor Car Company, Detroit, Michigan
Send me your complete catalog of 1916 cars

My Name _____

My Address _____

City and State _____

HUPP MOTOR CAR COMPANY • DETROIT, MICHIGAN

President, Manager, Truck Buyer

You stimulate your Organization when you Supply it with High Quality Motor Trucks exclusively. You aid your men, and you keep them on their tip-toes. Quality machines will produce Quality results from the personnel of your Organization. You give your men the right tools to work with—they have the trucks they *want* and the trucks they *need*. Also you eliminate criticism, excuse making, and kicking from your Organization when you buy on a Basis of Quality, not Price.

If you don't buy the best, if you buy a Compromise Truck, and put it in the usual Organization you will get Compromise Results.

You are a good Strategist when you buy the Best Truck. Your Organization *can* make it pay and it's up to them to make good. The Right Truck, The Locomobile Truck, "The Best Built Truck in America" has *already* made good. Can you afford anything but the Best Truck?



3-Ton, 4-Ton, 5-Ton, 6-Ton



Locomobile Three and Four-Ton Worm Drive Trucks are available for prompt delivery. "The Best Built Truck in America" contains the finest Materials, exhibits the finest Workmanship, and has every advantage in Design. Indeed, what other Three and Four-Ton Trucks offer all these Features?

Worm Drive. Right Drive. Four-Cylinder Motor with Five Bearing Crank Shaft. Four Speeds and Reverse. Full Floating Rear Axle. Front Running Boards. Large Grease Cups. Heat Treated Pressed Chrome Nickel Steel Frame. Chrome Nickel Steel also for Crank Shaft, Connecting Rods, Valve Tappets and Rollers, Propeller Shafts, Gears, Gear Shafts, Live Axles. Two lengths Chassis. Wood Wheels Standard; Steel Wheels extra. Three-Ton Chassis, \$3500 (\$100 less than the average cost of the leading seven Three-ton Trucks). Four-Ton Chassis, \$3,650.

The Locomobile Truck has been designed and developed by the same men who produced "The Best Built Car in America," the famous Locomobile Touring Chassis. Our Trucks are used by The United States Government, The British Government, The Russian Government, The Pennsylvania Railroad, Cities of Chicago, Vancouver, Baltimore and Seattle, State of Connecticut, United Fruit Company, National Fireproofing Company, Barrett Manufacturing Company, Cross, Austin & Ireland Lumber Company, Barber Asphalt Paving Company. We have delivered *hundreds* of Worm-drive Trucks this year.



The LOCOMOBILE COMPANY
of AMERICA
BRIDGEPORT, CONN.

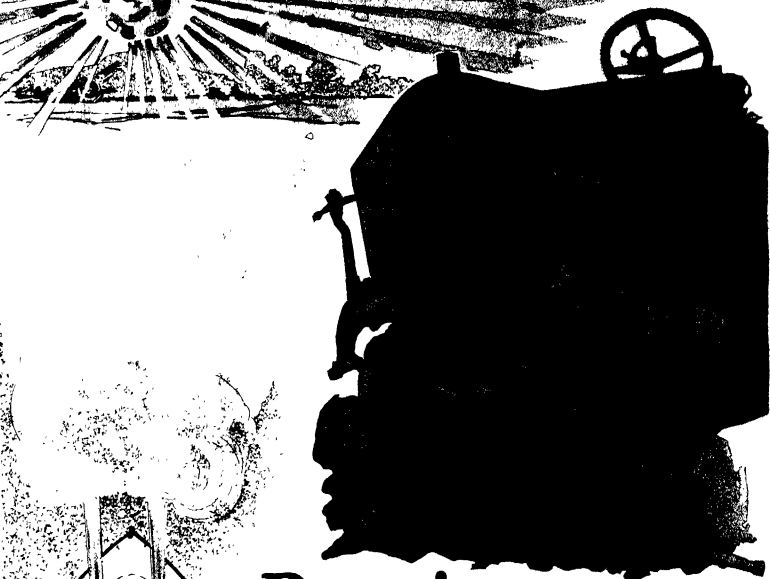


SEND FOR OUR
TRUCK CATALOGUE
OUR REPRESENTATIVE
OR BOTH, WE GO
ANYWHERE FOR BUSINESS



Chalmers Quality

Withstood German Guns



BING!

—a German shell struck a Chalmers Master-Six, knocked off a couple of wheels, one or two lamps and was pretty rough with the car altogether but—

There was enough left of this Chalmers to send back to San Francisco for repairs.

This Master-Six belonged to G. Menuel, Consul-General of the French Republic and was hit during the German bombardment of the French town of Papeete, Tahiti Island.

Chalmers cars are not built for targets nor to withstand the unusual demands of war, but they do stand up under rough usage and sometimes cruel abuse.

Chalmers quality is responsible for this.

Chalmers Motor Company, Detroit, Mich.

"Let your next car be a Chalmers"

Soft Coal for Heating Economical and Smokeless

When consideration is given to the fact that for every one thousand cubic feet of contents of the average building, about \$4.00 is spent per year for the coal burned to heat the occupants, it is easy to realize what a large percent of the operating cost of any building goes to the coalbill.

It is, therefore, in the best of business on the part of any owner or prospective builder of a large apartment, or other type building, to study very carefully the question of coal and its relation to the boiler in which it will be used. And it has been demonstrated very conclusively that the coal cost of a building is an item that may be reduced, in some cases as much as 40%, by the installation of a boiler permitting the use and adaptable to the use of coal of highest value—cost considered.

Soft Coal Not Prohibited

Due probably to the fact that practically all cities of any size or importance are enforcing stringent ordinances against smoke, many people have a wrong impression that the use of soft coal is prohibited in certain cities. There is no ordinance, in any city, which says you must not burn soft coal. The furthest that any ordinance goes is to say that smoke will not be permitted and in such cases a type of boiler that will burn soft coal smokelessly is approved just as quickly for soft coal use as the ordinary type boiler for the use of anthracite or hard coal.

It is not a hardship to building owners for a city to enforce an ordinance prohibiting smoke. As a matter of real fact, legislation against smoke is an economy forced upon building owners.

Smoke is waste. It is sure proof that the boiler is not burning all of the fuel—and any ordinance, therefore, which prohibits smoke merely insures that building owners stop wasting fuel.

What Engineers Say About Smoke

Here is what some heating engineers say about smoke: "If nearly perfect combustion has taken place in the firebox of a boiler we are able to obtain an efficiency as high as 78 percent by which is meant that 78 percent of the actual heat in fuel is utilized. The other 22 percent is a loss that cannot be avoided as it represents heat resulting from radiation and gases escaping into the stack which are necessary to cause draft."

"Whenever dense smoke issues from a stack we can safely say that it represents much of the actual heat value in the fuel (as smoke is nothing but particles of carbon carried from the boiler in gases inefficiently burnt to burn)."

"Therefore, Mr. Owner is losing a big percentage of what he could save if his boiler was a type that would turn these escaping gases into heat by burning them at high temperature."

Soft Coal a Better Buy Than Anthracite

Dollar for dollar you get more heat by purchasing soft coal than when buying anthracite. The average run of mine soft coal, which costs in the neighborhood of \$4.00 per ton, contains about 14,000 heat units per pound. In New York City (very close to hard coal mines) an anthracite coal, you see, which contains about 12,000 heat units per pound costs about \$4.40. That means that for about 40 cents less per ton you can get 4,000 heat units per pound more by buying soft coal. And in cities farther from the hard coal mines the difference is even more in favor of the purchase of soft coal.

There are two reasons, therefore, why a building owner should install a boiler which will burn soft coal smokelessly and these reasons apply whether his building is located in a city enforcing a smoke ordinance or not. First, soft coal costs less than anthracite. A given amount of money spent for soft coal buys more heat than the same money invested in anthracite. And when a boiler is installed that burns soft coal smokelessly it proves that it is wasting none of the fuel.

You Can Prevent Smoke

It is absolutely impossible to unburn an egg, and it is just as impossible to unburn the smoke. The only way to prevent the smoke is to prevent the burning of the elements that go to make smoke, and thus prevent smoke.

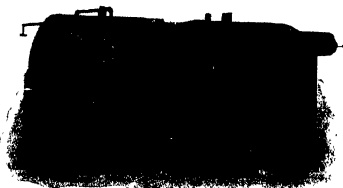
Chemistry teaches us that the result of complete combustion, or perfect burning of coal, is a colorless gas known as carbon dioxide (CO₂). And an analysis of smoke teaches us that it is a part of carbon combined with one part of oxygen, or carbon monoxide (CO). In other words, one atom of carbon is capable of taking up two atoms of oxygen, and when this is accomplished the burning is complete. The black smoke which sails from the stacks of the stack is probably carbon monoxide—carbon which has taken up only one-half as much oxygen as it is capable

Cut Coal Costs by Burning Soft Coal Smokelessly

It is a fact, thoroughly proven, in buildings of all types, in all parts of the country, that the installation of a boiler that will burn soft coal smokelessly will reduce coal bills.

A dollar spent for soft coal buys more heat than the same money spent for hard coal. Government reports show that the anthracite coal, ordinarily used in large buildings, contains an average of 12,000 heat units a pound. It costs about \$4.40 a ton, while soft coal, which costs about \$4.00 a ton, contains about 14,000 heat units a pound. So, buying soft coal you get more heat for less money.

Furthermore, smoke is an indication of wasted fuel—so a boiler that can burn soft coal smokelessly proves that it is wasting none of the coal.



Sectional View Kewanee Smokeless Firebox Boiler (Brightest type) showing arrangement of double grate and long travel of gases

Kewanee Smokeless Firebox Boilers are built with two grates, one above the other. Fuel is fed onto the top grate and the draft, which is downward, draws the gases down through the fire on the upper grate and over the hot coals on the lower grate. This burns all the heat-giving gases before they can be condensed into smoke.

Built in sizes correctly proportioned to heat from 1600 to 15,000 square feet of steam radiation, or from 2,600 to 24,500 square feet of hot water radiation.

of handling and from this atom of carbon, therefore, there has been only one-half of its full amount of heat produced

Burning Soft Coal Smokelessly and Economically

About five years ago there was placed on the market a type of boiler that accomplishes all of these requirements admirably. It consumes soft coal so perfectly that almost no smoke is visible at the chimney and at the same time shows a boiler efficiency averaging about 80 percent higher than the usual type of heating boiler. The boiler referred to consists of an adaptation of the well-known Hawley down-draft furnace principle to a firebox or portable steel boiler. It consists of an upper grate made of heavy steel water tubes, built into the furnace and extending from the inside head-sheet to a cross brace running from one side-sheet to the other. Below this is a lower grate of the usual rocking pattern that burns such half-combusted fuel as falls through from the upper grate.

In the operation of this type of boiler all of the coal is fired

onto the water grate, and through this upper fire-door the greater part of the air is admitted, forming a draught down through the green coal and carrying the heat-giving gases down through the live fire and into the large combustion chamber where it is entirely consumed by the heat of the lower fire which is fed by the caked live coals which fall between the water openings of the water grate. The combustion chamber back of the upper grate is large and high, giving the smoke a low velocity and ample time for perfect ignition before coming in contact with the cooler boiler plate.

The type of boiler referred to above has proven two things conclusively. First, that it can burn soft coal smokelessly and in conformity with any smoke ordinance ever passed, no matter how stringent. And it has also proven its ability to reduce fuel bills. This is true not only in the west where anthracite or smokeless coals are hard to obtain and very high priced, but also in the eastern markets where hard coal is cheapest. Even in such cities as Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore and Washington, right in the heart of the hard coal region, this type of boiler, burning soft coal, has proven that it can supply heat cheaper than the ordinary type of boiler burning hard coal.

KEWANEE Smokeless Boilers

are burning cheap soft coal in all kinds of buildings, and in all parts of the country, and are not making enough smoke to conflict with any smoke ordinance—no matter how rigid.

Kewanee Smokeless Boilers are not new, nor untried. On the contrary they are a combination of the firebox boiler and the down-draft grate construction known for years and approved by practically all engineers as the proper method of burning soft coal smokelessly and efficiently.

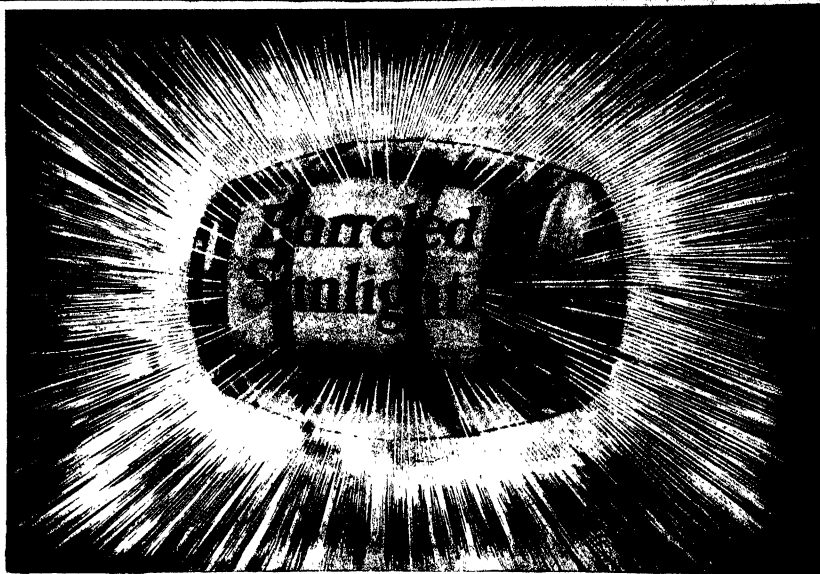
Let us send you our booklet "Cutting Coal Costs." Also a list of buildings where Kewanee Smokeless Boilers are reducing fuel bills.

KEWANEE BOILER COMPANY

Kewanee, Illinois

CHICAGO NEW YORK ST. LOUIS KANSAS CITY MINNEAPOLIS

Manufacturers of the Most Efficient Boilers for the Smokeless Burning of Soft Coal



REG. U. S. PAT. OFF.

It has increased daylight in over 3,000 factories

Are the ceilings and walls of your factory covered with cold-water paint? If so, you probably find that it flakes and scales off. Very soon this will necessitate repainting. When that happens, why not give your ceilings and walls a bright glossy, tile-like finish, which will last for years without flaking and scaling?

Rice's Gloss Mill-White gives 19% to 36% more daylight; it is sanitary because it is *washable*; it makes employees more cheerful; saves money by making repainting less frequent. By the "Rice Method" it can be applied over old cold-water paint.

Over 3,000 of the biggest plants in the country use and praise "Barreled Sunlight"—firms like General Electric Co., Eastman Kodak Co., Hyatt Roller Bearing Co., etc. We can probably show

you letters from many concerns in your own line of business.

Rice's is the *original* "mill-white." It now has many imitations, but they are all *varnish* gloss paints. Rice's is an *oil* paint—containing neither lead nor varnish—yet does not yellow like oil paint. It is made by a special process, discovered and owned exclusively by us. The tremendous advantages of this process enable us to make the following guarantee:

WE GUARANTEE that if Rice's does not remain white longer than any other gloss paint, applied at the same time and under the same conditions, *we will give, free, enough Rice's to repaint the job with one coat.* We also guarantee that, properly applied, Rice's will not flake or scale. You cannot lose under this guarantee.

Write for booklet "MORE LIGHT" and SAMPLE BOARD

Sold direct from
factory

Sold direct from our
factory in barrels containing
sufficient paint to
cover 20,000 square
feet—one coat

RICE'S

GLOSS

MILL-WHITE

On concrete
surfaces

On inside concrete Rice's
Granolith makes the best pos-
sible primer for a second coat
of Rice's Gloss Mill-White—
giving a tile-like enamel finish
at no more expense than lead
and oil paint.

Rice's Granolith

U. S. GUTTA PERCHA PAINT CO.

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SEVENTY-FIRST YEAR

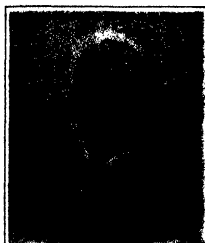
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THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

VOLUME CXXI
NUMBER 24

NEW YORK, JUNE 5, 1915

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Gordon McKay, inventor of the McKay shoe-making machines.



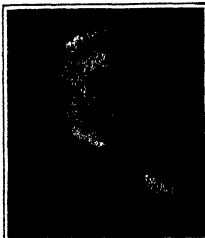
Isaac Singer, inventor of the Singer sewing machine.



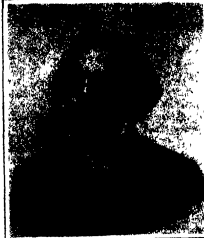
Lyman E. Blake, inventor of shoe-making machinery.



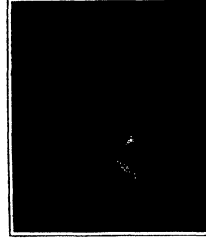
Charles Goodyear, inventor of the Goodyear lasting machinery.



Joseph Henry, who laid the foundation of the electric telegraph.



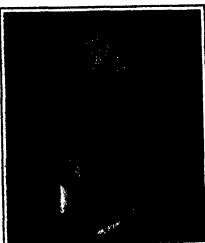
Charles J. Vandepoel, inventor of American overhead trolley system.



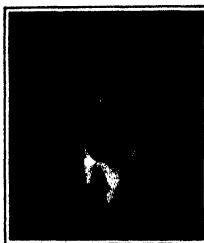
Dr. Coleman Sellers, pioneer motion picture and machine tool inventor.



Count von Zeppelin, inventor of the rigid airship



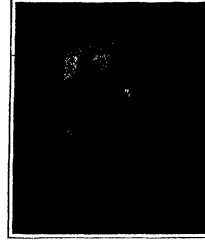
Prof. J. A. Fleming, inventor of the electric valve used in wireless.



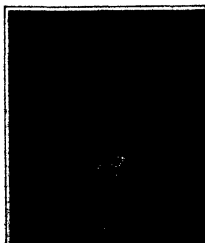
James Gayley, inventor of the dry-blast process of steel making.



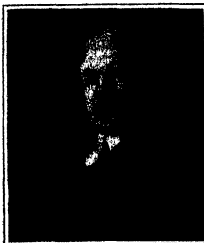
Charles E. Scribner, inventor of telephone switchboards



J. S. Hyatt, an industrial chemist, who discovered celluloid



Frank Sprague, inventor of the multiple unit system of train control.



Charles G. Curtis, inventor of the Curtis steam turbine.



Copyright by Maria Lottich
Dr. Rudolf Diesel, inventor of the Diesel engine.



Charles P. Steinmetz, inventor of the magnetite arc.

SOME GREAT INVENTORS OF THE PAST SEVEN DECADES

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Founded 1845

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, JUNE 5, 1915

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles on subjects of timely interest. If the photographs are sharp the articles short and the facts authentic, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular space rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

Our Seventieth Anniversary

NOW that the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN has reached the seventieth year of its existence it seems fitting that we should pause and survey the progress that has been made by the world during that period. To do that most effectively one must transport one's self back seventy years—step one's self off by far the greater part of the mechanism which we have come to accept as a matter of course. It has been said that the civilization and culture of Egypt, of Mesopotamia, five thousand years ago was superior to that of London, Paris, or Rome one hundred years ago. Take away all the material advantages which have been given to us by science and invention and we drop back to a period where we have still not learned how to control matter and force.

When the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN was established we had only Davy's arc and electrolysis, Ørsted and Ampere's revelations in electrodynamics, DuRoi's photography, Henry and Faraday's work in induction, and Joule's mechanical equivalent of heat. The telegraph and the reaper had just been born. There was no telephone, no motion picture machine, no oil refining industry, no electric incandescent lamp, no wireless telegraph, no flying machine or airship, no typewriter, no automobile, no electric railway, no Bessemer steel, no phonograph, no passenger elevator, no steam turbine. Why confine the list any further? Much of the transformation which has marked the last seventy years has taken place within the lives of men still with us. The amazing rapidity with which industries have grown and conveniences multiplied may be attributed to the very nature of invention and research. Hardly was one discovery made when a vista to a whole series of new discoveries is opened, and each of these in turn disclosed bypaths to still newer fields. So development has progressed with the rapidity of wildfire.

And yet science and invention are young. Because they are, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN must remain perpetually youthful.

What a period of scientific activity we have lived through! And yet all that we have witnessed is but a mere episode in the evolution that still lies before us. What discoveries and inventions we have still to see and record! When we think that at the time the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN was started it took three weeks to send a message from New York to Liverpool and three months to Calcutta, we think that only yesterday we marveled at the application of ether and chloroform to surgery, at the feat of telegraphing across the ocean without wires, at the blizzard of the Panama Canal, at the opportunity of viewing the skeleton beneath the living flesh with the X-rays, and the spectacle of a man flying in the air swifter than any bird; when we think that it has been our privilege not merely to see these things and many other miracles and to translate them into print, so that the wonder of them and the beauty of them might strike all men, who can blame us if we contemplate our future task with a swelling akin to awe? We have marveled at the discovery of radium and the breaking of the atom into corpuscles, at the tracing of diseases to the multiplication of infinitesimal

small living things. Yet if we compare ourselves with those who will record the achievements of science a century hence, we in this day may seem to have progressed but little beyond the stage when the moon and the stars were to mankind but lanterns hung on a great tent wall and not separate worlds in infinite space.

The Greatest Ten Years of Invention

THE most significant event in the annals of human achievement was the invention of the steam engine. Its introduction divided recorded time into two distinctly defined eras, and it may well be said that the entire history of man's material endeavors counts forward or backward from that comparatively recent event. The jump from manual to power operations, which typifies the two eras, was nothing short of cataclysmic, and profoundly affected and stirred mankind in all its relations to the stars and the sea. It was a political change or decision in battle that is ordinarily cited by the historian to mark the beginning of a new epoch.

As soon after this event as distracted civilization could be released from the stifling bondage of incessant warfare, the problem of applying this mighty agency to the needs of mankind in steel—with its energy, capacity and genius never ceasing and never before equaled. This was inaugurated the age of machinery, of invention, of industrialism—an age vitally different from all that preceded it and during which the basis of society was more completely altered and the economic and political structure more fundamentally revolutionized than in all the preceding centuries of civilization put together.

Of the ten decades which may be roughly stated to cover this notable period of development, not one has failed to contribute its quota toward the sum of great inventive achievements. Each and every decade has seen the origin of some transcendent act for the advancement of material civilization.

The ten years most fraught with achievement up to the invention of the telephone, was the 1840-1850 period, during which the reaper, vulcanization of rubber, sewing machine, and telegraph were perfected. These inventions, by far the most notable of the decade, were all American and marked the culmination of Yankee ingenuity, and it is safe to assert that no other people in any equal short span of time can point to a record of accomplishments so marvellous and so revolutionary, industrially and socially.

The decade beginning with 1870 was also notable—the telephone, the dynamo, and the arc lamp appeared and gave the first indications of the coming part electricity was to play in the affairs of mankind.

But the ten years beginning with 1880 saw an outburst of inventive activity that dwarfed all similar periods in the history of invention. It seemed that the discoveries in things electrical in the last three or four years of the previous decade was the signal for the post-up century of the world to let loose.

The trolley car, which has changed the face of urban civilization, the incandescent light with its more powerful and healthier glow and more adaptable use; the automobile, the most distinctive feature of our time; the typewriter, the most necessary instrument in modern business; the skyscraper, the delineator of the new skyline of American business centers; and the cash register, that ubiquitous instrument and first aid to honesty—to pick out the most obvious of the innovations that proclaim the age—all of these came into being or were first whipped into being in the ten pregnant years beginning with 1880.

Before 1880 electricity was sparingly used—the first central station for arc lighting had just been established in 1879. Its recognition as a source of energy for universal lighting, for propulsion, for power, and for heating—for all the large and vital uses it could be put to—was a matter of speculation, and not one of expected near realization. No one, even of the wildest imagination, could have dreamed of the transformation so close to hand. But before this century period closed the electric incandescent lamp was inconspicuously established, the trolley car was successfully introduced, the central station for power distribution and the polyphase motor for stationary work began to show its revolutionizing possibilities, and the first electric furnace was put into commercial operation.

All the big problems that were involved in putting into service in such large ways of this new and mighty servant were first confronted and solved in this particular decade. In the 80's the generation, transmission, and utilization of current—the dynamo, the transformer, and motor—were all made practical propositions for the first time. It was the decade of the first electric trolley car, which drastically changed the aspects of things urban and suburban, brought the country to the city and applied the city into the country, increased land values by the millions; and the incandescent lamp, which inaugurated clean and safe illumination, introduced the central station power house and inspired the first great innovations in generation and utilization of

electric current; the transformer, that extremely compact but supreme instrument for inducing electromotive force; the alternating current, the most useful and basic power of the modern era; the electric motor, the most important and transmissible form of electrical energy; and the incandescent lamp, the eventual death of most of our machinery—all these points in electrical progress were made in the same decade.

The most fundamental of all operations are performed in the furnace. The profoundest changes of nature were caused by heat, and the basic period of industry are carried under high temperature conditions. Except a new source of energy, it is difficult to conceive a new utility of more potency than a great variety of furnaces. For the first time in all history, a high furnace heat was attained through means not involving combustion, when the electric furnace was perfected in the latter part of the decade. With the advent of this utility, possibilities of heat application were opened up that shamed even the dreams of alchemists. There is no burning, no smoke or foul gases—residues of combustion. The heat is clean, controllable, and extremely high, with the result that it is revolutionizing high temperature operations in multitudinous directions, and the changes in steel and alloy making and in electro-chemical processes are already profound.

The steam turbine, which is supplanting the reciprocating engine; the gasoline engine, which made possible the motorboat, automobile and aeroplane; the automobile itself; the Mergenthaler typewriter and coater; the granite process, which gives in importance with the Bessemer method of making steel and the vulcanization of rubber; and electric welding—all of these truly epoch-making inventions first saw the light of day in this century period.

The Harvey process for hardening armor plate was invented in 1888; smokeless powder a few years earlier; the wax photographic process by which the photograph a practical proposition, came out about the same time; Westinghouse's quick-acting brake, which only failed to be considered a pioneer invention of the first order by a five to four vote of the Supreme Court, was another notable addition to the decade; the transparent film, which foreshadowed the moving picture; and the pneumatic tire, which was to inaugurate the bicycle and automobile, were prominent contributions of those pregnant ten years.

The half-tone process, the most notable advance in the reproductive arts since lithography was established; the Janney type car-compensator, the greatest life-saver ever invented; and the centrifugal creaser, which has saved the farmers of the civilized world hundreds of millions of dollars, were all commercially established during this period.

The Super-battle-cruiser

THAT the leading naval power in the world is satisfied that the battle-cruiser has fully vindicated the claims of those who were responsible for its introduction, is proved by the fact that the British Admiralty is completing four ships of this type in which the elements of speed and gun-fire will be carried such a great step in advance as to place the new ships in a class by themselves. Indeed, if there be such a vessel as a super-dreadnought, it is certain that these ships should be termed super-battle-cruisers.

We are reliably informed that this group of ships is being rushed to completion, and that the extreme features which they will embody in the way of gun-fire and high speed were decided upon as the result of experience gained during the present war. They are to mount the 15-inch gun, and they are designed to steam at a sustained sea speed of 32 knots. The armor protection is to be of moderate thickness. Now here we have a ship which will have the wide range of usefulness outside of the line-of-battle engagement between heavily armored dreadnoughts. Thus, if the German battle-cruisers should attempt another raid on the English coast, the 32-knot ships, if they get in touch, could easily overtake and sink them. They could catch and sink the fastest of the swiftest scouts; and in any but the closest battle-cruiser action they could up and dispose of a whole fleet of torpedo boat destroyers, whatever their speed might be. Also, if their own fleet were pursuing a battleship column, they could overtake and concentrate on the rearmost ships, thereby forcing the enemy to accept engagement—unless, indeed, the enemy admiral should have been wise enough to force, as was done by the German battle-cruiser when they left the "Blücher" to its fate in the North Sea battle.

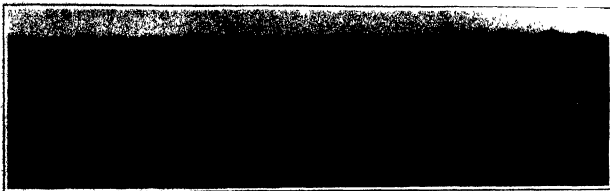
The persistent cutting down by Congress of the programmes of battleship construction submitted by our Navy General Board, is responsible for the fact that today the United States Navy does not include a single ship of the battle-cruiser type. If we were to build a battleship strength which the General Board considers necessary for the safety of the country, they would recommend the creation of a battle-cruiser fleet instead. We should now have several of these great auxiliary ships under construction.

Seventy Years of Invention

A Record of Progress, Decade by Decade



The old cradle.



The modern way of harvesting with tractor power.



Used for forty centuries.



The first McCormick self-rake reaper.

Cyrus H. McCormick.

The Marsh harvester.

1845-1855

TELEGRAPHY was the only practical application of electricity in the early 40's and, for that matter, for several decades following. Hardly had Morse's experimental line between Washington and Baltimore been successfully opened (1844) when literally dozens of inventors on both sides of the Atlantic applied themselves to the improvement of telegraphic communication. The article on communication appearing elsewhere in this issue reviews the art with such fullness that it need not be dwelt upon here.

Some Early Electrical Devices.

But, although the telegraph was the great electrical invention of the decade, experimenters were seeking to find new applications for electricity. Thus, in 1848 Foucault and Dubouché constructed the first practical arc lamp, having a clockwork to adjust the distance between the carbon electrodes automatically. Charles Wheatstone and W. F. Cooke (1845) substituted electromagnets for permanent magnets in electromagnetic machines and thus brought electrical engineering nearer the modern dynamo.

There were even thoughts of the electric railway; for in 1851 the versatile and daring Moses G. Farmer of Newport made rather unsuccessful experiments with an electric railway, in which the current, derived from a battery, was sent through the rails. In 1851 Thomas Hall of Boston succeeded in driving a vehicle with a magnetic machine supplied from a stationary battery, an early attempt at electric automobiling. In 1854 M. Davidson also made experiments with an electric automobile.

Although Sir Humphry Davy had used the electric arc for the production of sodium, the modern electric furnace really begins with Osmar Manuelle Despretz, who in 1849 conceived the idea of employing a carbon rod, the negative pole of the arc consisting of a carbon rod and the retort itself constituting the positive pole.

Progress in Automatic Machines.

Of far more importance, however, were the advances in mechanical invention. The idea of rolling window or mirror glass was proposed by Henry Bessemer. He rounded the glass between two spaced hollow rollers covered by electrically heated plates. Picard and P. Simon revived the idea in 1867 and 1868. In 1846 Farthing endeavored to substitute compressed air for lungs in glass blowing. His method of glass blowing was much used by the end of the 70's.

In 1846 Richard Marsh also made valuable contributions to printing machinery. His development of revolving galleys, in which a single form of type was carried beneath four, six, eight, or ten printing cylinders and sent to print upon a sheet borne by web. This soon became the standard of the world. Later, Richard Marsh, an employee of Hoe's, converted this into the printing press; that is, into one that printed on both sides of the sheet. Eventually he

In this article we have endeavored to record the principal inventions which during the last seventy years have contributed markedly to industrial progress. The record is necessarily incomplete; for in the limited space at our disposal, we could not do more than indicate the most important achievements. We have confined ourselves almost entirely to mechanical inventions, not that the work done in industrial chemistry and pure science falls within the scope of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, but simply because the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN has been very clearly identified with invention.

In order to avoid unnecessary duplication, the facts recorded in special articles appearing elsewhere in this issue have not always been incorporated in the following. But the leading achievements in the main arts have been repeated wherever it seemed desirable to keep the record as complete as possible. Very few references have been made to military inventions. It was felt that this should be a record of industry and peace.

We wish here to acknowledge the great assistance which has been given to us by many of the leading manufacturing firms, inventors, and engineers throughout the country. Without their generous help it would have been difficult, if not impossible, to repeat the beginnings of many an important industry.—Editor.

adapted his machine to print upon a web or endless sheet of paper.

An Early 'Dirigible' Airship.

The modern dirigible had its origin in this decade. For Henry Giffard built a cigar-shaped dirigible airship in 1852. It had a steam-driven propeller and actually traveled against the wind. In 1855 Giffard built a larger ship (4,600 cubic meters capacity).

Of the improvements in civil engineering that deserve to be noted, it must be mentioned that in 1848 the French engineer Faurel invented the process of boring with a continuous stream of water and succeeded in boring a 170-meter hole in twenty-three days, by forcing water under high pressure into a hollow boring tool. His process is the basis of the boring pump devised in 1880 by Chanoit and Cateineau.

In 1852 Martinweather, a California gold miner, invented the hydraulic system of mining gold.

The modern bicycle seems to have had its origin in 1854. P. H. Fischer, a mechanic of Schweinfurt, Germany, added pedal cranks to the velocipede. Quite independently Ernest Michaux hit upon the same idea in 1803. Rubber tires seem to have been first used in 1885 by M. Thomson of Lyons.

Improvements in Steam Engineering.

In steam engineering the most notable achievement was undoubtedly George H. Corliss's invention, in 1849, of his famous valve gear, patented in 1849.

The first steam boiler with horizontal iron tubes was constructed in 1855 by Julien Belletille. Wilcox built his first steam water boiler with inclined water tubes in the same year; his construction being later very much improved by Babcock & Wilcox.

In the year 1840 Henry H. Worthington conceived the idea of applying steam to the propulsion of canal boats. Among other difficulties encountered was that of supplying his boiler with water while the boat was passing through the locks, the engine and consequently its attached pump (the only type in use at that period), being at rest. The result of his investigations was the first independent single direct action boiler steam pump ever constructed. This pump was in successful operation for over thirty years. Worthington began the manufacture of these pumps in 1845.

In this decade belongs the beginning of the modern high explosive industry, for in 1845 Christian Friedrich Schoenlein discovered nitrocellulose or gun cotton.

The Bessemer Process Invented.

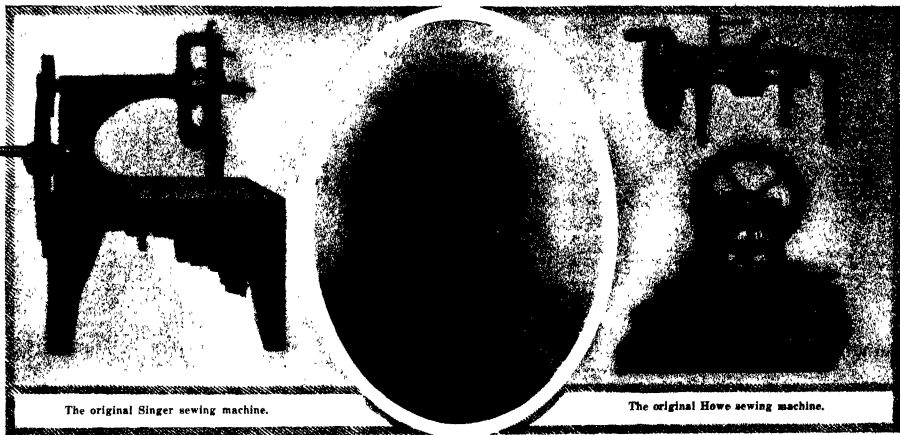
Industrially, by far the most important invention of the decade was the Bessemer process of making steel. It was in 1855 that Henry Bessemer invented his famous process for the direct conversion of molten cast iron into steel by blowing air into the molten mass. As a result the steel and iron industry was liberated from the dominance of hand labor, and the process of making steel was at once shortened from one and one-half days to twenty minutes.

The Man Who Invented the Sewing Machine.

On September 10, 1846, Elias Howe received a patent for his epoch-making sewing machine. The features that made Howe's machine a success were a needle with the eye at the point, a shuttle operating beneath the cloth to form the lock stitch, and an automatic feed.

Next to Howe, the name of Allen H. Wilson claims notice as the inventor who has done the most to give us the present perfected sewing machine. To him we are indebted for those two most beautiful and beautiful pieces of mechanism, the rotating hook and the four-motion feed. He claimed to have conceived the idea of a sewing machine in 1847. His first machine was built during the spring of 1849, while he was employed in Pittsfield, Mass., as a cabinet maker. In the same year he built a second and better machine, and "up to this time," he says, "I had never seen or heard of a sewing machine other than my own." He took out his first patent on November 12th, 1849. This machine Allen H. Wilson brought to New York in order that he could exhibit it to the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN and have it described in that publication.

In 1851 Wilson patented his famous rotating hook, which performs the functions of a shuttle by seizing the under thread and throwing its loop over a circular bobbin containing the under thread. This simplified the construction of the machine by getting rid of the reciprocating motion of the ordinary shuttle, and contributed to make a light and silent running machine, eminently adapted to domestic use.



Howe.

In 1852 Mr. Wilson patented his four-motion feed, which, in combination with a spring presser foot, may be said to form the basis of all modern feeding mechanisms.

In 1851 W. O. Grover and W. E. Baker patented a machine which made the "Grover & Baker chain-stitch." In 1859 Gibbs, a Virginia farmer, saw in the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* a picture of a sewing machine. The working of the apparatus was very plain down to the moment when the needle perforates the cloth, and he fell into the habit of musing upon the course of events after the point of the needle was lost to view. The result of his reflections, aided by infinite whittling, was the ingenious little revolving hook which constitutes the peculiarity of the Wilcox & Gibbs machine.

Patent No. 8294, of August 12th, 1851, introduced one of the most useful machines. Isaac Merritt Singer, strolling player, theater manager, inventor and millionaire, brought into the business a new machine and novel methods of exploitation, which gave a powerful impulse to the youthful industry. The Singer improvements met the demand of the tailoring and leather industries for a heavier and more powerful machine. The novelties consisted in the circular feed wheel below the cloth plate, which had a serrated periphery projecting slightly above the plate, and was fed by a rock shaft and pawl, a thread controller, and the use of gear wheels and a shuffling to transmit the power from the hand wheel to the two countershafts for working the vertical needle and the shuttle. Singer was also the first to introduce foot power in place of the hand-driven crank wheel.

John Brooks Nichols, a Lynn shoemaker, about the year 1851 adapted the Howe sewing machine to sew the uppers of shoes, the first important step in the application of machinery to shoemaking. The first machine was introduced in Lynn in 1852 by John Woodbridge.

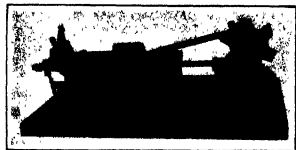
The Passenger Elevator.

The first elevators were undoubtedly devised for the handling of heavy goods, and although the solid platform, hoisted by a hand-power windlass, was a great improvement over the original block and fall of the sailor. It was not intended that these mechanisms should be used to carry human beings. When, however, steam power had come into common use, and buildings had become taller, it was but natural not only that power should be applied to the operation of elevators, but that the extension of the use of elevators to the carrying of passengers should be suggested by the improvement. All of these changes were extremely gradual, the first power elevators being used indifferently for both freight and passengers, but it may be said that the first power elevator was installed in 1852, by Elisha Graves Otis, and a few years later he exhibited at the Crystal Palace, in New York the first elevator with a safety device to prevent the car from falling when the cable broke. The first exclusive passenger elevator operated by steam was installed in the Fifth Avenue Hotel in 1859 by Otis Tufte.

The Beginning of the Typewriter.

Many acute minds were working before the first writing machine appeared. The efforts of inventors to produce a telegraphic printing machine gave impetus to

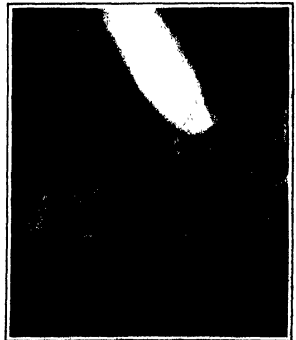
the idea of a writing machine, although the first attempt to produce a typewriter is found in the records of the British Patent Office as far back as 1714. A really competent complete machine did not appear until 1843, when Charles Thurber of Worcester, Mass., patented a slow typewriter. The model was interesting as effecting the letter spacing by longitudinal motion of a pinter—a principle which is a feature of all modern machines. Fairbanks in 1848



Model of the Otto gas engine in the National Museum, Washington, D. C.

designed a machine for printing colors on cloth. It was impracticable.

In 1847 Dr. Francis, a wealthy physician of New York, patented a typewriter, in which a motion similar to that of a piano hammer was employed to throw up the types, which were arranged in a circle to a common center. It was bulky and intricate, and although capable of good work was too costly for a commercial venture. This machine contained many of the salient features of the typewriter of today, such as the carriage traveling from side to side over the type basket, a large bell to indicate the end of the line, blank key for spaces.



The Bessemer converter, one of the great inventions of the nineteenth century.

The Reaper and the Harvester.

In 1831, Cyrus H. McCormick of Virginia built the first practical grain harvesting machine. But it was not until 1845, the year in which the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* was established, that the reaper was really introduced. It contained the essential elements that have been found in every grain harvester that has proved a success from that day to this. The first machine had a main wheel frame, from which projected to the side a platform containing a cutter bar, having fingers through which reciprocated a knife driven by a crank, upon the outer end of the platform was a divider projecting ahead of the platform to separate the grain to be cut from that to be left standing, a reel was positioned above the platform to hold the grain against the reciprocating knife, and to throw it back upon the platform, and the machine was drawn by a team walking at the side of the grain. The motive power was oxen or horses, hitched either at the side and front, or behind, and the grain, forced to the sickle by the reel, was cut and dropped to the platform. A man, walking alongside of the platform, removed the grain with a rake.

The great difficulty encountered by the predecessors of McCormick was the sickle. Many different devices were tried, but nothing equalled the reciprocating knife. The next improvement on the first practical reaper was McCormick's addition of a seat for the man who raked the grain. Several years later a self-rake was added, which eliminated the extra man. The reaper today is built largely along these lines.

The next progressive step in the development of the reaping machine was the application of an automatic mechanism to rake the grain from the platform to the ground. This work had, up to this time, been done by a man riding on the machine. In 1849 Jacob J. and Henry F. Mann of Indiana patented a machine having a series of endless bands for carrying the grain, after it had been cut and reeled upon these bands, to the side of the machine, where it accumulated in a receptacle until a sufficient amount had been gathered to form a bundle, when the operator dumped the receptacle, leaving the gavel upon the ground.

In 1850 Homer Adams of Illinois invented a device for giving a reciprocating, intermittent motion to a rake, in order to deposit the grain upon the ground, after it had been cut and reeled upon the platform. This machine marks the beginning of an era of self-raking reapers, that continued to be supplied to the market for twenty years. In the summer of 1860, Augustus Adams and J. T. Gifford, of Elgin, Ill., built probably the first hand-binding harvesting machine. It was a machine of the same type as the Mann machine of 1849, but it had in place of the receptacle into which the cut grain fell as it left the traveling apron that conveyed it to the side, a platform upon which men were carried through the field, and upon which the grain fell from the endless apron, where it was bound by men carried upon the machine. This is probably the earliest example of a machine which afterward came into extended use under the name of hand-binding harvester.

In 1868 C. W. and W. W. Marsh of Illinois invented their harvester. The grain after it had been cut and

deposited upon an endless apron was carried to one side of the machine to men riding upon the machine, who bound this grain into bundles. It should be remembered that the self-raking reaper was the machine in general use up to this time, and men did the binding, walking from gavel to gavel. The Marsh machine is interesting not only as marking a progressive step in the development of harvesting machines, but as furnishing the machine to which the automatic blinder was successfully attached.

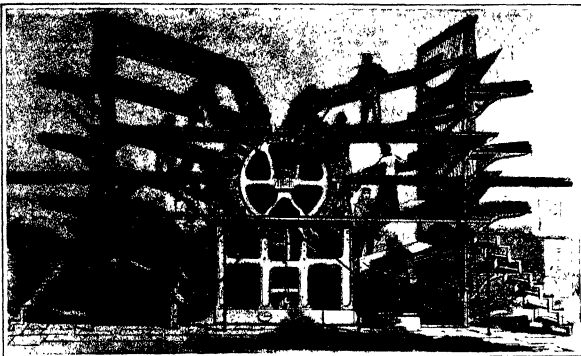
The commercial value of all the branches of industry that owe their existence and prosperity to McCormick's invention of the reaper is beyond conjecture. The value of farms has increased from one million dollars in 1800 to twenty millions in 1906—more than four times the value of all the manufacturing enterprises in this country.

The yield of the crops is so enormous that not enough men could be gotten into the fields to harvest them if the reaping hook were the harvester.

1855-1865

The decade is notable for the important work done in laying the foundation of modern electrical engineering.

The first direct current motor was built in 1840 by the Italian physicist Antonio Pacinotti. His machine consisted broadly of an iron ring, suitably wound, which rotated between the poles of a horseshoe electro-magnet supplied with current from a battery. In the same year Pacinotti invented the commutator. Pacinotti did nothing with his inventions, important as they were. The world had to wait for Gramme to reluc-



The Hoe revolving press of the fifties. From a contemporary engraving.

by Robinson and Gotham for iron works, but hydraulic press forging was substituted for the hammer in 1861 by John Haswell, whose first press had an effective pressure of 10,000 hundredweight. Haswell's press was improved by Reiner Duellen in 1865 by applying steam

Lithman, who made artificial building stone of granulated slag and limestone under pressure.

Most important in its general industrial effect was the invention of the regenerative gas furnace by Friedrich and William Siemens in 1856. Edward Cooper applied Siemens's regenerative principle to blast furnaces in 1850, his ideas being readily accepted in the Cleveland district.

Colonel Drake Strikes Oil

On August 29th, 1859 G. L. Drake, while driving an artesian well, struck oil. Although petroleum had been known even in ancient times, Drake was the first oil well. Ever since his time petroleum has been an article of commerce. The idea of the pipe line suggested itself as early as 1849 to J. L. Karns and Hutchinson. Their attempts at piping oil were not very successful. The first really successful pipe line was laid by Samuel Van Sickle in 1845 between Pithole and Miller's Farm. Another pipe line was built by Henry Harlow at the end of the year and the success of the principle was demonstrated by him.

The Beginning of Modern Refrigeration.

The modern ammonia absorption ice machine was devised in 1849 by the French engineer, F. P. E. Carré. In this machine water was brought to the freezing point by the rapid evaporation of condensed ammonia. Improved by Reiss (1870) and Koch and Haberland (1871), this machine held its own until the compression apparatus was brought to a high state of efficiency. A closed cold air or refrigerating machine was built in 1862 by A. C. Kirk. This machine used the same air over and over again and exerted its cooling effect indirectly through tubular walls which are built in the chamber or fluid to be cooled.

How the Pump Was Improved.

Finding that his early pump lacked smoothness in operation, Worthington developed the duplex pump, which he patented in 1850. Another inventor who did much to improve the pump was George F. Blake. In 1882 he installed and operated his first single-direct-



Alfred E. Beach's hydraulic shield, first practically used in tunneling under New York, 1869.

Gaston Planté invented his "accumulator" or storage battery, consisting of two lead plates immersed in dilute sulphuric acid. When the element was charged the positive electrode became covered with a layer of super oxide of lead. When this plate was used as a cathode a powerful current was obtained, the super-oxide decomposing again.

In 1860 Moses G. Farmer of Newport illuminated his house with forty-two platinum incandescence lamps, one of the earliest instances of the use of electric lighting.

The idea of separating iron magnetically goes back to 1792, when William Fullerton took out a patent on an apparatus. Electromagnets were proposed by and used experimentally by Arthur Wall (1847) and Chonet (1854). A great step in advance was taken in 1858 when Quintino Sella used an electromagnetic machine for the preparation of ore. He seems to have used the device practically in obtaining iron free from copper and sulphur and was thus enabled to utilize ores for which there had been no practical use. Edison made vast improvements along the same lines many years later.

Improvements in Metallurgy.

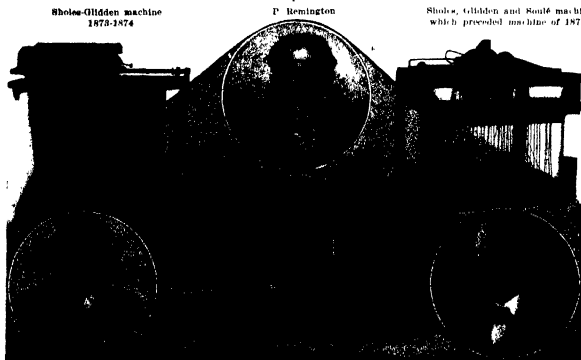
The first modern coke oven of the by-product recovery type was built in 1856 by Carvès at Leirun, Commeny. After the oven had been improved by Carvès and Knab in collaboration, eighty-eight ovens were built in 1903 at the Usine du Marais in Terrenure.

The principle of centrifugal casting in the production of iron and steel, although proposed as early as 1800, was practically carried out by Henry Bessemer in 1856. In order to avoid blowholes, the molten mass was poured into a circular closed mold having a vertical axis which could be turned with a speed of 2,000 revolutions a minute. A similar process of producing wagon tires was disclosed by Whitley and Bower in 1904.

The first modern hydraulic press was built in 1858

pressure directly, thus dispensing with a pump and an accumulator.

The idea of using slag for the making of Portland cement was suggested in 1862 by Eugen Langen, who noticed that the blast furnace slag of an iron foundry had hydraulic properties when granulated. Langen's suggestion was practically carried out in 1865 by Fritz



James Densmore.

The typewriter of A. E. Beach (1866).

C. L. Sholes.

Ancestors of the modern typewriter.

action pump, which was immediately successful, and with slight modifications was patented on April 12th, 1864. In the same period belongs the development of the Knowles pump.

In 1862 attention was drawn to the need of better protection against fire in Lockport, N. Y., and in 1863 Holly constructed the first water-works plant, consisting of a rotary pump, turbine water wheel, about one mile of water main and twelve fire hydrants, under what has since become known throughout the world as the Holly system of water supply and fire protection for cities and villages.

In steam engineering we must note that in 1858 John Elder combined the compound steam engine with the surface condenser, and thus devised a type of double-expansion compound engine, which has markedly influenced the development of marine engineering.

In 1860 Lenoir patented his historic gas engine, in which he actually used electrical ignition.

The Harvester is Developed.

Sylvanus D. Locke of Janesville, Wis., during those years was working upon a wire binder. He took out many patents, and in 1878, after associating himself with Walter A. Wood, sold probably the first automatic self-binding harvester that was ever put upon the market. The different binders of reaping machines were at work at this time perfecting automatic binders which they were attaching to harvesters of the Marsh type, by removing the platform upon which the men stood and placing the automatic binder so as to receive the grain as it is elevated from the elevator of the harvester. The use of wire, however, as a binding material met with opposition, and the inventors turned their attention to perfecting an attachment that would bind with cord; and to Marjorie I. Gorham of Rockford, Ill., who built a successful cord binder and had it at work in the harvest field in 1874, must be given the credit of producing the first successful automatic self-binding binder. It bound with cord and produced bundles of the same size. It was like McCormick's reaper a machine that contained the essential elements that have been found in every grain binder since its time.

In 1879 John F. Appleby took out a patent on a machine upon which he had been working for about four years, which in the arrangement of the devices was an improvement to that of Gorham. It, however, contained the principles of the Gorham machine, which he had seen in operation in the field before he began to work upon his twine binder. The modern twine binder is, in the form of its devices and the arrangement of its parts, built upon the Gorham plan, as improved by Appleby.

A few years prior to 1850, P. H. and F. M. Root conceived the idea of developing a water wheel built on the principle of the present two-blade positive pressure blower. The machine was constructed to be used as a water wheel. It was installed and tested out, but as the rotating parts were lagged with wood, the wood swelled. The machine was taken out and brought to a machine shop in Connersville and the impellers were trimmed off with an ordinary plane. While they were running the machine to see if the clearances were properly made, the operator of a local foundry was standing by and observed that it was discharging a blast of air. This foundryman afterward became the foreman of Root brothers' foundry. This suggested to the brothers the idea of constructing a positive pressure blower for foundry work—the inception of the positive pressure blower.

The Solvay Soda Process and Other Interesting Processes.

The decade brought forth the Solvay soda process, one of the great achievements of industrial chemistry. After the experimental ammonia soda factory of Iyzer and Hemming (1838) had proven more or less a failure, as well as the experiments of Deacon and Gaskell (1854) and of Schödlung and Rolland (1856) in Tetaux, the Belgian chemist and engineer, Ernest Solvay, took up the idea again, treated the mechanical appliances for carrying out the reaction, and succeeded in placing the ammonia-soda process on a commercial par with the Leblanc process (1861).

Printing Process and Textile Machinery.

The type-revolving printing press was in general use until Bullock introduced his stereotype-perfecting press in this decade. This cut the sheets from a web before they went to the printing cylinders. Between 1862 and 1864 Andrew Campbell put out the first cheap cylinder press, the "Country Campbell," by means of which small newspapers were liberated from the Washington hand press. Campbell then built his two-revolution printing machine (1865-1870), which, in a slow but sure way, became the standard press throughout the world.

In 1857 Snell and Bartlett patented their mechanical let-off for warps, an important improvement in textile machinery. The principle of this warp let-off was to actuate the large warp beam containing the warps at the rear of the loom by a ratchet and pawl connection with the oscillating lay, the movement of this ratchet

and pawl-actuating mechanism being controlled by the tension of the warps. This form of let-off, with little improvement, was applied to cotton looms up to 1885.

It was in this decade that George Pullman introduced the Pullman car. He improved it rapidly year by year. In 1867 he devised the combined drawing-room car, which could be converted into a sleeper at night.

An Early Submarine.

Bushnell in 1776 built the first practical submarine boat, and Fulton in 1801 employed the usual vertical rudder and a horizontal rudder. Although Bauer, a Bavarian, constructed a submarine vessel in 1850, no substantial advance was made until Bourgois and Brun completed "Le Plongeur" in 1864. Her novel feature consisted in her compressed air system for water propulsion, which worked satisfactorily, but her submerged control was bad. She had an additional boat, carried in the superstructure, into which her crew could enter through double hatches, then release this small boat and ascend to the surface in case of an emergency.

Shoe Machines Appear.

The year 1859 marks the beginning of the wonderful modern shoe machine industry, for then it was that Lyman R. Blake invented a machine which sewed the soles of shoes to the uppers. The machine was financed and improved by Gordon McKay and became known as the McKay sewing machine. The first machines were introduced in the factory of William Porter & Sons, Lynn, Mass., in 1861 or 1862 and were run by foot power. This invention, probably more than any other, is responsible for revolutionizing the manufacture of shoes. In 1862 Auguste Destory invented a machine with a curved needle to sew turn shoes, which was improved by Daniel Mills in 1868. This machine was adapted by Charles Goodyear to the sewing of welts. Goodyear patented his machine in 1871 and his three patents were the foundation of the famous Goodyear welt system of manufacturing shoes.

How the Modern Typewriter Was Evolved.

A marked advance in typewriting machines was made in 1868 by Mr. Alfred Ely Beach, Editor of the *Scientific American*, and one of the founders of Munn & Co. This machine was primarily intended for the printing of embossed letters for the blind, but could also be adapted to the general uses of the typewriter. It employed pairs of dies to imprint characters on a narrow ribbon of paper. These were ranged about a circle, each pair swinging to a common center, much in the manner of the modern typewriter.

During the winter of 1868-1867 C. Latham Sholes, a printer and editor by trade, and Samuel W. Soule, also a printer, inventor and farmer, were engaged together in developing a machine for serially numbering the pages of blankbooks. At the shop where they were having their work done (Carroll Glidden, the son of a successful ironmonger of Ohio, was also engaged in developing a mechanical "spade" to be used instead of a plow. Glidden became interested in Sholes's machine and suggested the idea of devising a mechanism which would not only write numbers, but also letters and words. In the following year a copy of the *Scientific American* fell into the hands of Mr. Glidden. It described a machine called the typotype (winged type). Invented by John Pratt, which was designed to do just what Glidden had suggested. This article was brought to the attention of Sholes. Glidden, Soule, and Sholes eventually formed a combination to develop a practical machine. Glidden contributed suggestions; the first crude model was largely the work of Soule, who suggested the pivoted types set in a circle and other minor details. Sholes contributed the letter-spacing device. By September of that year the first machine had been made. It was a success in so far as it was able to write accurately and with fair rapidity; but it was not yet a commercial machine. One of the letters written on it reached James Densmore of Medville, Pa. He was attracted to the new enterprise and purchased an interest in it. He did not see the typewriter until March, 1868. He urged further improvements, pointing out many defects. Soule and Glidden dropped out of the enterprise and left it entirely to Sholes and Densmore. Inspired by Densmore, Sholes made model after model. At last in 1875 the machine had been developed so far that it was felt it could be manufactured, and with that end in view Densmore came in 1873 to the gun factory of E. Remington & Sons of Ilion, N. Y. At the factory of the Remingtons the machine was further developed and was finally placed upon the market about the middle of 1874. From that time on the typewriter began to work its way into every business house, until now very few business letters are written by pen.

1865-1875

Modern electrical engineering is placed on a sure footing in this decade; for we find not only the dynamo and the motor vastly improved, but new applications of the electrical current.

In 1859 Z. T. Gramme combined the Picoletti ring

armature, which he had observed, with the principle of the Italian's plunger motor with the usual vertical shaft. Hence he constructed what is considered to be the first dynamo-electric machine for delivering a continuous direct current. Who first discovered the magnetic induction it is hard to determine. Certainly the correct principle of the dynamo was set forth by Werner von Siemens. In 1871 he found that the same force of magnetic property of the magnetic parts released one another to a certain maximum when properly designed, and built a dynamo-electric machine in which he used a double T armature. A fortnight later Charles Wheatstone published the principle of the dynamo.

Wheatstone and Cooke had made experiments in 1845 with a magnet machine in which electro-magnets were substituted for the previously used bar-magnets. The same idea was practically applied by Henry Wilde in 1867 to construct an alternating current machine. Between two rows of electromagnets of opposite polarity a corresponding number of armature spools with iron rods rotated.

H. Fontaine and Z. T. Gramme exhibited the principle of power transmission from an electric generator to an electric motor at the Vienna Exposition in 1873.

In telegraphing the decade is memorable for the invention by Edison of his duplex system and his quadruplex system, and for the laying of the first cable (1858) from Ireland to Newfoundland through the efforts of Cyrus W. Field, John Pender and James Anderson.

Some Mechanical Marvels of the Sixties and Seventies.

Mechanical marvels in their day were machines to which we have become so accustomed that they are accepted as a matter of course. It was considered remarkable, and so it was, when Jacob Reese, an American inventor, in 1875 built a machine for cutting iron and steel with rapidly rotating disks of soft iron. The technical press of 1877 commented with admiration on A. Brandon's file-making machine, which, in imitation of hand labor, applied chisel and hammer separately, but which, however, could be only for making flat files. It was improved by Maurice Mondon of London, in 1874, so that convex filed surfaces could be made. The modern machine, however, was invented by Plinston of Philadelphia. The idea of rolling instead of forging dies was carried out in 1864 by B. H. Dodge, who constructed a machine for that purpose.

Most wonderful of all was the rotary knitting machine, built by Lamb of Valparaiso, Indiana, in 1860. This machine was afterward improved by Dubbed and Waterville. It makes a stocking without any seam whatever.

Benjamin C. Tilghman invented the sand blast in 1871 for producing mat glass. His invention was afterward introduced into the iron and stone industries.

Tilghman is also to be credited with the invention of chemical wood pulp, although ground wood pulp had been known since 1840, when Friedrich Gottlieb Keller took out letters patent in Germany for a wood pulp grinding machine; the process of manufacture was not developed and applied for producing paper suitable for newspapers until a much later date. It began to be used commercially about the time of the discovery by Benjamin C. Tilghman of the disintegrating action of sulphurous acid upon wood, which resulted in the invention of chemical wood pulp (1868). After Tilghman in America had pointed the way, George Fry and his collaborator, Ekman, developed at Berwick, Sweden, the process of separating the cellulose of wood by boiling it under pressure in an aqueous solution of sulphur dioxide in which magnesium sulphite was dissolved. The Ekman process, which was first worked in the liquor used for cooking wood, consisted of an acid solution of magnesium sulphite and the magnesium being obtained by burning magnesite imported from Greece.

Advances in Metallurgy.

In 1862 Joseph Moore of San Francisco brought out the California stamp mill, which became of great importance in mining. The dry concentrator in which air is employed for the separation of minerals was introduced in 1868 by Stephen H. Krom. Another improvement which meant much to the mining industry was Dingey's mineral mill (1872) consisting of a slowly revolving horizontal slotted plate over which four notched disks rotated in the opposite direction. This machine proved twice as efficient as the stamp mill.

George Bédouin of Marseilles in 1867 invented a continuous wire rolling mill. He was the first to roll out metal bars weighing one hundred pounds into wire at the rate of eleven tons a day. He arranged his rollers in alternate vertical and horizontal pairs.

Westinghouse and the Air Brake.

Railroading received a great impetus by George Westinghouse's invention of the air brake. It was in 1876 that he brought out this first mechanical brake of the kind and one which made high speed railway travel possible. Year by year Westinghouse continued to improve the brake, giving it his personal attention until he lay into the twentieth century.

JUNE 19, 1935

the great railway development of importance was the system of the automatic block signal system (hence called) invented in 1871 by Thomas J. Munn, and soon widely adopted in the United States of America.

An invention which attracted but little attention at the time, but which was the beginning of the reinforced concrete industry, appeared in 1877. Then it was that John B. Thacher patented a method of making dower pots out of cement with a reinforcement of iron netting. This seems to be the first instance of the utilization of reinforced concrete. In additional patents, taken out in 1883, 1879, and 1875, Monier extended the principle to bridges, staircases, railway sleepers, and the like, thereby proving that he was keenly alive to the possibilities of his discovery.

The first great modern vacuum ice machine (the principle was proposed as early as 1810) was exhibited by Edward Carré at the Paris Exposition of 1877. In this machine water was used as the vaporizing fluid and concentrated sulphuric acid as the absorbing fluid in the process. They blew steam into a layer of red-hot coke and carburized the resultant gas with oil. Another improvement in the art of illumination was that of C. T. Mosé du Motay, who invented the steeple light in 1867, in which a pencil of silicon was heated to incandescence in a gas blowing pipe. Clammond, in 1872, hit upon the idea of bringing magnesia to incandescence in a blowpipe. In a sense he was the forerunner of Westinghouse.

Some Important Inventions in Industrial Chemistry.
Important advances were made in industrial chemistry. After Parker of Birmingham and Daniel Spiller had independently endeavored in 1862 to make utensils of a dried solution of nitrocellulose, but without success, J. B. Hyatt discovered in 1869 that camphor is a solvent for various kinds of nitrocellulose and thus established the great modern celluloid industry. Dynamite was invented in 1867 by Alfred Nobel. He discovered the extraordinary absorptive powers of the infusorial earth for nitroglycerine.

Madison improved the bicycle in 1867 by providing it with radial wire spokes. This was the basis of Beyer's tangent spokes (1868) now used on all bicycles. In 1860 O. S. Halstead of Newark, N. J., developed a submarine vessel still to be seen at the Brooklyn Navy Yard. This vessel, the "Intelligent Whale," had a trap door, which opened in the bottom of the vessel. After filling the entire vessel with compressed air to the depth of submergence the trap door was to be opened and the whole vessel converted into a diving bell. The craft was never put into commission.

Tunneling Under New York.

On September 5th, 1865, Alfred Ely Beach, editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, patented a plan for conveying letters and parcels by mechanical means directly to a Central Post Office from a lamp-post letter-box. In the following year he learned of the success of experimental pneumatic tubes in Great Britain, through which small cars carrying merchandise and persons in a sitting position were successfully operated. Thereupon he invented a plan of dispatching letters pneumatically. X-shaped revolvable valves in lamp-posts were intended to catch the letters as they were dropped from above, and to hold them until the pneumatic car came along, into which they were emptied automatically. This system was patented November 13th, 1865. He built a model which was exhibited at the American Institute Fair in the autumn of 1867. A company called the Beach Pneumatic Transit Company was then organized to lay pneumatic tubes under Broadway and the East River for the transmission of mail and parcels. In order to tunnel under Broadway, the most difficult position was reached as early as 1864 by Brunel, was practically applied. The shield was pushed forward in a modern way, by a series of hydraulic rams, which system Mr. Beach patented June 8th, 1869. With this shield a tunnel was driven under Broadway from Warren Street to Murray Street. A car was propelled through this tunnel by means of a motor at the lower end, which was driven by steam, the car back when it had reached the end of its travel.

The Elevator is Improved.

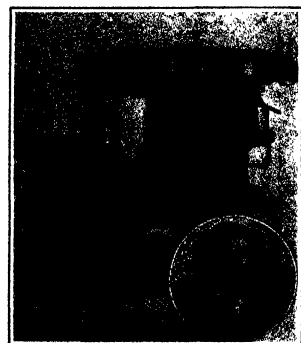
Almost simultaneously with the steam elevator appeared the hydraulic elevator, which in its simplest form was a ram located under the carrying platform, which was moved up and down by water under pressure, working in a closed cylinder. This system of operation was first put into practical use in 1852.

After many vicissitudes the hydraulic elevator was improved, and is now in use in many modern buildings. Following this type came the geared hydraulic, in which the water became a piston, which was attached to the carrying platform of a system of pulleys above, over which the power, supplied by a steam engine, was passing. This system was patented in 1870. Especially successful was the one built between 1870 and 1880, which was the first to be used in the great apartment houses, and further developments were made from 1880 to 1890, when the height of buildings began to increase rapidly.

With the increased height came a demand for greater speed, but although this requirement was well met by the hydraulic, it had the objection of being uneconomical of space, and the plunger type increased greatly in cost with increased lift. The natural result of these conditions, which were steadily progressive, was to suggest electric power for operating all kinds of elevators, and the first electric elevator was installed in 1887. The first successful electric passenger elevator was built in 1889 by Otis Bros. & Co. and installed in a building on Fifth Avenue, New York. This was of the drum type, and while occupying little space this construction was ill adapted for buildings 400 to 500 feet high, on account of the enormous size of the drum necessary to wind the hoisting cables. These conditions led to the introduction in 1906 of the electrically operated traction machine, which was located directly over the elevator shaft, and includes the driving sheave. The car is suspended from one end of the cable, and a counterweight from the other. The cables pass over the driving sheave, thence around an idler and again around the driving sheave, thus forming a complete loop around these two sheaves. The driving sheave is operated through a worm gear by a moderate speed electric motor. By this arrangement the hoisting cables are given sufficient grip on the traction sheave to lift the load, while the machine is compact, economical of operation and practically solves the problem of high lifts at satisfactory speed and with perfect control. Another type of machine widely adopted is an improvement of the geared traction model by eliminating the intermediate gear, and driving the traction sheave direct by a highly efficient low-speed electric motor, and this style of machine has been almost universally adopted for

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Otmar Mergenthaler and his first commercial linotype.

skyscraper service; and in fact it is due entirely to the improvements made in elevator machinery that the skyscraper has become a possibility.

1875-1885

If there is one invention that can be said to stand out more than any other in this wonderful decade, it is the invention of the electrical incandescent lamp, not only Edison's most brilliant success, but one of the greatest technical achievements in the annals of invention. Edison owed his success to clear thinking and hard work; for many another had been at work along the same lines. Edison brought his elaborate investigation of various possible filament materials to a conclusion in 1879, or at least to a point where practical results might be expected. In that year he substituted carbonized bamboo fiber for other filament materials. He was the first to recognize the fact that the filament must have a very high resistance to be efficient. His installation of one hundred and fifty incandescent lamps on the steamship "Columbia" must be regarded as the first practical illuminating plant in history. The general introduction of the incandescent lamp followed the starting exhibit Edison made in Paris in 1881.

The Edison incandescent lamp patents proved a fruitful source of litigation, but were sustained. Among the inventions unsuccessfully cited as anticipations were Sawyer's lamps (held to be included in Edison's claims) and the Jablotchhoff "candle," which was invented in 1870 by the Russian engineer whose name it bears, and which was considerable chiefly because it showed the possibility of what may be called the sub-division of light.

The problem of distributing current was certainly one of great practical difficulty and one which had to be

solved before electricity could be made cheaply available. It is impossible to place the credit for the solution where it belongs. Edison certainly solved it, and so did Weston, both hitting on the idea of the three-wire system.

While Edison was busily engaged in perfecting the incandescent lamp, Charles F. Brush was experimenting with arcs. In 1878 Brush gave to the world the now famous Brush electric arc light, which was first adopted by the municipality of Cleveland. The light is still in service in essentially its original form.

In 1878 Charles F. Brush introduced his famous compound dynamo, Edward Weston's dynamo, two were among the earliest in the market.

Gaulard and Gibbs (1880) worked out a system of distributing alternating current at high tension. They utilized induction coils, which were transformers, but which they called "secondary generators." This early transformer was one of the first steps which rendered it possible to transmit electric energy to great distances. The term transformer came into use in 1882 when Karl Herz and Karl Zipernowsky showed that by arranging the Gaulard secondary generator in parallel and by better distributing the windings and iron masses the practical requirements of every distribution system would be more fully met. Transformers revolutionized alternating-current engineering and opened up an entirely new field.

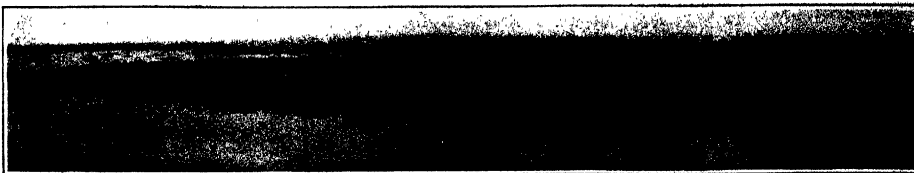
The modern transformer system, which involves transmission from a station of high potential and the reduction of the potential in the secondaries of transformers, was worked upon in a small way at the Franklin Institute in Philadelphia in 1870, and in February of that year Prof. Elihu Thomson ran two transformers by an alternating dynamo of his own construction, the fine wire primaries of the transformers being connected in parallel with the dynamo line and the secondary currents of low potential used in doing local work. Later on this pioneer work was taken up (especially after satisfactory safety devices had been devised by him) and patent 698,156, applied for on November 2nd, 1885, went through the fire of interferences from applicants here and abroad, and finally was issued with broad claims. In fact, an epitome of multiple arc distribution systems may be found in the record of interferences and other procedures in which this patent was involved. It was issued, after a long contest, in 1902.

Another electrical worker in this wonderful decade was Edward Weston, a pioneer who did much to lay the foundations of the present electrical industry. He it was who placed the art of electroplating on a really scientific footing. In 1872 he substituted dynamo for batteries in plating, and that at a time when dynamo and the distribution of electric current were still embryonic. His work in the development of the dynamo has never been fittingly recognized, especially his introduction of the laminated core in 1879. In 1874 he brought out his arc light dynamo, and from 1880 on he developed dynamo for incandescent lighting and batteries. Before his time, as it was the practice to run arc light from a separate dynamo, he showed probably for the first time, that arc lamps could be run in series from a single generator. As early as 1878 he devised and patented the flaming arc. He also described the cord carbon about the same time. He was the first to make arc lamps in great quantities and the first to copperplate them. From 1875 on he worked in the field of incandescent electric lighting, succeeded in producing a homogeneous carbon filament and devised the hydrocarbon treatment process in 1875-1876. He was one of the first users of the electric arc furnace in an industrial way, for he used it in 1875-1876 to melt platinum.

Weston early realized that accurate electrical measuring instruments were a vital necessity in electrical engineering. To him belongs the credit of having devised, after infinite pains, simple electrical meters which made the measuring of volts and amperes as easy as reading the dial of a groceryman's scale.

To save light, portable, accurate instruments involved the discovery of alloys, which would avoid the necessity of making correction calculations. He gave the world manganin, an alloy combining a very small temperature coefficient and a high resistance. He also gave the world several alloys with negative temperature coefficients.

In 1884, at the first American Electrical Exposition in Philadelphia, Frank J. Sprague made a sensation with his new motors. They not only gave a tremendous stimulus to central station development, as a source of supply of electrical energy, but set going a furor as to electrical traction. Sprague's stationary motors for industrial power are in use to this day. The year 1887 marks an epoch in electric traction through out the world. Sprague's first rail street railway was that for St. Joseph, Mo., but the vital point was reached when he took a contract to equip and operate a new system at Richmond, Va., with no fewer than forty cars. All was crude, but the goal had been reached,



New York in 1876 The Brooklyn Bridge is in course of construction. New York's skyline would be essentially the same to-day had the passenger elevator not been invented.

and with one great mighty leap the trolley came into its own.

The Advent of the Telephone

Never before did electrical inventions of great value follow one another so rapidly. Indeed, it was the decade of electricity. Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone (1876), which instrument was rapidly developed. In 1877 Emil Berliner patented the microphone transmitter, based upon the principle discovered by Du Moncel of altering the resistance of two conductors by pressure. In the same year Edison constructed his carbon telephone. To Berliner and Edison belongs the credit of having made the telephone a commercial invention.

An electric railway was built for the Berlin Industrial Exposition (1879) by Werner von Siemens. Here, for the first time, an electric current from a permanent source was led through a conductor running alongside of the track. The first public electric railway was that built in 1881 by Siemens and Halske running from the Anhalter railway station in Berlin to Lichterfelde. In 1885 the Thomson-Houston International Electric Company introduced the principle of using the rail to return the current and also the now familiar motor-man's controller for regulating the speed of the car.

John Hopkinson made his classic experiments with alternating currents in 1881 at the South Foreland Lighthouse, as a result of which he laid down the conditions under which two alternators may be operated in synchronism. In the same year Elihu Thomson discussed the electro-inductive repulsion exerted by alternating current magnets on copper disks. Two years later he built his repulsion motor. In 1885 Ganz & Co. built an alternating-current dynamo (Mori-Zipernowsky's patent). This was probably the first alternating current machine for central station use connected in parallel. All this was based on the work done by Wilde in 1838, by Marcel Deprez, and, above all, by Hopkinson.

In 1885 Galileo Ferraris built a motor, consisting of a pair of electromagnets, supplied by alternating current differing by 90 degrees in phase, so that the interior rotary portion was set in motion, thus showing that it was possible to split a given alternating current into two parts, the one having a resistance free from induction, the other having self-induction. As a rotary motor armature, Ferraris employed a hollow closed copper cylinder.

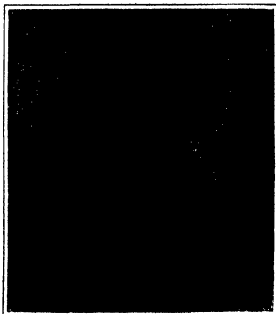
Elihu Thomson's Inventions

The Thomson-Houston lighting system began with the invention of the arc dynamo in 1879 which was patented in 1880. The specification as originally filed related not only to a direct-current machine, but also to a three-phase alternator with collecting rings. The machine is, in fact, the first example of a three-phase machine with or without commutation.

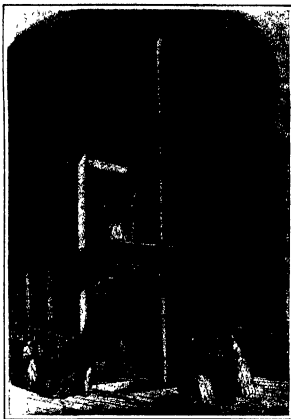
The Thomson-Houston constant current regulator, patented in 1881 and 1882, had a profound influence on giving the Thomson-Houston system an early start in the industry, as it maintained a definite value of current from a series line, no matter how many lights were in use. This regulator had a very extended use, and in modified form survives to day.

Another pioneer element in the Thomson-Houston arc dynamo (1882 and 1883) was the air-blast, which overcame the difficulty of short-circuiting across the com-

mutator slots, known as "flashing." These inventions, also, are prototypes of air switches and switches furnished with air-blasts for extinguishing arcs.



Elihu Graves Otis, inventor of the passenger elevator.



The steam elevator of 1870. From a contemporary engraving.

The magnetic blow-out system so generally employed was first developed in the Thomson-Houston enterprise, and it has had a profound influence on all forms

of control apparatus, arresters, etc. It is found in first form in patent 283,107 of August 14th, 1883. A strong magnetic field is employed for disturbing or extinguishing the arcs formed when electric contacts are opened and when considerable voltage and considerable current are flowing. This principle is now employed on a very extended scale and is likely to be employed still more in the future. Most electrical engineers are familiar with its present relation to the art.

When incandescent lamps are run in series, one with the other, on street lighting circuits, all the sockets which are provided are provided with film cut-outs, that is, a film of insulation is so placed in shunt to the lamp that when the lamp cuts out or is removed, the film is punctured, and thus a safety short-circuit is made around the lamp. This appears in connection with the series lamp in Thomson's patent dated September 10th, 1884. For similar purposes vacuum cut-outs were invented and have attained a certain amount of use in recent times, and the prototype is 307,818 of November 11th, 1884.

Camille Faure improved Planté's accumulator in 1882 by inventing the pasted type of storage battery. Faure formed his super-oxide of lead after charging; Faure used a compound of lead oxide and lead super-oxide, which he applied directly to the negative electrode.

In 1883 Gaston Tissandier built the first electrically-driven dirigible airship. Much more important were the experiments of Edvard and Karel of 1884. There was the first really intelligently designed airship from the modern standpoint. The propeller was driven from a dynamo; the envelope was remarkable for its approximately correct aerodynamic form.

In 1883 Sir Hiram Maxim invented his automatic (self-loading) machine gun, in which he utilized the force of the recoil to reload the weapon as well as to fire it automatically. Most modern machine guns have been based upon this early weapon of Maxim's.

Edison's Remarkable Activity.

The decade was the most active in Edison's remarkable career. He perfected his magnetograph, his automatic telegraph systems, his duplex, quadruplex, sextuplex and multiplex telegraphs. Of these, the quadruplex system of telegraphy is of almost incalculable importance. It may be safely said that its invention rendered the high-speed printing telegraph commercially unnecessary until the present time. To the same decade belong his microtasmeter, paraffin paper, and carbon rheostat. In 1877 the phonograph appeared, one of his most original and brilliant inventions. Its first public demonstration was in the office of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN in the same year. Two years later he brought out his dynamo electric machines, which he designed especially to meet the need of a simple efficient means of generating current for his incandescent lamps. In 1880 he began his work on magnetic ore separation. Then followed (1886-1887) the first full-size experimental electric railway in this country for freight and passengers at Menlo Park, N. J. Not content with inventing, he started to exploit the incandescent light commercially (1881), built the first commercial lamp factory at Harrison, N. J. (1881), and organized shops for the manufacture of dynamos, underground conductors, sockets, switches, and fixtures.

How the Newspaper Printing Press Was Improved. Andrew Campbell, famous for his printing press in-



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New York's skyline in 1914. An architectural tribute to the influence of the elevator in the development of the metropolis.

improvements. In 1875 developed a press which used curved stereotype plates and printed on both sides of the web itself. Later Campbell added a folding machine. Next he built a double printing machine, each half of which consisted of a perfected web to a folding machine common to both, whereby he was able to turn out an eight-page paper. Stephen D. Tucker, an inventor in the employ of Hoe and one of the most brilliant mechanics that this country ever produced, also invented a folder. He applied for a patent (1875); Campbell did not. Hence, one of the most valuable improvements in printing presses fell to the Hoos. At about the same time Tucker invented another device essential to the modern newspaper press—the collecting cylinder, by means of which the product of one circumferential half of a printing cylinder may be transported upon the product of the following half, and thus the two brought together as a single product. Two Englishmen, Anthony and Rose, conceived the idea of splitting a web of paper into two longitudinal halves and transferring one half over and upon the other by means of deflecting bars, so that the right-hand product of a printing cylinder could be superposed upon its left-hand product and the two made up into one. This invention is now included in all double-width newspaper printing presses. Another improvement came when Ford patented a means for running the product of two printing machines into one folding machine. The rotary folder of Campbell (or Tucker), the collecting cylinder, the angle bar method and the double press arrangement—all very necessary to-day in newspaper presses—came into the possession of the Hoe Company. They were all combined into a single structure, so good that all other presses were driven out of newspaper offices. Very valuable additions were made by Crowell, an ingenious Yankee skipper who could not even read a drawing and had to work from patterns or models. With no knowledge of machine design, he invented the longitudinal folder, by which a web may be folded longitudinally while on the run and still in web form. About the same time (1870-1880) he conceived the idea of the rotary fly. This was the last device necessary to the creation of a 24,000-copy-an-hour printing press, and when it was introduced (in the early eighties) the rotary newspaper printing press in all its elements became the machine it is to-day.

What the Inventor Did for the Miner and Iron Founder.

Important progress in metallurgy was made. After M. J. Holway had made experiments in bessemerizing copper (1877-1878), following the experiments of Sememulow, M. J. Brown of Sheffield succeeded in blowing Rio Tinto ore in Bessemer converters.

The modern Otto-by-product coke oven, an improvement on that of Bauer and Tiffmann, was introduced in 1880. Otto's system has served as the inspiration of most later designers.

Alexander and MacCosh invented the so-called Gartsch process for obtaining ammonia and tar from blast furnace gases. The first proposal to utilize waste blast furnace gases for the generation of power seems to have been made by Josef von Ehrenwerth in 1863. Wilhelm Michaelis in 1879 made discoveries which showed that blast furnace slag could be added to Portland cement with advantage.

The first two-cycle gas engine appeared in 1879. It was the invention of Clark and was distinguished by its separate compression pump, which charged the working chamber and also acted as a scavenger. The first gas engine for locomotives was built in the same year by Marcel Lignier. The gas was compressed in a suitable container, and after having been allowed to work expansively like steam, was mixed with air, exploded, and thus made to do work again.

Improving the Steam Engine: The Steam Turbine Apparatus.

In 1880 the French engineer, Serpollet, constructed a

steam engine for tram cars, which engine was afterward used in automobiles. The engine was based upon the principle that only enough steam was admitted at each stroke to drive the piston to the end of its travel. A flash boiler was employed. It was not until the American, Stasler, came to the front with his tubular boiler that the steam automobile really came into its own. White, another American automobile designer, compromised between the principles of Stanley and Serpollet, by designing his semi-flash steam generator, which was successfully used.

But the growing invention in engines was the steam turbine. In 1884 Charles Algernon Parsons of Newcastle-on-Tyne invented his multi-ocular turbine, which utilizes steam first on the action and then on the reaction principle. His was the first steam turbine which could be directly coupled with a dynamo.

In the same year Pelton, an American, invented the Pelton wheel, in which cups are used instead of blades, the cups being so designed that they utilize the force of the impinging water to the utmost.

Mergenthaler and His Linotype.

For many decades inventors had endeavored to supply a satisfactory machine which would rapidly set type and which would enable newspaper proprietors to turn out papers more rapidly than was possible with hand composition. It was not until 1888 that such a ma-

"monotype," invented by Lanston, which has found its field more in the book and periodical printing office. The monotype consisted of two independent mechanisms, the one a keyboard by means of which the operator was enabled rapidly to perforate a paper ribbon with holes which represent characters, and the other a type-casting mechanism to which perforated type therefrom was fed. The latter device comprised a movable frame in which the matrices of 225 characters were fastened, a type mold, automatically adjustable to suit the various widths of the characters of the alphabet, with which a metal pump was connected, and pneumatic mechanisms for controlling the position of the matrix-carrying frame, and the width of the type mold. To these was added a general mechanical organization which enabled the perforations of the ribbon, by means of air, as it was drawn through the machine, to place the matrix frame properly and set the mold for each character needed, while the pump and co-operating parts acted to cast the character and place it in its correct position in a tray, or "galley," at the rate of 150 characters a minute.

The Invention of the Automobile

The first really successful modern volatile hydrocarbon automobile appeared in 1885. It was designed and built by Gottlieb Daimler. His success seems to have been due very largely to his automobile hot tube lighter, which was soon used for both stationary and portable internal combustion motors. George B. Selden of Rochester, N. Y., applied for a patent on his volatile hydrocarbon automobile in 1876, but never built a car until he became involved in patent litigation many years later, but to Daimler must be conceded the credit of having taken as the modern automobile as we know it. Much credit is also due to Karl Benz of Mannheim, who in 1885 built the first four-cycle volatile hydrocarbon motor with electric ignition, which motor he mounted on a tricycle. Although he designed this in 1885, he did not exhibit it until 1888, and then at the Industrial Exposition of Munich.

Improving the Submarine Boat

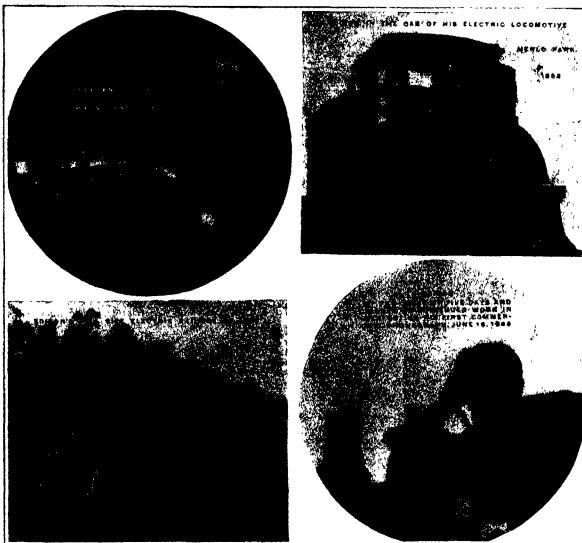
In 1876 J. P. Holland built a submarine vessel (the "Fulton Ram"), following the Fulton system of control by vertical and horizontal rudders. She was fitted with an air gun which could be discharged under water, and was probably the first submarine torpedo boat, if we give the word torpedo its largest significance. Holland was preceded by a year, however, for in 1875 Garrett of England brought out a vessel which was propelled by a steam engine and

being given off at gradually reducing pressures. Later Garrett became associated with Nordenfliet, who added new ideas, among them down haul screws carried amidships either side of the vessel to haul her under water. By varying the speed of the side propellers the depth of submergence could be controlled. Nordenfliet built submarines for Turkey, Greece, and Russia. In these internal torpedo firing tubes were fitted for the first time.

In 1880 Alexander E. Brown installed the first mechanical ore unloader to take ore from the hold of a boat and deliver it either to cars or to stock piles without rebounding, an invention that marked the first step in the remarkable American system of ore handling. In these radial improvement in the principle of ore unloading was made for nearly twenty years.

Paper Pulp and Its Preparation.

During this process the Ekman paper pulp process was markedly developed. Mechanical difficulties surrounded the operation from the start, though the quality of pulp produced was superior to that of hand made, in which the wood was cooked were mixed with lead and the heat developed in the acid liquor proved to be exceedingly disturbing, as while the lead expanded during the application of heat, it did not contract again when cold. The cost of repairs to digesters necessitated by the behavior of the lead lining was heavy, amounting



Some of Edison's work in the decade 1875-1885.

chine was invented. It was the invention of Ottmar Mergenthaler, and it worked on an entirely new principle. Instead of seeking to set the types and after their type to distribute them among their respective recipients in order that they might be automatically composed—the principle on which previous inventors had worked—Mergenthaler composed the type-matrices, and from these cast, as a single piece, a line of characters. Hence, his machine was called a "linotype." Mergenthaler's matrix was of brass, flat and rectangular, having a V-shaped notch cut deep into its upper end, the edges of the notch being fitted with small hook-like projections. These projections were arranged to act in the compartments of a flat hook-key, because of them a matrix could drop from the V-shaped ward bar, from which it hung during its automatic distribution after use, only into its own reservoir or channel of the matrix magazine. The convolutions of all the matrices of each character were alike, but those of no two characters were the same. The matrices were allowed to drop into their proper places in a line in response to the working of a keyboard. They were automatically justified, transported to the casting mechanism and pressed against the mouth of a set or mold filled at the proper moment with molten type metal. After that the matrices were returned to their respective magazines.

On the heels of the linotype came another device—the

to \$10 a ton on the total production. The difficulty was overcome by the invention of a digester lining composed of heavy cement backing, faced with brick, the latter being jointed with litharge and glycerin. The invention of a digester lining was one of the important early contributions of the chemical engineer to the development of the industry.

The magnesium bisulphite process originated by Ekan in Sweden, and developed by Charles S. Wheelwright and his brothers in this country at the Richmond mill in Providence, R. I., has been modified in several important particulars, the chemical solvent now employed being bisulphite of lime. Many different kinds of pulp are obtained, according to the system of cooking employed.

The sulphite process of cooking wood is not applicable to all woods. It works best with spruce and coniferous woods generally, and the several qualities of sulphite pulp depend on the system of cooking employed. The Mitscherlich process, which bears the name of the inventor, yields a product by long cooking in a weak solution of sulphurous acid under low pressure, which is remarkable for strength of fiber. The wood is steamed for a few hours before being boiled with the acid liquor. The Rittner-Kelher quick-cook process is an improvement on the other processes and is the one generally used in this country.

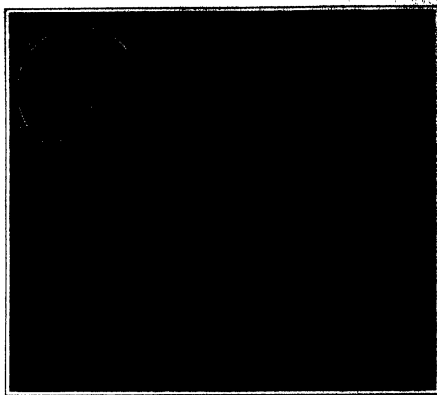
Perhaps the most important invention in pulp-making processes, especially in view of recent work in the utilization of waste wood dates from 1883, when Hahl introduced the sulphate process for the treatment of straw, a modification of which is now applied to the production of pulp from coniferous woods that are not amenable to other treatment. The operation of boiling in this process is carried out with a solution of caustic soda containing small amounts of sulphate and sulphide of soda. The sulphate of soda does not affect the wood and is used as a source of alkali and sodium sulphide. The principle of the process depends on the fact that in soda recovery, when the concentrated liquors are burned to ash, the sodium sulphate is reduced to sulphide by the carbonaceous matter derived from the wood, while the soda, in conjunction with the organic matter, is converted into sodium carbonate. The liquors are causticized in the usual manner, the lime converting the carbonate into caustic soda, and having little action on the sodium sulphide.

1885-1895

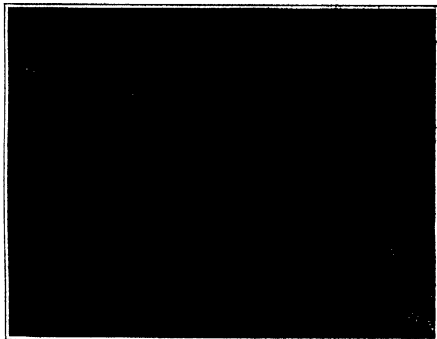
Although the decade was not so fruitful in pioneer electrical inventions as that of 1875-1885, it did bring out much that was new and startling. S. Z. de Ferranti built the first alternating current central station of London, remarkable for its completeness of equipment. It served as a model for later installations. The year 1887 is memorable for Tesla's invention of the polyphase alternating current motor, which made it possible to transmit electrical energy economically. On another page in this issue Mr. Tesla has told how this and other inventions of his sprang into being. The first alternating current machine for generating polyphase current seems to have been built in 1888 by Haselwander of Offenbourg. In the same year Charles S. Bradley patented a two-phase motor. The first installation for transmitting multi-phase alternating current at high tension was built in 1891 by Michael O. von Dolivo-Dobrowolski of Berlin between Lauffen and Frankfurt.

Hertz Lays the Foundation of Wireless. The year 1887 is memorable for the publication of Heinrich Hertz's classic studies, which experimentally proved that invisible electromagnetic waves can be sent through the ether with the speed of light waves. To prove the existence of the waves Hertz employed secondary conductors of condenser-like form (Hertz resonators). Hertz's work marks the beginning of modern wireless telegraphy.

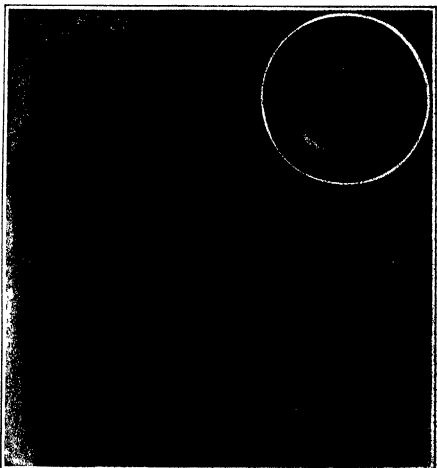
In 1890 Edouard Branly invented the coherer, the first detector of the electric



A typical central station in which Parsons turbines are used to drive electric generators. The portrait is that of the Hon. C. A. Parsons.



The electric furnace is radically transforming the steel industry.



The electric welder of Eltha Thomson.

The machine here shown will weld two hundred steel bands in an hour. It takes only a few seconds to make an electric weld. A heavy current of electricity at a low voltage is passed through the abutting ends of the metal pieces to be welded, thereby generating heat locally at the points of contact, while at the same time pressure is applied to force the parts together.

were employed in wireless telegraphy. The instrument was subsequently presented by Lodge. Although it was not received as a scientific instrument, it was not received so rapidly. The capacitor, which stored the ion particles in the tube, and was rendered it responsive again, was invented by Popoff in 1900, without any knowledge apparently of its subsequent utility in wireless communication.

The telautograph, an instrument for transmitting drawings and writing electrically, was invented in 1890 by Edison Gray. His instrument had as its essential feature a transmitting stylus or pen, the movements of which were analyzed into two components perpendicular to each other. These components varied the resistance of an electric circuit and caused the receiving stylus to retrace the movements of the transmitting stylus. Improvements were made in 1894 by Orestes, Denison, Graham, and Green.

Electric Welding and Other Inventions of Thomson.

The Thomson electric welding patents were applied for in 1886, and were issued on August 10th of that same year. They were the result of considerable work done before the filing in establishing the art of electric welding. Along with the development of the art of electric welding under the Thomson process there was also electric forging and brazing as instances of the use of electric welding transformers, the peculiarity of which is that the secondary of the transformer consists of only a single turn. The principal patents are 396,009 and 396,010, issued to Thomson January 8th, 1889.

The fundamentals of the Thomson repulsion motor and repulsion apparatus generally were patented May 17th, 1887, the experimental work being done about May, 1885, and onward.

In like manner, attention may be called to Thomson's inventions relating to alternating current magnetic systems, including the "shaded pole" and "shifting magnetism" (1890 and 1890), pioneer inventions in this field.

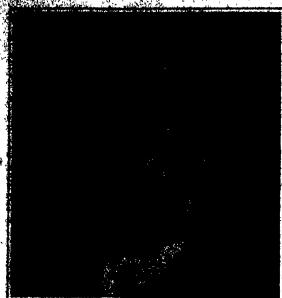
The well known engineering device, known as the "constant current transformer," is seen in its earlier forms in Thomson's patents, 400,515 and 400,516, of April 2nd, 1889.

As bearing on the constant current transformer systems now in such widespread use, especially in arc lighting in cities, reference may be made to the pioneer patent, 515,548, granted to Thomson March 20th, 1894. These constant current transformers were based on the principle of repulsion discovered by Thomson years earlier, and they practically supplanted arc light dynamos. They are now greatly used to supply energy to mercury arc rectifiers where direct current is employed to operate a series of magnetic lamps. They furnish constant current to alternating current arc lamps, and are likely to be used in the future with the series high power incandescent lamps of the nitrogen filled type.

As an important invention which lay fallow for some time may be mentioned Thomson's "electric air drill," the subject of patent 584,730, of February 26th, 1900. The patent is fundamental, and practically covers the form in which electrical energy is now employed for the working of rock drills. In fact, the so-called "electric air drill" is made under this patent.

The oil lampless transformer, as it is commonly employed in the arts to-day, appears in Thomson's patent 420,040 of May 27th, 1890.

It may be interesting to note that the first endeavor to produce high frequency currents by high frequency dynamos was made about 1890, and a machine produced which gave about 4,000 to 5,000 cycles, and which was capable of being driven at still higher frequencies if necessary. This machine was used in the experiments on the effects of high frequency currents on animal bodies by Dr. Thomas Edison in 1891. The machine here shown is of the type of induction system of which



George Westinghouse, whose invention of the air-brake made modern high-speed railway travel possible.

the original machine itself being still used in electric testing. It is described in patent 432,695 of July 22nd, 1890.

An important invention bearing on interpole work, now such a decided factor in the construction of dynamos and motors for continuous currents is shown in patent 456,422, filed in 1886 and issued September 15th, 1891. This dynamo appears to be a pioneer invention in that the separation of the series and shunt coils on the field for securing better commutation and at the same time compounding a machine, are found. The principle has been applied in improved forms since then, and, of course, has given superior results.

Some Work With the Electric Furnace.

The possibilities of the electrical furnace were never before so brilliantly revealed as in this decade. In 1882 Woelher discovered that water acting on calcium carbide would produce acetylene. The next step was to make calcium carbide cheaply. An early attempt with the electric furnace was that of Henri Moissan (1883), who succeeded in making calcium carbide out of marble and sugar carbon. Then came Thomas L. Wilson, to whom the credit is really due of placing the manufacture of calcium carbide upon an industrial basis, which he achieved in 1892 in co-operation with Dickenson.

Paul Héroult constructed the cathode furnace (1887) for uninterrupted operation and thus becomes the founder of the electrometallurgy of aluminum according to the squinting method.

Edward G. Acheson succeeded in 1892 in making silicon carbide in the electric furnace—an abrasive which has been known to the trade as carborundum. He also obtained artificial graphite in the electric furnace.

Power Generation—The Diesel Engine.

The year 1893 marks the publication of Rudolf Diesel's "Theory and Construction of a Rational Heat Motor," in which he set forth the principles of the well-known Diesel engine. Diesel engines were first exhibited in 1896 at the München-Ausstellung für Kleinkraftmaschinen.

In 1897 Gustaf de Laval invented his high-speed steam turbine, in which the potential energy of the high-pressure steam is transformed into kinetic energy in a single stage and imparted to the shaft. In the same year he designed his centrifugal cream separator, which ever since has been widely used in dairies. He seems to have been preceded by Elihu Thomson, who patented the continuous separation of cream from milk by centrifugal force, the first example of a continuously operating centrifugal machine with ducts for the introduction of the new charge, and separate ducts for the exit of the separated constituents. During the life of this patent the centrifugal creamers which were sold in the United States were put out under it, coupled with another of De Laval, but the broad patent was one to which reference has been made, viz., that numbered 529,859.

In 1894 Helmer patented the suction producer-gas plant in which the motor is made to draw its gas from the generator, thus producing a depression in the generator which is filled by air below atmospheric pressure. This air is mixed with steam and forms new gas in passing over the layer of glowing fuel.

The first scheme to run compressed illuminating gas was made by Julius Finkbein in 1891. His system, properly developed, made it possible to illuminate railway lamps with gas.

The Cyanide Process—Artificial Silk.

The American Cyanide Company's cyanide process, which has been of immense importance in gold mining, was patented in 1897 by Robert William Forrest, William Morrison and John A. Smith. These investigators found

that the effect of potassium cyanide depends upon the weakness of the solution. The gold mines of the Transvaal took up the process almost as soon as it was introduced.

The first commercially successful process for making artificial silk was that brought out in 1885 by Chardonnet, who spun nitro-cellulose under pressure through small holes in water, alcohol, chloroform or the like, the threads coagulating at once.

John B. Dunlop, a dentist of Dublin, Ireland, invented the pneumatic tire in 1890, as we know it today. He seems to have been quite unaware of Thomson's pioneer work in the same line (1846).

Artificial Flight—Some Early Experimenters.

Experiments were made in this decade, which cleared away some of the difficulties that confronted inventors interested in aerial navigation. In 1800 Otto Lilienthal of Berlin began his gliding experiments with a motorless aeroplane of his own design. Simultaneously Langley and Maxim began their experiments. Lilienthal was killed in a machine of his own construction in 1891. Langley in 1896 succeeded in making the first small motor-driven aeroplane which ever flew. He continued his experiments until 1903, when a full-sized machine of his failed to mount into the air because of a defect in the launching apparatus. The machine was successfully flown for a short distance in 1914 by Curtis. Hiram Maxim's machine was built in 1894. It was of enormous proportions and had a motor steam engine of 360 horse-power. While it might have flown for a short distance, it came to grief because it tore away the guard rails which were intended to hold it on its track.

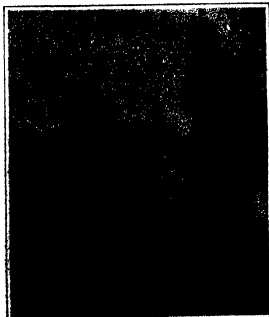
Improving the Phonograph.

Edison's experimental success with his tin-foil phonograph of 1877 proved the starting point of much valuable investigation in sound production by himself and others. In 1886, Dr. Chichester Bell and Charles Sumner Tainter patented their method of recording and reproducing sounds by engraving a wax or wax-like substance, thus producing records that could be removed from the machine, handled and transported. In 1887, Emile Berliner invented the gramophone or disk graphophone and worked out for practical use the system of duplicating disk records, which has been in use ever since.

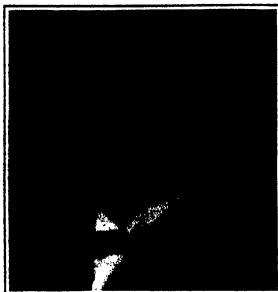
A Record of Achievement in Submarine Invention.

Goult of France built several submarine torpedoes between 1885 and 1890. The novel feature was his propeller, which worked on a universal joint so that it could be changed as to the direction of thrust. It took the place of vertical and horizontal rudders. Prof. Josiah Tusk carried on experiments with his submarine ("Pescemacker") in the Hudson River in 1885, using caustic soda which was introduced into a boiler to generate steam. His boat had a water lock through which a man, clad in a diving suit, could pass. This was the principle that Jules Verne embodied in his imaginary "Nautilus," fondly imagining that the idea was his originally. Several other submarines were built in Europe during this period. The most successful of these was perhaps the "Gymnote" built in France after the designs of Dupuy de Lôme and Gustave Zédé.

In 1890 the United States Navy advertised for bids for the construction of a submarine. J. P. Holland, George C. Baker, and Simon Lake handed in plans. Baker's design was based on the performance of a vessel he had experimented with in 1862. Holland submitted plans for a steam vessel of the diving type with horizontal rudders at the stern for changing the inclination of the vessel, as first used by Fulton. Lake submitted a design for a vessel with an inner and outer hull, the inner space to be utilized for water ballast.



The first successful Maxim machine gun. Beside the gun are Sir Hiram Maxim and the Prince of Wales, later King Edward.



Edward Weston, pioneer inventor of dynamo, arc, and electrical measuring instruments.

This vessel was designed to be operated submerged on a level keel by the use of hydroplanes, bottom wheels were provided to enable the vessel to be navigated on the water bed itself, air locks were called for to enable the crew to escape in case of danger. Holland secured the Government award because of his previous experience. His vessel, the "Plunger," was not a success, due to her enormous steam installation, which made the interior of the boat unbearably hot, and to her lack of stability. Lake's idea of running along the bottom on wheels—an entirely new conception in the art—received its first demonstration in 1894. This craft was the germ from which later emerged his "Argonaut" (1896-1897), the first submarine to be fitted with an internal combustion engine.

1895-1905

This is the decade of the aeroplane and the airship and of wireless telegraphy.

After two years of preliminary study, research and experimenting Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin completed his first great rigid-frame dirigible airship, the pioneer craft of this type. About the same time Santos-Dumont was making sensational flights with airships that could hardly be considered an improvement over those of Tissandier and Renard and Krebs, except that they were driven by modern light gasoline engines which could easily be applied to the dirigible without the exertion of any great inventive ability. Much more important was the work of the Lebaudys, who really created the semi-rigid type. The non-rigid system was developed by von Parseval. The collapsible Parsevals were quickly adopted by the German army and were later improved by Astra-Torres in France.

The Wright Brothers Invent the Flying Machine.

But the decade is much more memorable for the actual realization of a flying machine. Octave Chanute continued Lilienthal's gliding experiments with biplanes and multiplanes, his experiments proving that the truss biplane with some device was necessary to shift the center of air pressure in order to maintain equilibrium. He was the mentor of the Wright Brothers, who began their investigations with similar gliding experiments which culminated in the modern biplane flying machine—a machine driven by a gasoline motor, provided with wing warping devices. For the first time in history, a man having a motor-driven machine flew in 1903 for a distance of 200 meters. In the same decade belong the experiments of Ader; but there is no evidence that his "aviator" did more than to rise from the ground and fall back again.

Marconi and Wireless.

In 1895 Guglielmo Marconi invented the first practical wireless telegraph apparatus. It contained very little of his own, but in this respect it did not differ from many pioneer inventions. Yet, it was invention in the true sense of the word because a new result was produced with well-known apparatus ingeniously combined. In 1901 Marconi for the first time signaled across the Atlantic Ocean. The development of wireless is traced in the article on Communication in this issue.

The work done with the electrical furnace resulted in the establishment of the aluminum industry. Charles M. Hall discovered in 1886 that natural cryolite is a proper flux and solvent for clay, and with a current derived from seven Grove elements and with carbon electrodes he succeeded in producing the first pieces of aluminum. In 1889 Héroult produced aluminum bronze electrolytically by melting alumina and decomposing the molten mass with the electric current.

F. A. Kjellin, Ernesto Sassoano, and Paul Héroult simultaneously and independently discovered about 1890 that if iron is to be reduced from its ore electrically, the iron must not be left too long in the electric arc, as

otherwise it will absorb too much carbon and suffer in quality. F. A. Kjellin, accordingly constructed an electric furnace in which this idea was embodied, and on March 15, 1890, obtained the first good quality of electro-steel free from blowholes. Paul Héroult in the same year built a furnace in LaPras, in which he also produced very pure iron and steel by smelting the ore in a crucible of refractory material in which the carbon electrode did not actually touch the iron.

In 1897 Hans Goldschmidt of Essen invented the well-known thermite process. Thermite, however, was not introduced commercially until 1899. The modern process of automatic welding was introduced in 1905 by Fouché, oxygen and acetylene being used in a specially constructed blowpipe.

An attempt to reduce nitrogen from the air electrically was made in Niagara Falls by Bradley and Lorey in 1900. This experiment, while not commercially successful, at least served to inspire later work. Thus Christian A. Birkeland and Samuel Eyde built their Norwegian plant in 1903, using electric arcs spread out by magnets so as to obtain a great heating surface.

The Development in Electrical Engineering.

There were many other achievements in electrical engineering that deserve mention, but only a few can here be listed. In 1908 appeared the telephone or

into service on the south side elevated railway of Chicago under forfeiture contract. The multiple unit system is the sole dependence of the roads in New York and Boston. Sprague's fundamental and basic patent on this system contains nearly three hundred claims.

In 1902 T. P. Stone's system of electric train lighting was introduced in the United States. In this system the current is delivered by an auxiliary battery to which the car rod lamps are connected. A regulating apparatus of special design renders it possible to supply uniform current, whatever the speed of the train may be. Stone's system was improved in 1903 by Alchale by the use of a new regulating system which eliminates the need of any attention whatever on the part of the train crew.

B. G. Lamme of the Westinghouse Manufacturing Company brought out the high tension motor for single phase alternating current in 1902. The motor was soon introduced on electric railways.

The Swedish engineer, Jaagner, invented the alkaline nickel-iron storage battery, but it remained for Edison (1883) to bring the battery to commercial perfection. Edison made his cell of sheet metal instead of hard rubber and filled the plates with hydraulically pressed briquettes, composed of iron and graphite for the positive plate and nickel and graphite for the negative

furnaces into mechanical energy; the engine itself was patented in 1890, and was a two-cylinder double piston engine. The Korting blast furnace gas engine was brought out in 1895. Ockers of Suring, Belgium, introduced a four-cylinder blast furnace gas engine in 1900. From this the two-cylinder blast furnace gas engine of the Nirsberger Maschinenbau-Aktiengesellschaft was evolved.

In 1904 James A. Galtie brought out his dry blast process for the production of iron and steel. He solved the problem of drying the air by freezing out the water. Although he encountered great difficulties in introducing his process it is now recognized as one of the most important contributions to the steel and iron makers art, effecting as it does remarkable economies.

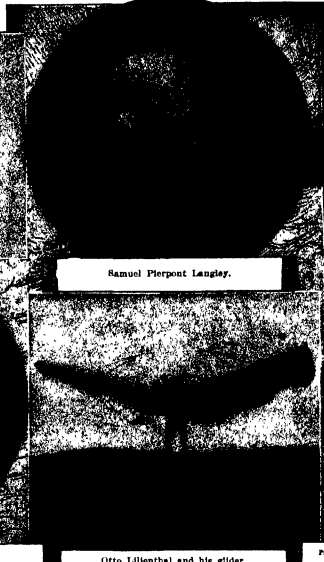
The American iron industry suffered a great change in this decade. The Mesaba ores were being introduced. Since the blast furnaces were far removed from the Lake Superior beds cheap handling was an essential, a consideration met by Brown's bridge cranes, cableways, and trolleys. A radical departure was made in ore handling when G. H. Hulett in 1906 invented the automatic ore unloader bearing his name. It did away with the shovel as the unit of bulk and substituted the grab bucket of ten tons capacity. The entire machine was made to travel along the dock to reach all batches without shifting the boat. This machine re-

The Wright Flyer of 1905-1908



Photo by Hurliger

Orville Wright.



Samuel Pierpont Langley.

One of Langley's successful models

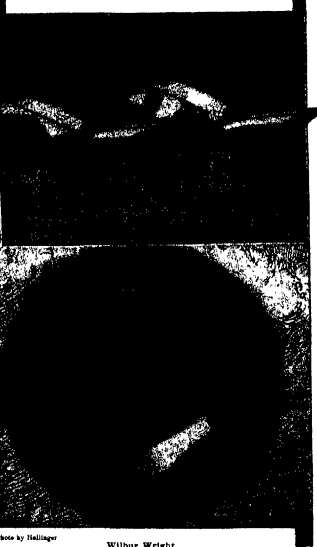


Photo by Hurliger

Wilbur Wright.

Pioneers in artificial flight.

telephonograph, the invention of Poulsen and Pedersen, two Danish electrical engineers. The instrument is a beautiful combination of the telephone and phonograph, sound being magnetically recorded upon steel disks or wires and reproduced by means of telephone apparatus. In 1898 Hermann Theodor Simon of Goettingen studied the superposition of alternating upon direct currents, and invented the singing arc lamp which may be regarded as a kind of radio-phonograph instrument.

The so-called "musical arc" has been variously called the Duddell and the Poulsen singing arc. This was a discovery made by Prof. Balthus Thomson years before the others had entered the field, and it forms the subject of a patent No. 500,030, filed July 18th, 1892, and issued July 4th, 1893. It covered broadly the shunting of an electric discharge apparatus such as an arc by inductance and capacity for producing automatically high frequency waves of a continuous nature. It was, in fact, the first apparatus of the kind which would give that result, the Duddell musical arc being practically the same thing, and the Poulsen arc being a slight modification.

In 1901, Frank J. Sprague, the well-known American electrical engineer, invented his famous multiple unit system of control for electric railways. In this system all cars are provided with two motors, and so connected by Sprague's coupling device that all the motors of the train are switched in and out by a single motor-man at the head of the train. The system was put

plate. He provided outlets for the escape of gases as well as inlets for electrolyte.

Edison worked hard during this decade on the motion picture camera and projector and did much to give us the modern motion picture industry. He brought his magnetic iron ore concentrator to a high state of efficiency. Unable to utilize the plant commercially because of the Mesaba ores which then began to be worked on a cheap scale, he applied part of his apparatus in developing his Portland cement process.

Thermodynamic Developments.

The steam turbine was markedly developed during this period. C. G. Curtis invented in 1890 his multi-stage pressure turbine. A. Rateau in 1898 constructed his multi-stage pressure turbine. Zoelly in 1902 constructed a multi-stage pressure turbine which is essentially similar in principle to that of Rateau. A. Rateau invented the first turbo-compressor in 1900 and a turbo-pump in 1902.

The principle of utilizing internal work in liquefying air as well as the counter-current principle of refrigeration was discovered in 1896 by Karl F. G. Linde. The outgoing air was used to cool off the air still contained within the apparatus so as to produce a cumulative refrigerative effect. He built a refrigerating machine on this principle with which very low temperatures were reached.

In 1898 Ochshäuser of Dessau installed an engine in the Hörde Iron Works for the conversion of blast

duced the cost of handling ore from nineteen cents a ton to less than six cents a ton. While this machine was being developed F. E. Hulett designed and patented an excavating bucket that could be controlled entirely by ropes.

Industrial Chemistry.

In 1897 Karl Engler made exhaustive researches on the decomposition of hydrocarbons when subjected to heat and pressure. Thanks to him much light was shed upon chemical reactions, which take place when oil is cracked. Most cracking processes are based upon the methods disclosed in patents taken out in 1860 by Dewar and Redwood. The Dewar and Redwood process is in turn an outgrowth of the Key high-pressure distillation process of 1847.

The method of hydrogenating soft fats and oils, whereby it is possible to convert vegetable oils into substitutes of lard and some fats into hard fats of greater commercial value was discovered in 1900 by F. Sabatier and J. B. Senderens.

The separation of ores by oils was introduced in 1903 by W. Elmore. The ground ore mixed with the residue of petroleum distillation was placed in rotating cylinders so that oil and pyrites are intimately mixed. The oil is then centrifugally separated.

In 1890 William Draper constructed a loom with automatic shuttle-changing mechanism, the first practical success of its type, and the result of ten years' experiment.

(Continued on page 521.)

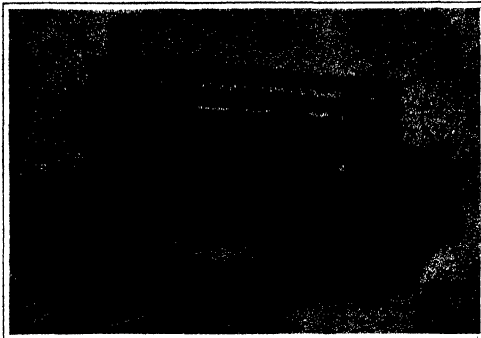
The Rise of the Automobile

From the Snorting Road Locomotive to the Swift Noiseless Car of To-day

It would hardly seem necessary to turn back seventy years to trace the history of the automobile. Surely any full-grown man can recall his first view of a chugging horseless carriage. And yet, in 1845, when the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN was established, the power-driven road vehicle was an old story. Joseph Cugnot of France and his three-wheeled steam carriage that actually ran for a short distance and then upset because it was too top-heavy to take a sharp turn at three miles an hour, was even at that early day a historic event seventy-five years old. It was in 1862 that Richard Trevithick, in England, was ruled off the highways for joy-riding when he ran into a four at the frightful speed of 10 miles per hour and ripped off several pallings.

Of course, the automobile was an old story, for it was the father of the locomotive. The idea of running locomotives on rails was an after-thought. The first of them were run on the common highways, and we owe to those early machines the development of many of the essentials of the modern motor vehicle. The use of stub steering axles in place of the fifth wheel dates back to 1819. A transmission gear with two speeds appeared on a steam carriage in 1821 and the same car was fitted with a condenser similar to the early type of radiators on gasoline automobiles. In 1825 a 10 horse-power engine was developed, using a flash boiler. A power-driven fan—not for cooling the engine, of course, but for furnishing the furnace with forced draught—appeared in the early thirties and at about this time the clutch was developed. The differential was used in 1840, although it had been known as a mechanical movement for many years prior to that time, and finally, in 1845, came the invention of the pneumatic tire. This was a canvas rubber inner tube incased in a leather shoe or outer tube.

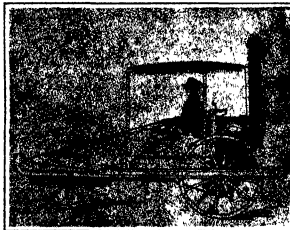
Thus we see that when the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN came into being the automobile, as a pleasure vehicle, had had a very thorough trying out, but it had been found wanting, and, by the public at large, had been relegated to a place in the vast museum of impractical inventions. Indeed, England had already begun its oppression of the motor vehicle by burdening it with excessive tolls and restrictions, that grew increasingly onerous, until, eventually, it was practically barred from the highways by an act forbidding a speed of more than four miles per hour and requiring that each power-driven vehicle be preceded by a man waving a red flag. Not until 1860 was this foolish law repealed, and it was responsible for the paucity of British contributions to the development of the automobile in the earlier days of its present era. However, in marked contrast to the spirit of the times, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN took a keen interest in power-driven vehicles and tried to encourage and promote them. We find even in one of its earliest numbers—that of October 2nd, 1845—a front page illustration and description of a steam carriage for common



Richard Dudgeon's steam road car, built in 1860.

The original machine, of which this is a duplicate, was constructed in 1855

roads which was steered with a pair of reins. Undoubtedly the most important contribution to the motor vehicle during the early history of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN was that of Richard Dudgeon. In 1855 he and two other engineers were discussing the feasibility of driving a road vehicle with power, and made a compact that each one of them would undertake the task. The other two inventors failed to produce anything of



A steam vehicle steered with reins.

From the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of October 2nd, 1845

value, but Richard Dudgeon's machine was a success. It made frequent trips about the country at high speed. Forty miles an hour is the record it hung up, and frequently it made speeds of 35 miles per hour. Unfortunately, it was destroyed while on exhibition, in the Crystal Palace fire of 1856. A second machine was built by Dudgeon in 1860. Both of these machines were virtually locomotives adapted for road travel. A power vehicle of much more modern appearance was developed

by the House brothers in 1860, and it attained a speed of 70 miles per hour. About this time the steam fire engine made its appearance, and steam began to be used more and more for traction purposes.

In England during the same period, the steam vehicle was used for commercial transportation purposes. Steam stages came to be quite common. In 1861 the famous "fly by night" was produced and it used to thunder through the villages after dark at speeds of 10 and 15 miles per hour. So frequently was the owner of the car arrested for disturbing the neighborhood that eventually he and his crew had to put on firemen's helmets and coats and equip their machines with fire hoses and buckets so that they could fool the constables into thinking that they had a legitimate reason for driving out at all hours of the night.

All this time the automobile was merely waiting for the proper type of engine to make it a popular success. One of the earliest uses of

steam produced with gasoline fuel was that of R. E. Olds, who in 1857 built a buggy that was driven by a steam engine. However, the steam boiler was of the tubular type. It was in 1859 that Serpollet in France revived the flash boiler principle and gave the steam carriage a fresh impetus that has lasted to the present day. At first even he used coal fuel but later he changed this to kerosene, and eventually gasoline was the accepted fuel. So successful did this type of boiler prove that it made steam a very close competitor of gasoline for many years. The earliest American steam machine of the present era was that built by the Stanley brothers in 1897. This machine is still being manufactured despite the fact that others who started out with the steam drive have given it up for the internal combustion engine.

The history of the gas vehicle properly starts with 1860, when Lenoir in France patented a vehicle driven by an explosive engine. In this country the first man was George B. Selden, who began experimenting with power-driven vehicles in 1874. Realizing that the steam engine was entirely too heavy for his purpose, he endeavored to produce a gas engine. At first he generated gas by burning liquid fuel, and tried to utilize this gas in the cylinder of the engine just as steam is used. But he soon found that this was not practical and finally decided that the combustion of the gases should take place in the cylinder itself. About this time he came across the work of Hovion, who was building internal combustion engines for boats. Brayton's work covers the years from 1870 to 1885, and he did much pioneer labor on a type of engine that is now obsolete. Brayton's idea was to compress the gas and ignite it as a jet in the cylinder. Having built a model and having satisfied himself that he was on the right track, Selden applied for a patent in 1879. But although Selden was undoubtedly the first man in this country to invent a gasoline automobile, he was not a pioneer, for he did

The Stanley brothers in their first car. The first American gas vehicle.

The first successful American gasoline car; built by Duryea in 1893-1895.

Charles Duryea in his famous machine that won important races here and abroad in 1895 and 1896.

not show the way to others. Instead, he kept his patent pending in the Patent Office by various means for sixteen years. Not until 1885 was the patent issued and the public apprised of the early work of George Selden, by which time the automobile had been well established and was being manufactured here and abroad. The patent added nothing to the knowledge that other investigators had acquired by the labor of their own hands. Instead of a public benefit it proved a public loss. It served merely as a pretext for exacting tribute from automobile manufacturers.

In 1905, ten years after the issue of the patent and a quarter of a century after its inception, was the first and only Selden car built, and then its only purpose was to prove the validity of the patent. Finally, in 1911, when the patent had but a few more months to run, the decision was rendered that the modern car is not an infringement of the Selden patent, because it does not use the Brayton type of engine, but that of Otto. The latter dates back to 1878, and hence was known at the time that Selden filed his application.

About the time that Selden was making his early experiments, Siegfried Markus in Austria built a gasoline-propelled vehicle which took place in Germany. At first progress was slow, but inside of ten years the motor-propelled vehicle had proved itself of sufficient popular interest to cause the *Pitt Journal* to offer a prize for an automobile race from Paris to Rome. This was in 1884, and it proved a great success. The next year another race was held between Paris and Bordeaux, in which there were sixty-six entrants.

In the meantime America was not standing still. Indeed, in the earliest days of the present era of automobilism this country was very properly represented. Despite the prior invention of Selden, we may point to Charles E. Duryea as the father of the American automobile.

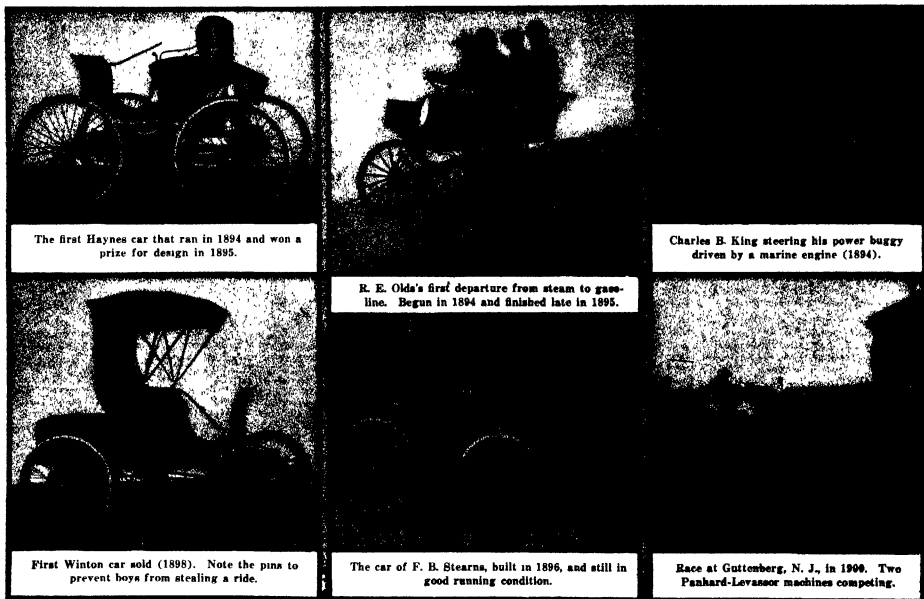
He started out at first with the idea of building a flying machine. It was in 1880, at the Columbus (Ohio) State Fair, that he came across a gas engine. It used gasoline for fuel and had electric ignition, using twelve wet cells. Mr. Duryea tells us it weighed a ton at least and was as big as a dinner table, while the gas tank, which was the equivalent of the carburetor, was as big as a wash tub. Beautiful as this machine looked to Mr. Duryea, it was evidently not adapted for

flying, but it occurred to him that it would make a good horse, and so he decided to build a motor-propelled road vehicle. Realizing that the public was hardly ready for such a machine, he did not actually start work until several years later. It was in the fall of 1893 that he began the construction on his first motor carriage. The following spring it was completed and actually ran. This encouraged the building of a second and a third machine. The last was a big success. Although Lenoir in 1862 used a jump spark, all the other foreign machines up to 1885, and some as late as 1900, used the hot tube ignition. Charles Duryea, with his brother, Frank Duryea, however, used spark ignition, and they developed the spray carburetor in the very first machine, while the foreign machines for five or ten years longer used a surface or bubbling device. Even the blue motor was used by Duryea in 1904 and the throttle control was developed in 1895-1896. But we must drop this pioneer for the time being and consider several others.

Elwood Haynes started work upon a power-driven machine in 1883. He used a two-cycle marine-type gasoline engine that weighed 180 pounds and gave only one brake horsepower. When the machine arrived it was set up in Mr. Haynes's kitchen and put to a test. It operated with such speed and vibration as to pull itself from its attachment to the floor. This showed

was not building cars as rapidly then as he is now. Not until 1890 was that machine completed. In the same year Frank R. Stearns completed his first automobile and also built two others, which were sold.

America in the early days was no more ready to the horseless carriage than it has been to the flying machine. For the first ten years only two patrons of the automobile appeared. Inspired by the successful races abroad, and endeavoring to stimulate interest here, the *Chicago Times-Herald* offered prizes amounting to \$5,000 for a 62-mile race to be held in and about Chicago on the Fourth of July, 1895. This generous offer was enough to take the breath away from American inventors. They were totally unprepared for it, and time and time again the race had to be postponed because, although on paper there were enough entrants, not enough machines materialized to make it a real race. Not until November 2nd was a contest held, and this was merely a consolation race, because there were but two competitors, namely, one Duryea machine and an imported Benz car. Unfortunately the Duryea machine, although leading, was purposely ditched, to avoid collision with a farm wagon that made a false turn on the course, and the German car struggled on alone to the finish. Finally, Thanksgiving Day was set for the real race, and five cars participated. Of these, two were Benz cars and one a Roger from France, while



Web Daimler, who, in 1884, patented a road vehicle driven by a high-speed internal combustion engine of four-cycle type. A year later Karl Benz, also of Germany, produced a vehicle driven by an internal combustion engine. These, the first steps in the development of the modern automobile, took place in Germany. At first progress was slow, but inside of ten years the motor-propelled vehicle had proved itself of sufficient popular interest to cause the *Pitt Journal* to offer a prize for an automobile race from Paris to Rome. This was in 1884, and it proved a great success. The next year another race was held between Paris and Bordeaux, in which there were sixty-six entrants.

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Mr. Haynes that he would have to build a vehicle of much heavier construction than he had at first contemplated. It was not until July 4th, 1894, that the machine was ready for test. Then, because of the crowds that gathered around the curious vehicle, it had to be hauled three miles into the country behind a horse and carriage. But it came back under its own power at the goodly speed of 7 miles an hour.

Another pioneer who began in 1883 is Alexander Winton, but his first product was a motor bicycle. It was not until 1885 that the first Winton gasoline machine was completed, and it was a curious looking car, being designed for four passengers, the two seats being placed back to back. This machine made many successful runs in Cleveland during that year. In the meantime, R. E. Olds was not idle. As previously stated, he built his first machine in 1887. This, however, was a three-wheeled steam machine, although gasoline was used for fuel. A four-wheeled steamer was built after that. Finally, in 1894, he started the construction of a gasoline vehicle.

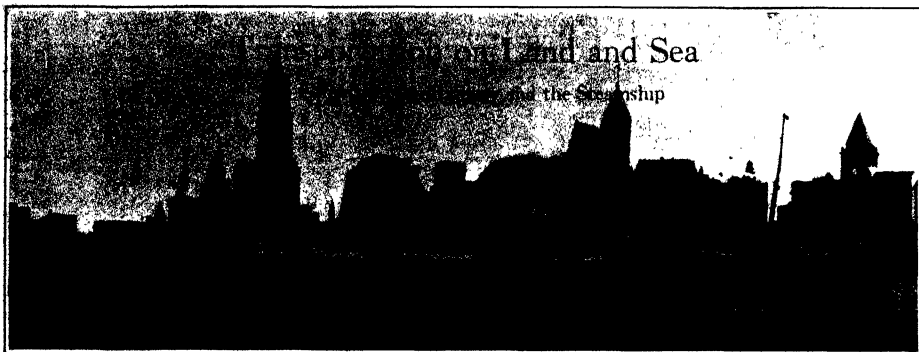
In the same year two other pioneers appeared. Charles B. King, a manufacturer of marine gasoline engines, placed one of his engines in his buggy and gave his horse a holiday while he chugged about Detroit in his motorcar. Henry Ford, who built a steam vehicle in 1862, started a gasoline machine in 1904. But he

America was represented by a Duryea and a Stange's electric car. The course was a most difficult one because a snowstorm had covered the ground with twelve inches of snow. One of the entrants was the Haynes car, which won a prize for the best design of motor, but did not actually engage in the race because of an accident due to skidding on the ice just before the start. Only two of the contestants finished this race, and they were the ones that had engaged in the consolation race a few weeks before. This time, however, the Duryea car won easily, leaving the Benz far in the rear.

The second big race was held the following year on Decoration Day. The prizes, amounting to \$5,000, were offered by Mr. John Brinson Walker of the *Cosmopolitan Magazine*. The course was from City Hall, New York, to Irvington-on-the-Hudson and return. Four Duryeas were entered in this race and they won every prize.

It was in the fall of 1890 that the English Parliament repealed the restrictions to motor traffic on British highways, and the same day, November 14th, a race was held in celebration of this event, between London and Brighton, a distance of 62 miles. There were entrants from all countries, France and Germany being well represented. It was naturally expected that the winners of the Paris-Bordeaux contest would greatly

(Continued on page 523.)



The nine hundred and nine foot "Imperator" steaming up the Hudson River.

Development of the Transatlantic Steamship.

ON July 4th, in the year 1940, a little wooden side-wheel steamer cast loose from her dock at Liverpool, and fourteen days and eight hours later steamed into Boston harbor amid the acclamations of the assembled citizens and every manifestation of civic pride and rejoicing. The little craft was the "Britannia," the first of the sleek-famous Cunard Line, and the first steamer to sail under regular government contract for the conveyance of the transatlantic mail. In the accompanying diagram, showing the growth of the transatlantic steamship during the seventy years covered by the life of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, we commence with the "Britannia" for the reason that, although she was not by any means the first steamship to cross the Atlantic, she was the first to do so on a regular schedule.

The "Britannia" was a wooden side-wheel steamer 215 feet long, 34 feet 4 inches in beam, and of 1,731 tone displacement. Her engines, of 740 horse-power, gave her an average sea speed of 8.5 knots. She was one of four sister steamships built under a contract with the British government, by which the company was to provide four steamers and dispatch one of them from Liverpool for Halifax and Boston, on the 4th and 19th of every month from March to October, and on the 4th of each of the four winter months. At the date of the birth of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, therefore, these ships were representative of the Atlantic steamship of that day; and the illustration which we give of the "Aquitania" of 1914, carrying all four of these little craft on her boat deck, of which she would be quite capable of doing, may be taken as an excellent epitome of the past seventy years of development. The "Aquitania" is 601 feet long by 97 feet broad and is 92 feet deep from keel to topmost deck. Her displacement is something over 30,000 tons, and with 80,000 horse-power she has made a speed of 23.5 knots.

Mention should be made of the fact that in the first decade covered by the present review, that great engineer, Brunel, built the first iron steamship, also named "Britannia," in which he anticipated many of the improvements which were to come in later years. Brunel's "Britannia" had a single boiler and two engines

and longitudinal bulkheads. She was the first ship to employ the screw propeller, and in other details in addition to these she was pre-eminently the pioneer of the modern ocean liner.

The first American steamer to be built for the Atlantic trade was the "United States," constructed in New York by William H. Webb for the Black Ball Line of packet ships. She made her first voyage to Liverpool

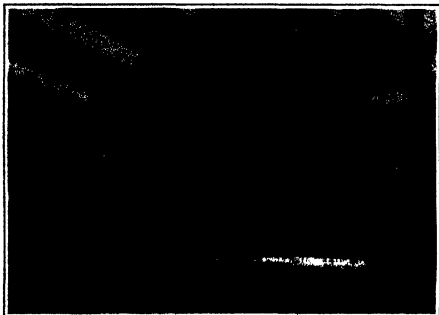
in 1847 and it lasted thirteen days. She was a wooden ship of 2,000 tons burden, 256 feet long by 50 feet beam. In 1850 the United States entered the list against the Cunard Company by putting in service four boats of the Collins Line, vessels which in size, speed, luxurious accommodations and general excellence of finish were in advance of anything afloat at that time. The "Pacific" of this line was the first ship to make the

passage from New York to Liverpool in less than ten days, which she did during a passage in May, 1861, bringing the time down to nine days, twenty hours, sixteen minutes. In February of the next year the "Arctic" crossed in nine days, seventeen hours, twelve minutes. The same company in 1855 launched the "Adriatic," a vessel of 4,144 tons.

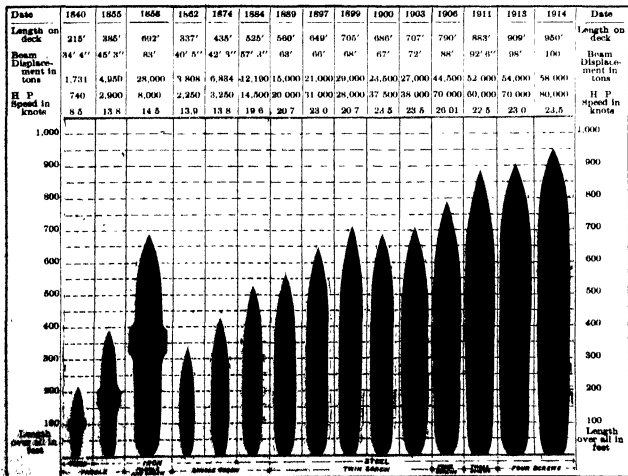
To meet the successful competition of the Collins Line, the Cunard Company in 1852 launched the "Persia," of 3,870 tons and about 14 knots speed. She was a paddle steamer and was built throughout of iron.

We have introduced into our diagram a phenomenal vessel which, strictly speaking, should not have any place in the history of the development of the transatlantic mail steamer, for the reason that she was never run on any regular schedule under government contract. We refer to the "Great Eastern," and she is shown in order to emphasize the fact that she was fifty years ahead of her time and, in fact, anticipated in point of size such vessels as the modern "Ossian" and "Kaiser Wilhelm II."

The "Great Eastern" was a splendidly built ship, and cost no less than \$12,000,000, an enormous sum in those days. She was 692 feet long on deck, 118 feet broad over the paddle boxes, and she displaced 28,000 tons on her ordinary draft, although on a draft of 39 feet she would displace 32,160 tons. She was driven both by paddle wheels and by a screw propeller. Her maiden trip was made from Liverpool to New York in 1860. Her highest speed during the trip was 14½ knots an hour and the longest day's run 333 miles. The ship was the safest passenger vessel ever built, including even those of the present day. She had a complete double hull, extending to 10 feet above the waterline, where she carried a water-tight deck, and she was divided longitudinally and



The rotor of one of the low-pressure turbines of the "Imperator." Diameter, 18 feet.



Growth of the transatlantic steamship from 1845 to 1915.

transversely by bulkheads which gave her a total of fifty compartments that were watertight. She was many years ahead of the development of passenger and freight traffic, and could never secure sufficient of these to render her a paying investment. She proved invaluable, however, by successfully laying the first Atlantic cable in 1858, and she laid two others in 1873 and 1874. Finally in 1888, she was sold and broken up at Liverpool.

For several years the Inman, now the American Line, had been using the screw propeller, and in 1862 the Cunard Company launched the screw-propelled "China," a vessel 337 feet long, whose average transatlantic speed was 13.9 knots.

About this time the compound engine, with its higher steam pressure and superior economy, began to make its appearance, and simultaneously came in that era of long and narrow ships which was destined to play such an important part in the history of the steamship. The "Bohnia," 1874, was a compound, single-screw vessel, which was typical of the ships of that day. With a length of 435 feet, her beam was only 42 feet 3 inches—a ratio of length to beam of over one to ten. Her speed was about the same as that of the "China."

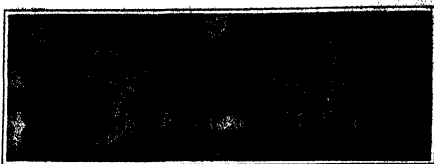
Within the next ten years there was a steady increase in dimensions, and in 1884 there appeared in service the "Imlaria" and "Etruria," the crack ships of their day, 525 feet in length and displacing 12,190 tons. They were single-screw vessels, and their engines, the largest single-screw engines ever put into a steamship, indicated 14,500 horse-power. The "Etruria" maintained a speed of 19.6 knots for the whole trip across the Atlantic and she was the first transatlantic steamship to make the passage in less than six days.

The credit for producing the first twin-screw transatlantic steamers, the "City of Paris" and the "City of New York," is due to the Inman and International Line. These remarkably fine vessels, which are still in service, are 580 feet in length, 93 feet in beam, and they displace 15,000 tons. The "City of Paris" made the transatlantic passage at an average speed of 20.7 knots. The two vessels introduced many excellent features, one being their great beam in proportion to their length, and another the remarkably handsome dining saloon, placed forward of the engines, a disposition now universally followed.

In 1893 the Cunard Company took the leading position with two steamships which were the first to exceed 600 feet in length, the "Laconia" and "Aquilana." They were designed to be considerably the fastest vessels afloat, and to this end engines of 30,000 horse-power were provided. The "Laconia" was the first ship to cross the Atlantic at a speed of over 22 knots.

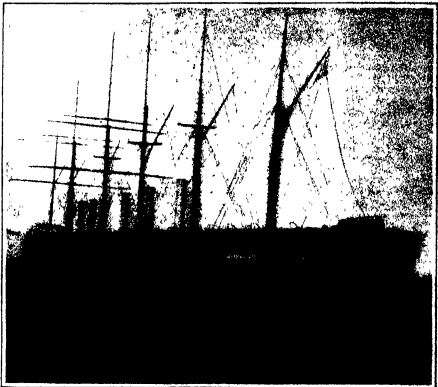
The North German Lloyd Company made a notable entry into the competition for the blue ribbon of the Atlantic by setting afloat in 1897 the "Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse," 649 feet long, and of 20,000 tons displacement. She was a very handsome ship, and she was the first transatlantic liner to have four smokestacks.

In 1899 the White Star Company, whose vessels have always been justly famous for comfort and regularity, determined to



Dining-room and saloon of a steamer fifty years ago.

The first transatlantic liner of the North German Lloyd—or rather of its predecessor, the German & S. Navigation Company—was the "Washington," considered in its day a marine wonder. The cabins were entered from a central hall, about ten feet wide. This hall took the place of the dining-room and saloon of to-day. At meal time a table, running the length of the hall, was placed in position and about it the down first-class passengers partook of their repast. Upon its completion the table was folded up and then the "dining room" again became the "saloon." The records show that on her initial trip the "Washington" carried one first cabin and ninety-three storage passengers.



Photograph showing the "Great Eastern" at the foot of Canal Street, North River, New York, in 1860.

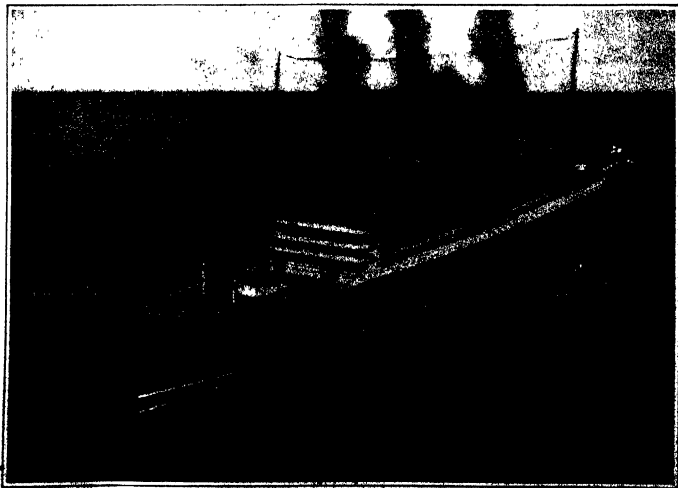
build a first-class liner which should greatly exceed in size anything that had yet been constructed, and the result was the "Great Eastern," the first vessel to exceed in length the "Great Eastern." The "Great Eastern" was 702 feet long, 68 feet beam, and normally she displaced 28,000 tons. Her best speed was 20.7 knots.

The Hamburg-American Line signaled its entrance into the contest for the blue ribbon of the seas by

taking place when the White Star Company built the "Olympic" and "Titanic." These vessels are 683 feet long, 92 feet 6 inches beam, and displace about 52,000 tons. The engine-room equipment is interesting, because of the fact that the steam is utilized first in two quadruple-expansion reciprocating engines of 38,000 horse-power, placed in the wings of the vessels, and from them exhausts to a large low-pressure turbine,

driving a center shaft, which develops a shaft horse-power of 23,000. The great size of the "Olympic" made it possible to provide even more spacious accommodations than on the "Laconia," and it was claimed for the "Laconia" that the cubic space devoted to each passenger in the first-class accommodations was 50 per cent greater than that on any previous ship.

To the Hamburg-American line belongs the credit for building the first ship over 900 feet in length. The "Moltke," which was launched in 1902, is 900 feet in length, 90 feet beam, and a displacement of 30,000 tons.



The Cunard liner "Aquilana" of 1914 could carry the whole Cunard fleet of 1899 on her best deck.

setting afloat in 1909 the ship "Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse," 649 feet long, and of 20,000 tons displacement. This vessel was equipped with twin screws, six-cylinder, quadruple-expansion engines, which on a voyage in which the "Deutschland" averaged 23.5 knots, gave a maximum indication of 37,000 horse-power. The North German Lloyd Company replied by building the "Kaiser Wilhelm II," a much larger vessel, 707 feet long and of 27,000 tons displacement, which with a maximum indication of 40,000 horse-power, also crossed the Atlantic at an average speed of 23.8 knots.

The very fine ships of the German company reached the high water mark of the development of the reciprocating marine engine, although in point of output the reciprocating engines of the "Olympic" in later years have equalled those of the "Deutschland" and "Kaiser Wilhelm II."

With the appearance in 1907 of the "Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse," the blue ribbon of the Atlantic was captured by a German company, and it remained in their possession for a decade. In 1906, however, the Cunard Company, with the assistance of the British government, who loaned \$15,000,000 at 3½ per cent interest for the purpose, set about the first high-speed transatlantic liner to be propelled by the steam turbine. These ships were the "Lusitania" and "Mauretania," 780 feet in length, 44,500 tons deep-draft displacement, whose turbines of 70,000 horse-power, operating four propellers, have driven both of these ships across the Atlantic at an average speed of slightly over 23 knots per hour. That speed has not since been approached, nor is it likely to be exceeded for many years to come. The shipowners claim that, were it not for the government assistance and the subsidy of \$750,000 per year for carrying the mails, these ships, because of their enormous coal expenditure, could not be made a paying investment. This seems to be proved by the fact that all large and fast transatlantic liners built since the advent of the fast Cunarders, are of more moderate speed and if we take into consideration their great size, of more reasonable coal consumption.

The next great advance in dimensions was made when the White Star Company built the "Olympic" and "Titanic." These vessels are 683 feet long, 92 feet 6 inches beam, and displace about 52,000 tons. The engine-room equipment is interesting, because of the fact that the steam is utilized first in two quadruple-expansion reciprocating engines of 38,000 horse-power, placed in the wings of the vessels, and from them exhausts to a large low-pressure turbine,

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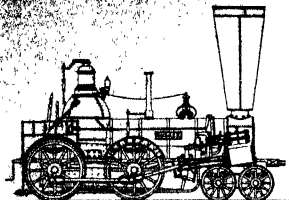


Fig. 1.—Engine with variable cut-off motion. 1848.

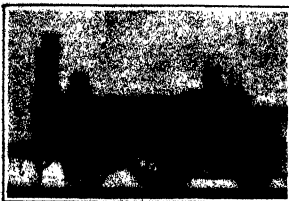


Fig. 2.—Beattie's smoke-consuming engine with feed water heater. 1866.

tons. Her quadruple turbine equipment, with 60,000 shaft horse-power, has driven her at a speed of 22.5 knots. The following year the same company dispatched to New York a sister ship of larger size and greater speed, the "Vaterland." This enormous vessel is 960 feet long, 160 feet in beam, displaces 56,000 tons, and her turbines of 75,000 horse-power, give her a transatlantic speed of 23.5 knots. The same year the Cunard Company put in service the "Aquitania," 901 feet in length, with a beam of 97 feet, displacing a little over 50,000 tons. Her model is finer than that of the "Imperator," and with 60,000 horse-power developed by her turbines she has made a speed of 23.5 knots.

The growth in size and comfort of the transatlantic steamship has been accompanied by an equally steady improvement in the motive power. The decade 1845 to 1856 witnessed the substitution of iron for wood, and during that period the approximate boiler pressure rose from 10 to 20 pounds per square inch, the approximate consumption of coal per horse-power per hour dropped from 4.5 to 3.5 pounds. From 1855 to 1865 the screw propeller took the place of the paddle wheel, the boiler pressure rose from 20 to 35 pounds, and the fuel consumption was reduced from 3.5 to 3 pounds. In the following decade, 1865 to 1875, the compound took the place of the simple engine and boiler pressure rose from 35 to 60 pounds, the coal consumption dropping from 3 pounds to about 2.5 pounds per horse-power per hour. In the decade 1875 to 1885, steel took the place of iron and the triple-expansion engine was introduced, the boiler pressure rose from 60 pounds to 125 pounds and the fuel consumption dropped from 2.5 pounds to 2 pounds. In the next decade, 1885 to 1905, twin-screw propulsion was introduced, as was also quadruple expansion and the use of forced draft. Steam pressure rose from 125 to 200 pounds per square inch, and the coal consumption dropped from 2 to 1.5 pounds. In the decade 1895 to 1906 there was introduced experi-

mentally the steam turbine. The work done by this type of engine in smaller vessels for cross-channel service and in one or two large ocean steamers paved the way for the introduction of the turbine during the next decade in the largest ships. A coal consumption of 1.3 pounds was reached by the large quadruple, six-cylinder engines which were the prevailing type in the fast transatlantic steamships, and the steam pressure was carried up to an high as 225 pounds. The decade of 1906 to 1915 witnessed the passing of the reciprocating engine and the substitution of the steam turbine. Although at first high boiler pressures were maintained, latterly it was found that lower pressures gave better results, and from 180 to 175 pounds is used on some important turbine-driven ships. The coal consumption dropped somewhat, but not as much as had been predicted, the best results showing a consumption of about 1.2 pounds per horse-power per hour.

The Development of the Steam Railroad.

Somebody has recently defined the present war in Europe as an engineers' war. It certainly is; and this for the reason that the age we live in is essentially, first and last, an engineers' age. Eliminate the work of the civil and mechanical engineer from the past seventy years, thoughtful reader, and you will realize at once that you have eliminated 90 per cent of those comforts, conveniences and broad practical achievements that make the present the wonderful age which it is.

If we were asked to name the one field of his activity

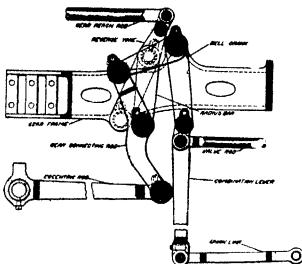


Fig. 5.—The Baker valve motion.

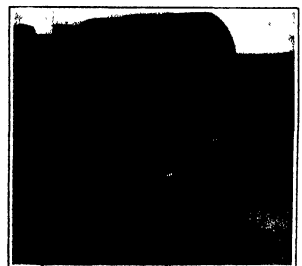


Fig. 6.—Street's mechanical stoker. 1915.

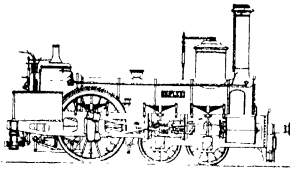


Fig. 2.—Haaswell's four-cylinder engine. 1861.

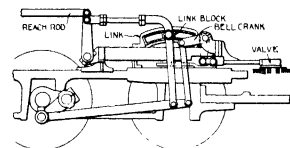


Fig. 4.—The Southern valve gear.

ties in which more than any other the engineer has rendered possible the present material advancement of mankind, we should be tempted to name that of transportation. There is a broad sense in which we may say that the struggle of man up to an ever higher civilization is a fight against physical inertia—the inherent tendency of things to remain what they are and stay where they are.

Transportation, then, as represented by the railroad and the steamship, lies at the very foundation of those marvelous developments of manufacture and commerce with their resultant comforts and conveniences, which during the seventy years covered by the life of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, have been so great as to more than equal all previous advancement in the practical arts throughout the history of mankind. Thus, in the case of the great steel industry, Nature had provided vast stores of coal in one part of the North American continent, equally abundant stores of iron ore in another district, and elsewhere the necessary limestone. But without the transportation facilities afforded by the steamers of the Great Lakes and the steam railroad, we would possess today no great center of the steel industry, such as exists at Pittsburgh, nor any means of distributing the various products of its steel mills swiftly and economically throughout the whole world. Again had the railroad and the steamship never been developed, it is safe to say that the greater portion of the wheat lands of the country would be still wild prairie, its forests would be uncut, its wealth of minerals scarcely touched, and the health of nature would still weigh heavily upon the land. The American railroad is as distinctly American as is our agricultural machinery. The early development of European railroads took place under exceptionally favorable conditions, for the population was dense and capital for construction work was plentiful. In Europe the population preceded the railroad, but in America it followed the railroad. In fact it would be not stretching the point too far to say that throughout the greater part of the United States the railroad has been the pioneer of civilization.

Because of these conditions, it was possible to build the early European railroads upon a scale of solidity and excellence which was impossible in the United

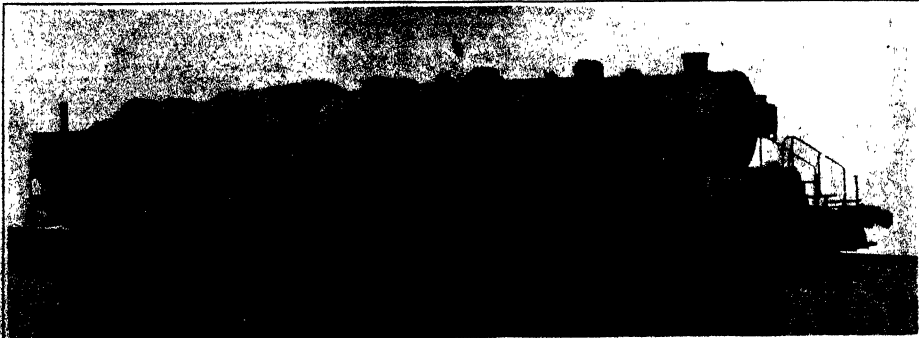


Fig. 7.—The Erie "pusher," largest locomotive in the world.

States at the same date. One of the most creditable features of our early railroads was the ingenuity shown by our engineers in building the roads to suit at once the topography of the country and the limited capital which was available for construction. In laying out the lines the locating engineer endeavored to reduce the amount of cutting and embankment to a minimum, and hence he did not hesitate, at the expense of greater distance and sharp curvature, to run his line around a hill in preference to tunneling through it. Steel suitable for bridge-work was scarce and costly; but the forests of America provided unlimited stores of fine structural timber. In place of building a costly steel viaduct or solid embankment across a ravine or narrow and steep-sided valley, the American engineer erected timber trestles, and did not hesitate to span broad rivers with trussed bridges of timber of a length which had never been approached in the history of wooden bridges.

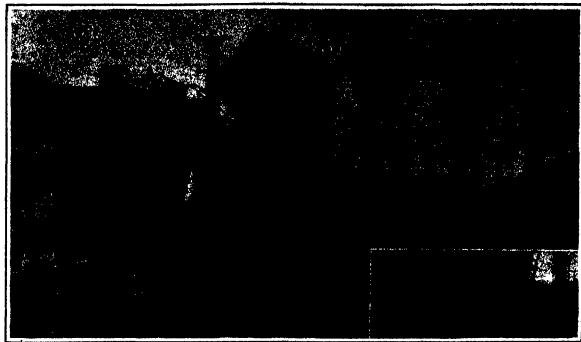
The railroad and track of 1845 were of simple and cheap construction. The rails weighed from 40 to 50 pounds per yard, the ties were small, and more often than not they were laid directly upon the graded ground without the interposition of gravel or broken stone ballast. But as the population increased and manufacture and commerce multiplied and diversified became more plentiful, there was a contemporaneous improvement in the roadbeds and the rolling stock. With the Bessemer process there came the steel rail—harder, stiffer, and more durable. Steel also took the place of timber in bridge construction; and as funds became available the engineers were sent out over the line to re-locate them, reducing the heavy grades, easing up the curvature, eliminating trestle work in favor of solid embankments thus bringing the roadbed and track up to the level of modern practice. Some of our great systems, such as the Pennsylvania and the Union Pacific, in the last decade and a half have spent from forty to sixty millions of dollars in the mere improvement of the roadbeds, this big outlay being based upon the now well-understood fact that the easier the curvature and the lighter the grade, the larger is the paying train load that can be hauled per locomotive and per a given size of train crew.

In pursuance of this policy, as soon as it was demonstrated that the saving in fuel and maintenance and the economies in the wages of train crews would exceed the fixed charges on the outlay necessary for the improvement of the roadbed and track, the work of reconstruction has been put in hand. Consequently, where the traffic is sufficiently heavy to guarantee the change, our railroads have been brought fully up to that of the best European practice.

It may come as a surprise to some of the readers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN to learn that practically the whole of our vast railroad system, now totaling 253,000 miles, has been built during the life of this Journal. Thus, in the year 1845 there was in the whole United States only 4,833 miles of road, which was made up of a small number of disconnected lines to be found in the Atlantic and Southern States, and a few fragmentary systems located in the Middle States. That year the eastern railroads were commencing to creep across the Alleghenies into the Mississippi Valley, but as yet there was no indication pointing to the development of a through trunk line.

Tracing the development of the railroad by decades, we find that from 1845 to 1855 the total length of all railroads grew from 4,833 miles to 18,774 miles. By

1865 the total had reached 35,085 miles, and ten years later it was 74,000 miles. In 1885 it had risen to 128,320 miles and the lapse of another decade brought it up to 180,857 miles. At the opening of the twentieth century the 200,000-mile mark had been passed, and in 1905 the total length of all railroads was 218,101 miles. In 1913 the most reliable statistics credit the country with a total of 246,802 miles, and the latest figures available, those for 1914, show that our railroad system has reached the stupendous total of 253,000 miles.



Electric passenger and freight trains on the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad.

A notable event, and surely the most epoch-making, was the completion on May 10th, 1869, of the first trans-continental road across America, the Union Pacific.

The distinctive American passenger car, with its long body carried upon end-swiveling trucks, was patented to Hose Wiggins in 1834, and by the year 1845 it was well established as the typical American car. The passenger car in those days was from 9 to 10 feet wide, 45 to 50 feet long, and it carried about sixty passengers. It was lighted by oil lamps and warmed in winter by a wood-burning stove, both of these being frequent causes of fatal fires when the all-too-frequent collisions occurred. The improvements in car construction of the past seventy years have been in the direction of comfort, strength and safety. First, there came the abolition of the oil lamp and the introduction of kerosene, the dangerous wood or coal stove was abolished and the trains were heated by steam taken from the engine. Finally, during the past two decades, there has been a gradual substitution of steel for wood as the material of construction, a change which has contributed greatly to the lowering of the death rate in collisions and other train accidents.

The great distances between important cities and the ever-increasing length of railway journeys led to the introduction of the sleeping car, and in 1861 Pullman brought out his first sleeper, which was known as the "Pioneer." Shortly thereafter the Pullman Company was

organized and, mainly due to its efforts, the sleeping car has been brought up to its present standard of strength and comfort.

Of all the improvements in railroads designed to expedite travel and promote the safety of both passengers and freight, by far the most important are the automatic air brake and the block signal system. Limitations of space do not admit of more than a passing reference to these. The continuous automatic airbrake, named after its designer, George Westinghouse, Jr., was

first put into practical service on a trunk line railroad in 1868 to 1869. By means of this system of control, the engineer in his cab, by means of a lever, can instantly set the brakes in every car throughout the train and on his own engine, moreover, should the train break in two, the brakes will automatically set themselves. The simplicity of operation, the enormous power of this brake, and the certainty with which it operates render it one of the most successful inventions of any age. In the Burlington brake trials held in 1886 to 1887, a train of fifty freight cars, running at 40 miles an hour, was stopped in a distance measuring a third of its own length. The improvements in the airbrake during the past twenty-five years are shown by the following comparisons:

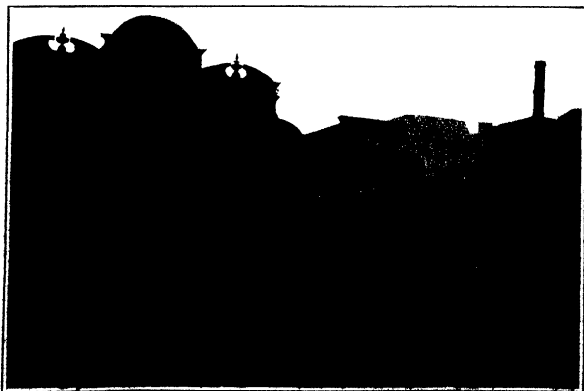
A train in 1860, weighing 280 tons and going 60 miles an hour, even if it were equipped with the best airbrake of that day, could not be stopped in less than 1,000 feet. A train in 1915, weighing 920 tons and going 60 miles an hour, has an energy in foot-tons nearly four times as great as that which had to be dissipated in stopping the train of 1860. With the 1860 brakes the 1915 train could have been stopped in perhaps 1,750 feet, but that same 1915 train, with the improved electro-pneumatic Westinghouse airbrake, can be stopped in 880 feet.

The block signal system, the greatest of all preventers of railroad collision, has seen a gradual evolution from the time when the crude idea was first entertained and acted upon. In 1845 there was practically no block signaling in this country, even in an embryonic form. The development of block signaling is to be credited to Europe, and mainly to Great Britain, in which country, as far back as the year 1860, 96.5 per cent of the English railroad lines were equipped with block signals. Under this system, in the operation of trains, no two trains are allowed upon the same "block" or section of line at the same time; in other words, the trains are kept apart by space instead of by time.

The Pennsylvania was the first to make extensive use of the system, which it did in 1864. In 1868 the Canadian Pacific advertised that it made use of the block signal system. America's contribution was the introduction of automatic signals, in which the train, through an electric circuit through the rail, operates its own signals and safeguards itself automatically. Automatic signals were first used in America in 1871 on the Eastern Railroad in Massachusetts, and the first automatic signals using the now universal track circuit, were used in Massachusetts in 1879.

None will consider that the automatic stop, the latest improvement in connection with block signaling, is the most important safety device of all. It consists in tying the signals in with the moving train, in such a way that if an engineer runs by a signal, the signal lever will automatically set the brakes and stop the train. The most brilliant success has attended the installation of the automatic stop on the New York subway. Here the express trains are run at 40 miles an hour under a headway of less than a minute and three quarters.

(Continued on page 481.)



The first electric train of the New York Central leaving the Grand Central station, New York city, on September 30th, 1906.

Seventy Years of Civil Engineering

Retrospective Review of the More Important Works Completed During the Life of the Scientific American

THE story has been told of a monarch who once asked a civil engineer what was the limit of the constructive ability of his profession, and he answered, "Give me sufficient money, men, and time and I will accomplish anything." There is just enough of truth in this to cause us, when we contemplate the engineering works of the present day, to hesitate before we say: This is final. The Panama Canal, the Forth Bridge, the Aswan Dam, the Catskill Aqueduct, and all such works of magnitude are after all but the pledge and promise of greater things to come. The civil engineer, by continually providing improved methods of transportation, and making available nature's stores of crude material, enables the great mechanical industries to provide him with which he is increasingly able to exceed the great performances of the past.

It is impossible within the limits of this article to give much more than an encyclopedic review of the vast field of civil engineering during the past seventy years—we can do no more than touch upon the high points in the vast field that is opened up to retrospective analysis.

Water Supply and Irrigation.

The art of impounding water and distributing it by canal and aqueduct for the use of farm and city is as old as history itself, and, at the period of the birth of the *Scientific American*, there were scattered throughout the world many modern and important reservoirs which differed, not in principle, but merely in magnitude, from the great works of the present day. A typical system was that known as the old Croton Dam with its aqueduct leading from the valley of the Croton River to New York, which was opened about the time that this journal came into existence. After some fifty years of service it was realized that the supply of water from the Croton reservoir would soon be insufficient for the needs of New York, and the great structure known as the new Croton dam was commenced in the early nineties. This handsome structure stands today as one of the greatest masonry dams in existence. It is built of solid masonry and its foundations which lie, at the lowest point, some 140 feet below the bed of the river, extend up and down stream 200 feet, while above the mass of masonry rises to a height of about 300 feet. The total length, including the spillway, is 2,198 feet, and the total amount of water impounded is seventy billion gallons. The new and old aqueducts leading from the reservoir, together with other local sources of supply, made it possible to deliver nearly four hundred million gallons of water per day to New York city.

The Croton reservoir had not been long in operation before the rate of increase of population of Greater New York was so rapid as to render urgently necessary the preparation of plans for a fresh supply. It was determined to bring in the mountain water from the Catskills, and to this end a solid masonry dam known as

the Olive bridge dam was built across the valley of the Esopus, forming the Ashokan reservoir, whose capacity is 132 billion gallons. The dam is 192 feet thick at the base and 220 feet high. The water is conveyed to New York city by an aqueduct from 14 to 17 feet in diameter, which extends for a distance of ninety miles. At the northern limits of New York the aqueduct

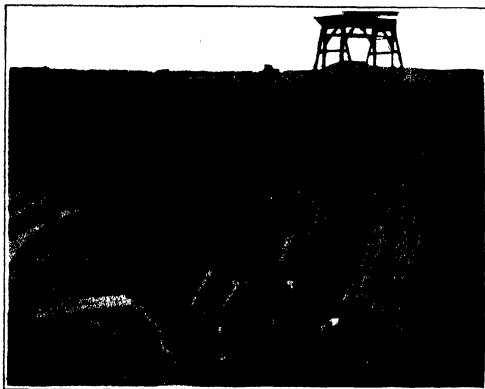
irrigating canals for its distribution during the dry season. In some cases the dams are of limited height, but great length. In others they are short and of great height, as in the case of the Roosevelt and the Shoshone dams, which are over 300 feet in height, and the Bodeo Canyon dam, 350 feet high. These are the loftiest structures of the kind in the world. The canal system includes 341 miles carrying over 800 cubic feet per second, 775 miles carrying 300 to 800 cubic feet, and of 6,000 miles of smaller canals. When the project is fully completed over 3,000,000 acres of land, hitherto barren and desert will be brought under cultivation.

In this connection our thoughts turn naturally to that other great irrigation scheme rendered possible by the huge Aswan dam in Egypt. This world renowned structure is built of solid masonry and extends for over a mile across the bed of the Nile. As recently enlarged by the addition of sixteen feet to its height and a proportionate increase of thickness, it provides a maximum head of water of eighty-six feet, and impounds the enormous quantity of 81,200,000,000 cubic feet of water. The dam is pierced by sluiceways, by which the stored water is released for the use of the Egyptian agriculturalist as it is needed.

The great dam constructions for water supply are matched by those built for the development of hydroelectric energy—a field in which, because of limitations of space, we must be content to mention only the last and largest plant of all—the Kookuk dam across the Mississippi. This is a private commercial venture, built to furnish light and power in the Mississippi valley. The dam 425 feet in length, reaches clear across the Mississippi. It is founded on good rock and has a bottom width of 42 feet and a height of 53 feet. The floods are controlled by gates, built in the dam. The power is developed in a vast power house, 132 feet wide and 1718 feet long, which contains 30 hydroelectric units, each of 7,500 kilowatt capacity.

Long-span Bridges

In tracing the development of bridge design and construction in this country and abroad, we find that, early in the period under review, American practice showed a broad divergence from that common in Europe. In the United States the typical American bridge, particularly the truss bridges used for railroad work, was designed with trusses of great depth and with long members of rather small cross sections, the result being to give to the American bridge an appearance of lightness and fragility which at least as far as its strength was concerned, was misleading. Probably a predisposing cause to this, and particularly to the universal adoption of the eye-bar for tension members, was to be found in the necessity for strict economy and in the universal desire of the American manufacturer to standardize work in the shop and in the field, and produce a type of bridge which would be easy of construction and erec-

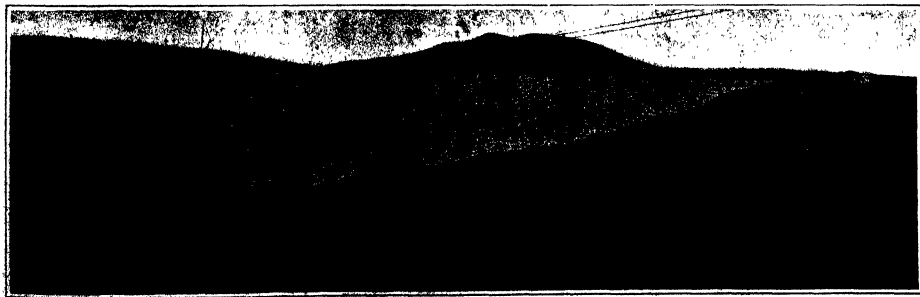


Increasing the thickness and height of the Aswan dam, Egypt. Capacity, 82,000,000,000 cubic feet

drops to a deep tunnel, which is carried everywhere in rock throughout the full length of Manhattan, at depths varying from 300 to 750 feet. At intervals shafts rise to the surface, and from these the water is distributed by steel pipe mains. A branch tunnel passes under the East River to Brooklyn, where the aqueduct is continued to the Narrows, under which it is carried by pipes laid in the bed of the channel for the service of Staten Island. The work, which is approaching completion will cost \$170,000,000, and it will provide New York with an additional daily supply of 500,000,000 gallons.

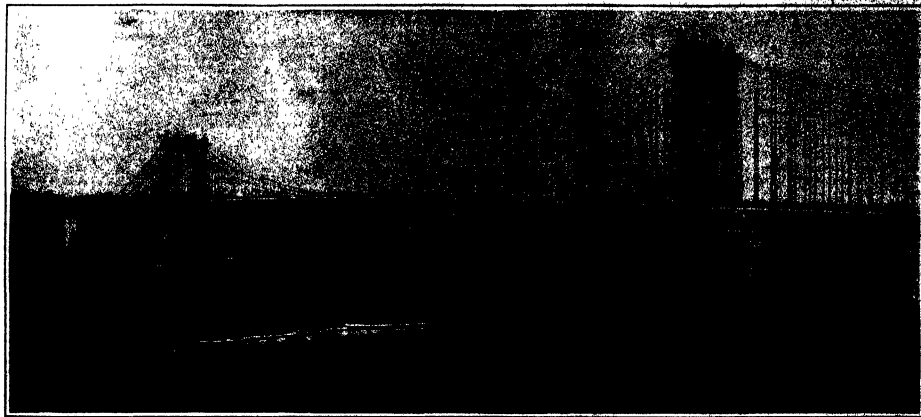
Another great water supply scheme in the United States is that for the service of Los Angeles. The water is conveyed from the Sierra Mountains by means of an aqueduct which is partly open canal, partly covered canal, partly in tunnel, and, where it crosses the valleys, consists of large siphons $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 11 feet in diameter. The total length of the structure is 254 miles, and in its completed condition it will supply Los Angeles with 250,000,000 gallons of water daily.

The greatest irrigation project in the world is that being carried out by the United States Government for the reclamation of desert lands lying between the Mississippi and the Pacific Coast. The great work consists mainly in the construction of dams, most of them of great size, for impounding the flood waters of the rivers and streams of the west and providing a vast system of



The Olive bridge dam—Length of dam, 4,650 feet; height, 220 feet; thickness at base, 190 feet. Capacity of reservoir, 132,000,000,000 gallons.

A monumental work in the Catskills for supplying New York daily with 500,000,000 gallons of water.



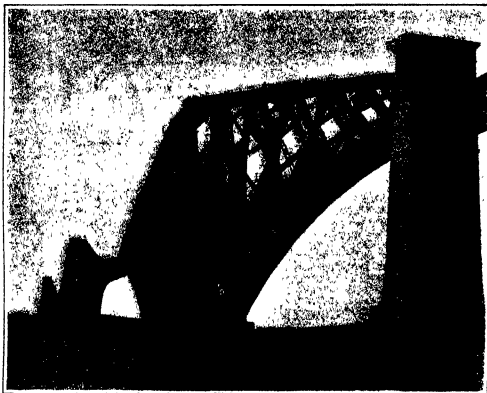
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Main span, 1,470 feet Shore spans, 725 feet Width of floor, 130 feet Capacity: Four electric railways; a 35-foot roadway, and two 10-foot footpaths.
The Manhattan suspension bridge across the East River, New York.

tion, and relatively to other types of bridges would be economical in cost. In Europe the bridge engineers favored riveted construction and a shallow depth of truss, and this involved an increase in the section of the various members and also a general increase in the weight of the bridge. The American eye-bar bridge had the advantage of cheap cost and quick construction and erection, while the European bridge, requiring more time, at least for erection and costing more, had the advantage of greater stiffness and general rigidity.

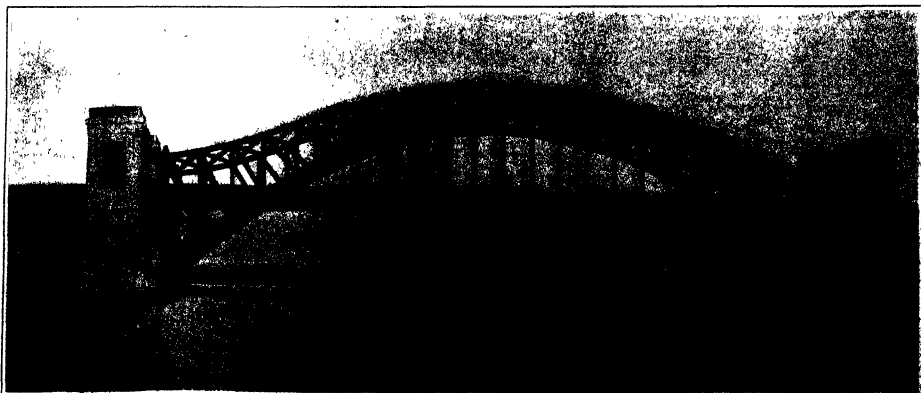
During the past fifteen or twenty years, the two schools of design have drawn together or overlapped, so that now the eye-bar is not unknown in later European designs, and the riveted bridge is becoming increasingly popular in America.

Seventy years ago that justly celebrated engineer, Robert Stephenson, presented plans for an entirely new type of bridge, each span of which consisted of a rectangular plate iron tube, the structure being designed to carry the tracks of the London and North-Western Railway across the Menai Straits. The bridge



The two main spans are each 1,710 feet long. Carries two railroad tracks.
Forth bridge, Scotland; largest cantilever bridge in existence.

was built double—that is to say there was a track within each tube, the spans consisting of four of 250 feet and four of 472 feet. This bridge produced as much astonishment and doubt as to its feasibility as the Brooklyn bridge or the Forth bridge did in later days; but it proved a great success and is in active service today. Of the same type was the Victoria bridge across the St. Lawrence River, a monumental structure, consisting of 25 spans, each 244 feet in length. It was removed about fifteen years ago to make way for a more modern structure. In 1855 Roebling built the Niagara suspension bridge with the then unprecedented span of 821 feet, and nineteen years later he commenced the construction across the East River, New York, of that truly beautiful and monumental bridge with which his name will be ever associated. The Brooklyn Bridge, as it is now called, is carried upon four 15-inch wire cables. It consists of two shore spans, each 900 feet in length and a main river span 1,595 feet between the towers. The work was completed and opened in 1883. In point of size and capacity there was



Structure weighs 20 tons per lineal foot. Capacity: Four of the heaviest freight trains on New York.
Hell-Gate bridge over the East River. Longest arch bridge yet built.

nothing to approach this structure at that time in all the world. The suspension bridge is a peculiarly American idea, especially the suspension cable. In 1806 the Williamsburg bridge over the York River was completed, and after about seven years' work was opened. This structure was far more solid and had much greater capacity than the Brooklyn bridge, the full width of the floor system being 118 feet, as against the 80 feet of width of the earlier structure. This was followed by the Manhattan bridge with a main span of 1,470 feet, and a full width of 120 feet.

The great rival to the suspension bridge for long-span work has always been the cantilever, and of this type the most notable example is the great structure across the Firth of Forth, a few miles above Edinburgh, Scotland. This is a two-track railway bridge, and at the time it was built it was the wonder of the engineering world, and is to-day and must forever be one of its most monumental structures. The two main spans measure 1,710 feet in the clear and its most interesting structural feature is the fact that the compression members are big tubes, generally of circular section, measuring from eight to twelve feet in diameter. The tension members are of chain-work. Benjamin Baker, its principal designer, said that he started out to build the stiffest and strongest large bridge in existence; and he succeeded in doing so; for the heavy express trains to and from North Scotland cross it at speeds of 80 miles an hour and over.

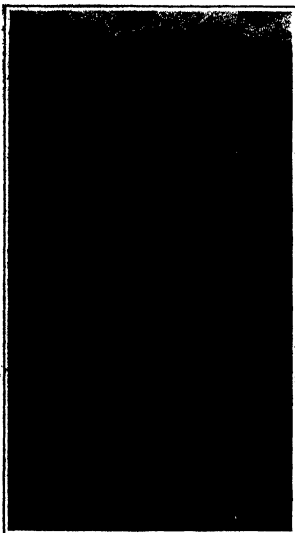
The new Quebec bridge across the St. Lawrence, which will replace the structure which collapsed a few years ago, consists of a main river span of 1,800 feet. This will be the longest cantilever span in existence. The bridge carries two railroad tracks, and it will weigh 18 tons per linear foot.

The longest single span arch bridge in the world is that which is now under construction across the East River at Hell Gate, which will provide four railroad tracks capable of carrying the heaviest freight trains in existence. It measures 1,017 feet between piers, and it rises 220 feet from the hinges to the crown of the chords. Its weight will be enormous, namely 26 tons per linear foot of the bridge. The size of its members is shown by the dimensions of the lower chord, which is rectangular and about seven feet wide, and varies in depth from seven and one half feet at the crown to ten and a half feet at the abutments.

What the future will see in the way of the development of long-span bridges is suggested by the fact that plans are made and financial negotiations are under way for the construction across the North River of a double-deck combined freight-and-passenger suspension bridge, capable of carrying sixteen tracks, whose span between the main towers will be about 3,000 feet. The main towers of the bridge will rise over six hundred feet above the surface of the river.

Canals.

The construction of canals for inland water transportation dates from the earliest times. At the opening of the period under review, the Erie Canal connecting the Hudson River with Lake Erie may be taken as typical of such work both here and in Europe. It was opened in 1825, when it had a maximum depth of four feet, and its total length was 363 miles. Between 1836 and 1862 it was gradually improved, the depth being increased to seven feet; and at that time it had seventy-two locks. During the past decade further improvements have been undertaken with a view to increasing its capacity, and the work now under way and within measurable distance of completion will provide a



New York's highest building and deepest shaft. Where the aqueduct dips under the East River it sinks to a depth of 750 feet below the surface.



Launching section of Harlem River subway tube. Flat boats being sunk to set the tube section afloat.

canal with a minimum depth of twelve feet, capable of taking barges of 1,000 tons. The canal leaves Lake Erie at an elevation of 585.5 feet above tide level, and reaches tide level on the Hudson River at Waterford. In the new canal the number of locks is reduced to 50 and the whole work of improvement at completion will have cost about \$125,000,000.

The period under review has seen the completion of several great canals of the largest capacity designed for the use of ocean shipping. The first of these was the Suez Canal, which connects the Mediterranean with the Red Sea. It was built by De Lesseps and completed in 1869. Originally it had a bottom width of 120 feet, 250 feet width at the surface and was 28 feet deep. In 1897 work was begun on the enlargement and deepening of the canal to a minimum depth of 31 feet. It has been improved, not only by increasing its width, but by the construction of several large and commodious sidings to facilitate the passing of vessels.

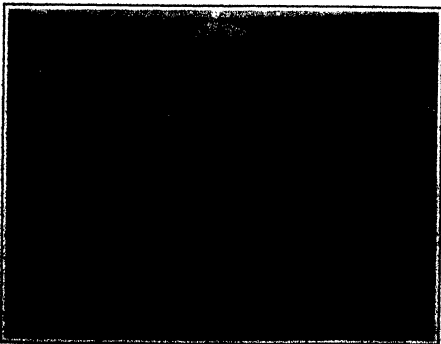
The Kiel Canal, stretching from the mouth of the Elbe to the Baltic, a distance of sixty miles, was begun in 1857 and completed in 1896, with a bottom width of seventy feet and a top width of 220 feet, and a depth of 28½ feet. This year the work of reconstruction and enlargement was completed, and to-day the canal has a top width of 335 feet, a bottom width of 144 feet and a minimum depth of 38 feet. The locks, 1,682.6 feet long by 147.6 feet wide, are the largest in existence. The canal is proving its vast military importance during the present war.

The greatest of all works of this kind, however, so great indeed, as to be in a class by itself, is the Panama Canal, which was commenced in the early eighties by De Lesseps, and after many years of fruitless endeavor, was finally purchased by the United States Government, and has recently been completed by the United States engineer corps. The Panama Canal is remarkable not so much for its length, which is fifty miles from deep water to deep water on the Pacific, as it is for its great width and depth, and for the enormous amount of excavation involved and the great difficulties encountered because of the climate and because of the unstable nature of the ground through which it is cut. Our American engineers solved the problem of the turbulent Chagres River by building the great dam at Gatun, with its surface level eighty-five feet above the sea and a surface area of 165 square miles. The lake extends from Gatun, some eight miles from the Atlantic, to the farther end of the Culebra cut, a total distance by the channel of 32 miles. The dam is over 2,000 feet wide at its widest point, and its crest is 115 feet above sea level. The depth of the canal throughout is 45 feet. Its minimum width at the bottom is 300 feet, and its maximum width 1,000 feet, where the channel passes through Gatun Lake.

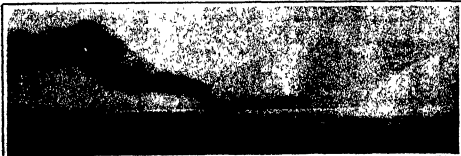
The locks have a usable length of 1,000 feet and a width of 110 feet. The total amount of excavation long ago passed the 200,000,000 cubic yard mark, and it is continually increasing. The canal is finished except for the removal of the slides, which will probably continue to come down into the canal prism until the unstable material in the Culebra cut has reached its natural angle of repose. It is possible that the final total of excavation when this point is reached will be between 250,000,000 and 240,000,000 cubic yards. The total cost of the canal will be about \$400,000,000.

Sub-aqueous Tunnels and Subways.

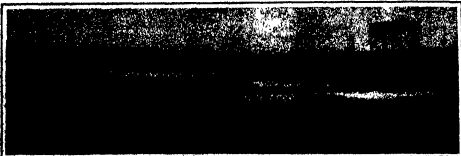
Over the portals of the main towers of one of the early suspension bridges, that over the Avon at Clifton, (Continued on page 528)



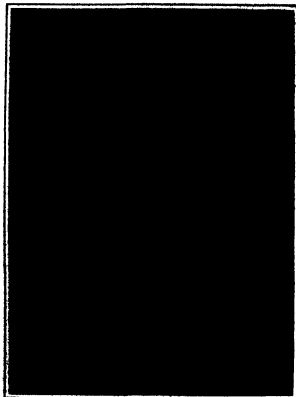
Two Gates Locks of the Panama Canal. Each basin is 110 feet wide by 1,300 feet long.



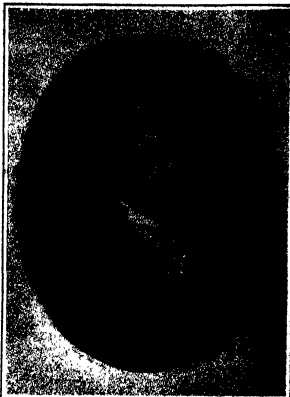
A 2½-mile viaduct over the sea on the Florida East Coast Railway.



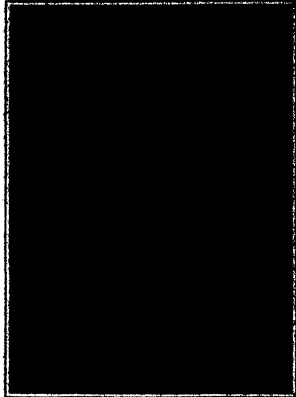
Keokuk dam across the Mississippi River for generating 300,000 horse-power. Height, 52 feet. Length, 4,850 feet.



Louis Daguerre, from a daguerreotype.



Joseph Nicéphore Niépce, inventor of photography.



Fox Talbot, the father of modern photography.

The Invention and Development of Photography

From the Daguerreotype to the Moving Picture

THE father of photography was Joseph Nicéphore de Niépce, whose process appeared in 1824. In the Niépce process, a silver-faced copper plate was coated with asphalt dissolved in oil of lavender and dried. It was then exposed to light in the camera, or in the case of an engraving, by superposition. Thereupon it was washed over with a combination of one part of oil of lavender and ten parts of petroleum. The picture was then washed in water and dried. Next the plate was placed in an iodine fuming box until the bright silver ground turned dark. On removing the part of the asphalt remaining, the lights and shadows of the picture appeared in their proper relation, or instead, the plate was etched and inked and printed as in ordinary etching.

Next came L. J. M. Daguerre, who published his process in 1839. A copper plate, one surface of which had been silvered and highly polished, was fumed with iodine, then exposed in the camera and developed with vapor of mercury, and fixed in a solution of hyposulphite of soda. The solvent action of hyposulphite of soda on the silver haloids was discovered by Sir John Herschel. This is briefly the process as published by Daguerre in 1839. The exposure required in the camera was about fifteen minutes. Niépce and Daguerre had formed a partnership to prosecute their researches together, so that some of the credit of having invented the daguerreotype process belongs to Niépce.

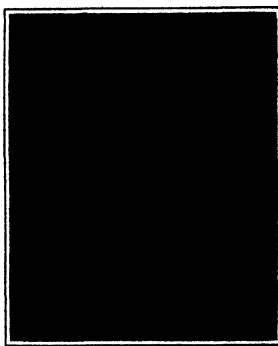
Soon after this, however, by the addition of bromine to the iodine by Goddard (1840) and chlorine by Claudet (1841) the plates were made very sensitive. We find Dr. Draper in New York in the year 1840 making daguerreotype portraits in from twenty to ninety seconds. M. Plouin discovered that by treating the daguerreotype with double hyposulphite of soda and gold it was made more permanent and very much more beautiful.

Fox Talbot and the Calotype Process.

Next came the Calotype or Talbotype, the invention of Mr. Henry Fox Talbot. This may be regarded as one of the most important inventions in photography, for it introduced the photographic negative from which an unlimited number of prints may be made. Talbot's process was published in 1840. A solution of nitrate of silver was prepared, brushed over a sheet of paper, and dried. Then the paper was dipped in a solution of iodide of potassium, washed in water, passed between blotting paper, and dried. This was called iodized paper.

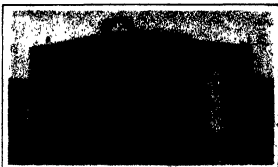
When the paper was required for use, it was washed with a solution of nitrate of silver fifty grains, water one ounce, acetic acid one sixth of an ounce. This was called "Solution A."

"Solution B" was a saturated solution of gallic acid in cold water. The two solutions were



The first photograph of a human face.

A portrait of Miss Dorothy Catherine Draper, taken in America. It required an exposure of 6 minutes in strong sunlight. Taken by Prof. John William Draper (1840).



The first kodak (1888), showing roll-holder and roll film for 100 exposures.

Loading, unloading and developing were done at the factory.



The first moving pictures ever exhibited in public.

They were made by Henry Hehl and were projected on a screen before 1,000 people in Philadelphia in 1870.

mixed in equal parts, just before using. Talbot called this "gallo-nitrate of silver."

The iodized paper was treated with this solution and again dried. The paper was then exposed in the camera and developed with the gallo-nitrate of silver and fixed in hyposulphite of soda. Talbot found later that, by waxing the paper negative was rendered more translucent, so that it gave better results in printing.

Wet-collodion Negative and Albumen Silver Print.

The use of collodion as a vehicle to hold the silver haloids upon plates originated with Frederick Scott Archer in 1850.

Ferroxyline is dissolved in a mixture of ether and alcohol; soluble iodides and bromides are added to this. The mixture is flowed over a glass plate and allowed to set, and then immersed in a bath of silver nitrate. This plate after exposure in the camera is developed with acidified ferrous sulphate or pyrogallol acid.

This process was used almost exclusively for making both negatives and positives on glass for many years, but its use is now very limited except in the photo-mechanical processes.

Bianquard-Everard introduced albumen paper into photography in 1848, after Claude Nicéphore Niépce de St. Victor had shown that good negatives could be made by the use of albumenized potassium iodide, sensitized with silver nitrate on glass. Gray invented the collodion process in 1850, which only one year later was brought to perfection by Fry and Scott Archer. Lecomte, Barrowell, and Davanne invented photo-lithography in 1852. After Henry Fox Talbot introduced the chrome gelatine process, it was but a step for Paul Frotch to obtain the printing plates by electrolytic printing with silver nitrate (1848), and thus to invent heliography. Talbot's work also inspired the French engineer Alphonse Louis Fournier to use the chrome gelatine process for devising the modern carbon process in 1855.

Printing-out Papers.

Printing-out papers are made by coating paper (usually unamalgamated) with an emulsion composed of gelatin, chloride of silver, with more or less free nitrate of silver. Most of them are faced with collodion. The process was first worked out successfully by George Wheaton Simpson in 1861 with collodion, and by Abney in 1863 with gelatin. The newer developing papers, one of the most successful of which is the invention of Dr. Leo H. Beekland, have all but superseded the printing-out papers.

The Evolution of the Carbon Process.

Carbon printing, in the form now in use, is the result of the action of many minds, and the honor of its discovery cannot be ascribed to the ingenuity of any one person. It may be traced back as follows: Thomas Wedgwood in the year 1800 discovered that white paper coated with a

(Continued on page 531)

Communicating Over Great Distances

The Invention of the Telegraph, Telephone and Wireless Telegraphy

A Record of Achievement from Morse to Marconi

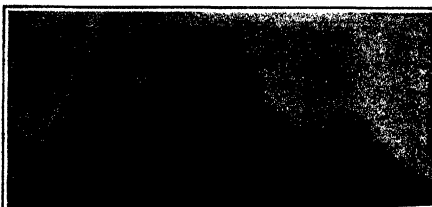
Charles Wheatstone, a great English physicist, who was a pioneer worker in telegraphy.

Sir William Thomson (later Lord Kelvin) inventor of the siphon recorder.

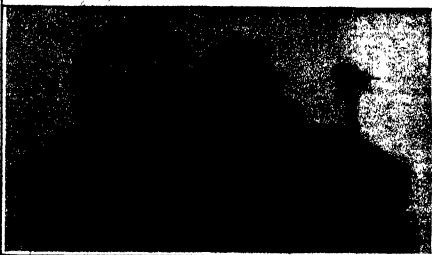
THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN came into existence with the dawn of telegraphy. The pioneer discoveries in electro-magnetism had been made by Oersted, Ampère, Arago, Barlow, Sturgeon, Faraday, and Henry. Without them Morse could not have created the telegraph, as we Americans know it. The same may be said of Wheatstone in England, and of pioneers in other countries. Europeans are not willing to concede to Morse the credit of having invented the telegraph, and Americans are not willing to concede to Europeans the credit of having anticipated Morse. As a matter of fact, the invention of the telegraph, like most great inventions, does not belong to any one man or any one country. It grew with scientific knowledge. To Morse undoubtedly does belong the credit of developing the commercial side of the telegraph, as we know it. He, in conjunction with Vail, worked it out on a practical scale, perfected details, invented the Morse alphabet, and last, but not least, succeeded after a great amount of trouble and many disappointments in obtaining the support of Congress toward making it a national enterprise.

After the instruments had been brought to something like commercial perfection, the next important advance was multiple transmission. In 1833 Oludt of Vienna and Frischen and Siemens and Halske independently experimented with apparatus intended to transmit simultaneously from both ends of the same line. While the solutions proposed by these inventors were mechanically sufficient for the purpose, they overlooked an important factor which had not before been considered important in land telegraphs—the electro-static capacity of the line. This difficulty was first successfully overcome by Stearns of Boston in 1871, at a time when duplex working was fairly common. The chief workers in this field were Oludt, Frischen, Siemens and Halske, Preco, Farmer, Nyström, Maron, Winter, Stearns, and Muthhead.

The problem of how to send two messages in the same direction being solved, the transmission of four messages simultaneously over the same line was attacked. This seems to have been first proposed by Stark of Vienna in 1835, and subsequently worked at by Bosccha, Kramer, Mason, Schenk, and others. But the first to obtain satisfactory results was Edison, who invented his method in 1874. The principle embodied in the quadrex is that of working over the line from each end with two currents, that differ from each other in strength or nature, so that they will affect only instruments adapted to respond to just such currents and no others; and by so arranging the receiving apparatus as not to be affected by the currents transmitted from its own end of the line. Thus by installing instruments that respond only to variations in the strength of currents from the distant station with instruments that respond only to the change in the direction of current from the nearer station, and by grouping a pair of them at each end of the line, the quadrex is the result. Four sending and four receiving instruments are kept busy

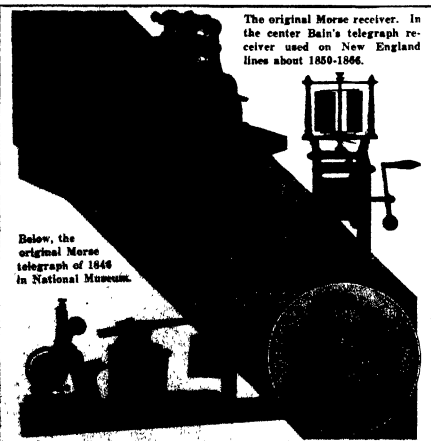


Grandfather of the stock ticker. Original Hughes printing telegraph.



Photograph by C. H. Clardy

The original printing telegraph of R. E. House



Below, the original Morse telegraph of 1848 in National Museum.

The original Morse receiver. In the center Bain's telegraph receiver used on New England lines about 1850-1856.

Samuel F. B. Morse, his telegraph and that of Bain.

at each end, or eight in all. Aside from other material advantages it is estimated that at least from \$15,000,000 to \$20,000,000 has been saved by the Edison quadrex, merely in the cost of line construction in America.

Another system of multiple transmission was proposed by Moses G. Farmer of Salem, Mass., in 1852, in which by a commutating arrangement the main line was put in rapid succession in contact with a series of branch wires by proper connection at the sending station and two communicators worked in unison. It was then proposed to divide the transmitting capacity of the main line wire among a number of branch wires, so that the messages might go over all of these at the same time. A similar arrangement was proposed by Meyer and shown in operation at the Vienna exhibition in 1873. The same principle is adopted in Delaney's telegraph.

Although the mere extension of telegraphs from land to submarine lines can hardly be called invention, yet very many new problems presented themselves for solution in this extension. The application of Stearns' duplex method to submarine telegraphs involved peculiar difficulties on account of the very large capacity of the line, and in the more important cables, the length of the circuit. The credit of having completely overcome these difficulties for submarine cables is mainly due to Dr. Muthhead of London. The electro-static capacity of the line is such that signals could not be so instantaneously transmitted as they were on land lines. Moreover, there was no opportunity of using relays so as to shorten the longer lines. Thus there were the evident mechanical difficulties of manufacturing and of submerging a cable in deep water. The experiments in short lengths in the English Channel and elsewhere had proved successful and had aroused the interest of American and English business men in a transatlantic cable. It is due to the persistence of Cyrus W. Field that we owe the laying of the first transatlantic cable in 1866. The Anglo-American Telegraph Company was organized to undertake the task. With the aid of the "Great Eastern" a submarine cable was laid between Valencia, Ireland, and Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, between July 7th and August 4th. It is needless to recount the early success, the cessation of intercourse due to accidents and the final resumption of communication. They are now matters of common knowledge.

The laying of long cables brought out the fact that existing telegraphic apparatus was not sensitive enough for rapid signaling. Thomson, later Lord Kelvin, overcame the difficulty by inventing the mirror galvanoscopic receiver, which invention he followed later by his siphon recorder, probably the most sensitive recording telegraph known. Improvement in methods of working cables soon followed, among which in the early days, probably the most notable, is the introduction of conductors between the ends of the cable and the earth.

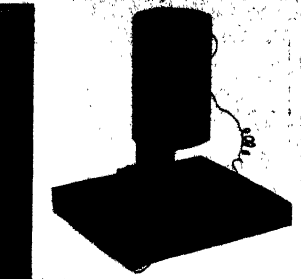
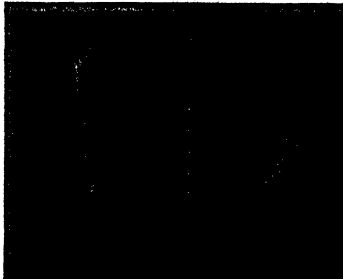
A few years ago, John Gott of Hove,

Bell's original Centennial iron box receiver.

Alexander Graham Bell.

Emile Berliner.

The first instrument made and used by Bell.



Copyright Morris & Irving

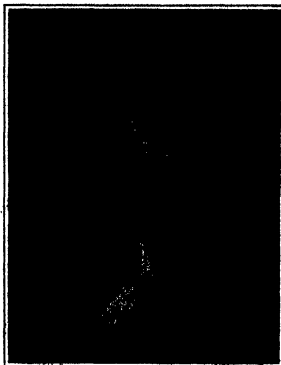
Summer, England, invented a new method by which Morse signals can be sent through long submarine cables with some approach to the facility enjoyed in the transmission of the familiar dots and dashes on overland circuits. The method obviates retransmission at the cable or land ends, and eliminates the siphon recorder, substituting for it an ordinary Morse recorder or sounder.

Successful long distance cable working has involved the use of a reversing key, to send two element signals by changing the direction of the current. In Gott's method the change in direction of the current is effected after each signal by the use of a polarized relay through which the cable is discharged, and the path of the current reversed for the next sending signal. With this system it is possible for an operator at San Francisco to communicate directly with London. While the method does not phenomenally increase the actual speed of transmission, it makes submarine telegraphy more accurate, effective and uniform.

High Speed and Printing Telegraphs.

From the dawn of electric telegraphy inventors have been at work filling the patent records with printing telegraph schemes, some brilliant, some stupid and nearly all useless. Out of several hundreds of printing telegraphs invented prior to the beginning of the twentieth century, only the Hughes and Baudot and the stock tickers achieved any real success. With the stock tickers the problem to be solved was comparatively easy. They were required to work only over distances of a few miles. High speed was desirable, but not absolutely necessary. One man by playing on a keyboard could transmit messages to a considerable number of subscribers, and there was no necessity to deliver the messages, no need to count the number of words in each message, to sign and time the messages or cut up the tape and paste it on telegraph blanks, no need to keep copies of the messages for record, or put them in envelopes or address the envelopes and send them out by messenger. The conditions were of the simplest character, and the consequence has been that the stock tickers long ago reached their full development. One of the earliest of these stock tickers was that of Dr. S. N. Laws, who patented at the end of 1868 his gold reporting telegraph. E. A. Callahan, an ingenious printing telegraph operator, saw that there were unexploited possibilities in the idea, and his foresight and inventiveness made him the father of the ticker, in connection with which he was thus, like Laws, one of the first to grasp and exploit the underlying principle of the central station as a universal source of supply. Callahan transformed his invention into a ticker that would make a printed record. At this juncture Edison entered the field. In collaboration with Pope, he invented a one-wire printer. Financed by Gen. Lefferts he started to improve the stock ticker. The well-known universal ticker in widespread use in its day was one result. Since then the stock ticker has enjoyed the devotion of many brilliant inventors—G. M. Phelps, H. Van Hovenbergh, A. H. Knudson, G. R. Scott, S. D. Field, and John Barry—and remains in extensive use as an appliance for which no substitute or competitor has been found. It is significant of Edison's work, more dimmed and overlaid by later advances, that at the very outset he recognized the vital importance of interchangeability in the construction of this delicate and sensitive apparatus.

The only successful page printing telegraphs in very extensive use to-day in Europe are still nothing but modified stock tickers. In the terms of Mr. Donald Murray, himself a distinguished inventor in



Copyrighted by Jones Bros.

Prof. Michael I. Pupin, inventor of the load coil that made transcontinental telephoning possible.



Model of the Reis telephone in the National Museum of Washington.

this field. In a paper which he published some years ago he summarized the whole situation excellently as follows:

"The Hughes instrument prints on a tape, and the speed is limited by the manual dexterity of the operator and the

keyboard. The gain compared with the Morse key is small. The Baudot printing telegraph, which is largely used in France, and which connects Paris with nearly all the European capitals, may be described as a multiplied Hughes, as it is equivalent to four or even six Hughes instruments working over a single wire. It is exceedingly ingenious, highly practical, and gives admirable service within its limitations; but it is not a fully developed printing telegraph system because it is not provided with a typewriter keyboard for transmitting, and it does not print the messages in page form. It prints on a tape, and it does not save labor in an appreciable extent, compared with the Morse key. Its great virtue is that it saves wires. In fact, in France and some neighboring countries it may be said to have met the want that has been supplied in Anglo-Indian countries by the Morse quadruplex. The Morse quadruplex and the Baudot might be described as the second stage in the development of the modern telegraph. The third and final stage of completely developed machine telegraphy has only been reached after 1860. Within this brief period there has arisen the Follis-Virg, Buckingham, Rowland, Murray, Markum, and Siemens and Halske high-speed telegraph systems. Telegraph companies and governments have never been kindly disposed toward machine telegraphy."

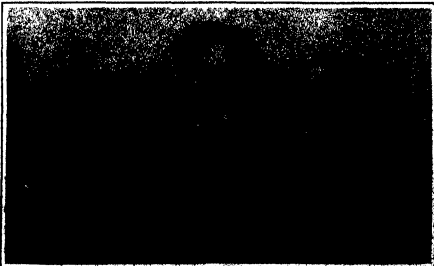
Alexander Graham Bell and the Telephone.

The invention of the telephone constitutes one of the greatest advances that have been made in the art of communicating over great distances. It is well known that sound is transmitted through the air from speaker to hearer by means of waves, condensation and rarefaction, which affect the drum of the ear. As early as 1821 Whiststone showed that these waves could be transmitted from one place to another at a moderate distance through wooden rods and afterward conveyed to the air by the vibrations given to the air by the end of the rod. Similarly, vibrations given to one diaphragm to produce the corresponding vibrations in another diaphragm at a distance by means of electric currents were the problem of the electric telephone. The first to propose this appears to have been Charles Boursein, who in 1854 suggested the use of two plates, one at the transmitting station, which, by the varying pressure of the air due to the sound waves, would open and close an electric circuit while the other was to be acted on at the receiving station by an electromagnet through which the electric currents passed.

In 1861 Philip Reis of Friedrichsdorf disclosed in a lecture an instrument which he called a telephone, for the production at a distance of music and human speech. The apparatus consisted of a flexible membrane forming one side of a box, with which by means of a mouth-piece the sounds could be directed. This instrument was made to open and close an electric circuit at each vibration. At the receiving end, an electro-magnet consisting of a thin rod of iron surrounded by a coil was placed. The successive interruptions and closings of the electric circuit took place in accordance with a discovery made by Dr. Page of Salem, Mass., in 1837.

There is no good reason to suppose that Reis's telephone ever talked, although it probably did transmit musical sounds. His method could not be successful for speaking simply because speech has more characteristics than pitch. To reproduce not only corresponding vibrations, but also loudness and quality of the sounds, a transmitter and receiver were required which did not depend for their action on such interruptions of the current, but which varied the current in a pulsatory manner similar to the variations of pressure on the diaphragm due to the waves.

It was not until Alexander Graham Bell produced his apparatus in 1876 that these requirements were met. That he thoroughly understood his problem is abundantly clear from the patents and reports of his early experiments. (Continued on page 833)



Marconi and one of his early wireless sets.

The Patent Office and Invention Since 1845

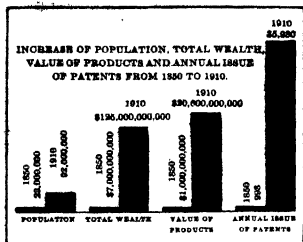
How the Government Has Kept Pace With the Inventor

By William I. Wyman

IN 1846, the birth year of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, the present patent system was nine years old. In 1839 the Patent Office was placed on a distinct basis, the system reorganized and the examination or American method of searching patents inaugurated.

Thomas Jefferson was the first Commissioner of Patents.

The American patent system was founded under the act of 1790. Under this act the Secretary of State,



the Secretary of War and the Attorney General constituted a board to consider all applications for patents. Thomas Jefferson, the first Secretary of State, was in effect the first Commissioner of Patents and the first Examiner. It is said that he personally examined into and determined the patentability of every application filed during his first years in office as head of the State Department. The grant of a patent then was not only a procedure of exceeding dignity, being signed by the President, the Secretary of State and the Attorney General, but was issued with some reluctance. Only three patents were permitted to see the light of day in 1790.

From this modest beginning, the business of the patent system grew slowly, but steadily. From 1790 to 1850 it required but one State Department clerk to perform all the clerical work pertaining to the Patent Office, the entire records of which were contained in a dozen pigeonholes. Up to 1836, about 10,000 patents

Year	Patents Total Issued to that year	Total Wealth	Per Capita	Population	Value of Products
1850	7,000	7 Billion	\$308	23 Million	1 Billion
1860	27,000	12 "	514	31 "	1,938 "
1870	38,000	18 "	750	38 "	3,400 "
1880	50,000	28 "	870	50 "	5,300 "
1890	62,000	43 "	1,038	62 "	9,400 "
1900	94,000	64 "	1,185	76 "	13,100 "
1910	124,000	95 "	1,400*	92 "	20,600 "

* Estimated

were granted. In that year, the Patent Office became an independent bureau, headed by a commissioner, assisted by one examiner and six other subordinate clerks and employees. While the reorganization gave the Office a dignity and standing it did not have before, still the force provided to cope with the pressing demands of inventors did not now appear to be excessively large. And yet critics, whose sense of economy was more acute than were their gifts of imagination, decried the sheer waste entailed by an organization so extravagant in men. But applications came pouring in, and in the following year the examining corps had to be doubled by the appointment of an additional examiner, and in 1839 the position of two assistant examiners was created to keep pace with the growing business.

The act of 1790 was the only one which provided for the grant of a patent without examination. In 1836 the modern examination system was instituted, by

which a search through patents and publications was made to determine the question of novelty. This act also for the first time made a positive requirement for the inclusion of a claim in the specification in the following terms:

"He [the inventor] shall positively specify and point out the part, improvement or combination which he claims as his own invention or discovery."

The Early Days of the Present Patent Office.

In 1836 the erection of the Patent Office was begun, the building was finished in 1840. This original structure forms the F Street wing of the present building. In 1845 the patent system was well on its way and the Office properly housed, with an official force of one commissioner, two examiners, and two assistant examiners. In that year, 1,246 new applications were filed, besides many reissues, and the work was becoming too heavy for this limited force to handle effectively. This condition became and continues to be chronic.

Even as early as 1850, only five years after the founding of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN and but fourteen years after the reorganization of the Patent Office, American inventions were numbered among the most notable produced. In 1857, this country issued over one third more patents than Great Britain, which at that time had a substantially greater population. In that year, the United States with a population of 23,000,000 issued 2,010 patents, Prussia with almost 17,000,000 issued 48, while Russia, with 70,000,000 population, issued 24 patents.

Commissioner Holt, in his annual report for that year, in reviewing the statistics, grows eloquent and philosophizes thus:

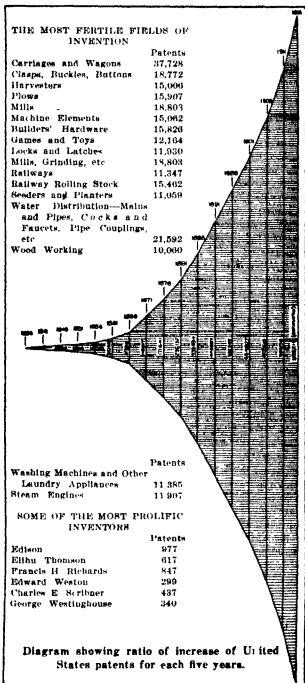
"As the light of liberty waxes dimmer, so does the inventive genius flag and dull apathy, until finally, amid the darkness of the political night which broods over Eastern lands, it is utterly extinguished."

The Anti-Slavery Period of American Invention. During this decade, the one immediately preceding the civil war, the stimulating influence of invention upon industry became noticeably apparent. Southern New England was tending to become a gigantic workshop and the character of entire sections of New York and Pennsylvania and Ohio radically changed from agricultural to industrial communities. The invention of the sewing machine—the greatest labor-saving device of the age—was of itself a tremendous stimulus, and the opening up of the West through the railroad went activity in iron production and the basic engineering industries. The reaper and the threshing machine the opening up of the West profitable and the inventions in firearms, machine tools, locks and labor-saving devices and textile machinery initiated new industries and accelerated the growth of the country by leaps and bounds. By the time the civil war broke upon the country, only a quarter of a century after the inauguration of the present patent system, and in spite of the pre-eminently agricultural character of her pursuits, this country gave every evidence that she was to be among the first of the industrial nations.

After the Civil War.

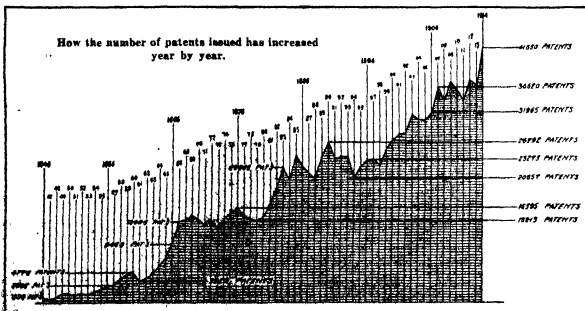
The distracting period of the civil war over, activity in enterprise increased energetically, and in the year after the civil war closed there were filed in the office over three times as many applications as were filed in 1861. During the war, the Bessemer process was developing, and the influence of this most stimulating of inventions, which inaugurated the age of steel and our

present intensive industrial era, became felt not long after its close. Then began a period of true national expansion—the further developing of the West, with strenuous enterprise in reaching out with new railroads, building of steel mills and locomotive works—marking an inflation of energy, industry and finance, which culminated in the severe panic of 1873. The country paused for a little while and took account of stock at the great Centennial Exposition in 1876. The wonders of our



material advance, practically all of which were induced by invention, such as the Corliss engine, the textile machines, woodworking tools, machine tools, the sewing machine, hydraulic machinery and various kinds of automatic appliances, there were spread out for inspection to demonstrate the ingenuity of the American inventor and the intimate relation existing between him and what was making American development.

The period from 1845 to 1850 gave inkling of the dawn of a radically new era. The electrical age was prognosticated in the dynamo of Gramme, Siemens and Brush, the Bell telephone and the arc lamp. But they left no impress upon industry or the social life of the time until the next period got into swing. From 1867 to 1870, the annual number of applications filed remained stationary and averaged about 20,000 per year, but about the time specie payments were resumed, the country appeared to take on a new lease of life.



In 1807, 21,270 applications were filed, and in 1879, 20,009; in the next year (1880) the number increased to 22,012, and in 1889 reached 40,575, more than double the number filed ten years before. In that decade the country literally jumped forward and inventive ingenuity reached the golden age of its activity. For more exhaustive treatment of this device the reader is referred to the editorial page of this issue.

The present commissioner, Hon. Thomas Ewing, in his endeavor to conserve the vast benefits the Patent Office has conferred upon the American people, has instituted several reforms to overcome some of the abuses which have gradually crept into the practice and grown by degrees to menacing proportions, among these is the tendency to initiate unnecessary interferences. They are now being reduced in number wherever it is possible without injury to anyone's rights, and thus avoid litigious proceedings and lessen the financial burden upon the inventor. They are a source of delay and expense to the applicants and constitute an involved and burdensome handicap which has sometimes been laid heavily upon the shoulders of a meritorious inventor.

Another innovation concerns the rights of the public at large and relates to an abuse of privilege on the part of those inventors who desire to delay the issue of their patents to prolong their life. In court practice, no matter how important the case, an issue is soon reached upon which the case may go to trial. But until the famous decision in *ex parte* Miller and the issuance of the orders by the present commissioner, by which every dilatory prosecuted case is made special and is treated by him personally, through his supervisory authority, such coming to an issue could be delayed indefinitely. This, the greatest of all abuses of privileges on the part of applicants, is in a fair way to be effectively remedied.

The Advent of the Hired Inventor.
The larger concerns have in connection with their patent departments or in association with their research laboratories with a corps of highly trained engineers and technical and scientific assistants. Every improvement of a patentable nature, if of proved utility or possible merit, becomes the subject matter of an application, not only for the monopoly that a patent may bring, but also as a protection in its manufacture and as a matter of record. The patent department advises the technicians whether a proposed device may be patented, or whether it infringes an existing patent, and also appraises the validity and value of patents offered to the company for sale. The experimental department will try out new ideas or develop them to some conclusion. Many of the big things now come through these organizations, for frequently in the evolution of an art, an instrumentality may be so complex, require the expenditure of so much skill and money to develop and demonstrate, that only a company with large resources is able to handle the proposition. Thus, the General Electric Company took several years, plus an expenditure of a few million dollars, to develop the Curtis turbine. It is by no means uncommon for a promoter to spend over \$100,000 to develop a process or apparatus so it will be marketable. Edison, who, if not inventor, is a hero in himself, frequently spent thousands upon thousands in investigations and made experiments by the hundreds before he was in a position to announce results. There are some devices which are so intricate in design, notably type setting and casting machines, that anywhere from a quarter to one million dollars may be expended in construction and improvement, in trials and changes, only to prove eventually, what could not possibly be determined in advance, that it could not meet the various requirements demanded in commercial practice. Mark Twain sank his personal fortune of several hundred thousand in a typesetting device, probably the most intricate bit of mechanism ever devised, because the machine did everything it was designed to do, it was too intricate to be understood by the ordinary mechanic.

Thus again, the device may be simple enough, its merits sufficiently obvious, but it may require more business acumen, push and advertising to introduce it than would be required to market an article of simple and competitive character, or sometimes, no character at all. A well-known instance of this inertia on the part of the public is the case of a certain safety razor, which required prodigious efforts on the part of its promoters to eventually get the public to use what appeared to be a self-evident thing of a long-felt want. No inventor can afford to create without the protection of the patent laws, because the labor and expense he is

placed under preliminary to establishing the utility of his invention becomes a fixed charge and the very means to handicap him against a practical competitor, who can start without such a burden.

The Infinite Possibilities That Lie in Invention.
In 1844, Commissioner Ellsworth, contemplating the 15,850 patents granted up to that year, over 500 of which were issued in the year 1843, and apprehending a cessation of all endeavors in the field of invention, uttered this prediction in his official report: "The advancement of the arts, from year to year, takes our credulity and seems to preface the arrival of that period when human improvement must end." The commissioner could well marvel at the astounding advances made in labor-saving devices during his own life time, but what would have been his mental state could he have been endowed with prophetic vision and have foreseen but a fraction of the inventive activity which has taken place in a man's lifetime from the date of his utterance? The number of patents now is over a million, the annual issue is more than three times the number of all the patents granted up to his day, and the examining corps has increased from four to almost four hundred without being able to keep pace with the ever growing tide of new work. It is estimated that the value of American manufactures attributable directly or indirectly to patentable inventions amounts to the enormous total of more than twenty billion dollars, which is about four times the value of

figures available showing an investment in the United States alone of seven billion dollars, annual gross revenue or sales of over a billion, in which three quarters of a million men were engaged, at an annual per-capita of over three hundred and fifty million dollars. These industries were either non-existent in 1800 or in their incipient stages at that time. Their existence, every advance therein were directly founded on invention, every one of which is patented, and of record in the Patent Office.

The Trend of Invention.

The activity of the different classes in the Patent Office from time to time reveals accurately the changes which constantly pass in the world's industry and the applied arts. The basic pursuit in this country always being the tilling of the soil, patents for agricultural implements have occupied a prominent position, both in numbers and importance throughout its history. The invention of the sewing machine indicated a period of great activity in a new art, while the telephone belied a flood of inventions for adaptations and improvements. The new electro-chemical industry came into being about the middle of the eighties and patent activity with relation thereto was high at the same time. The incandescent lamp started the electric age, in whose vortex we still are, and patent concerns in all things electrical is still talented. The rise and fall of the bicycle, the wave of interest in automatic car couplings, the first surges of activity in aeroplane invention, and the deep concern of the great ingenious to solve the urgent non-refillable bottle problem—all these movements have been reflected in the filing of applications in the Patent Office. In recent years the automobile is establishing records, the arts relating to internal combustion motors, carburetors, gearing, self-starters, accessories, alloy steels and heat treatment of steels being specially active.

The United States has by far the longest record in the field of invention; whether reckoning by the number of pioneer products, their ingenuity, or their far-reaching effects in the greatest diversity of fields, she easily stands in first place. Particularly in labor-saving devices does she stand foremost. No one in all history has worked so hard to save labor as the Yankee. The greatest of all labor-saving devices, the sewing machine, is his, and outside of textile machinery, practically all the great advances in this department have been of his invention, as witness the cotton gin, the reaper, shoe machinery, typewriter and typesetting machines.

In the field of electricity the American shares pre-eminence with Europeans, and yet the three most signal advances in electrical application are to be credited—the telegraph, telephone, and the incandescent lamp. Since 1860 (the typewriter was invented a few years previously) no revolutionary mechanical invention comparable to those which signaled American ingenuity previously, was devised except the typesetting machine, but in the field of electricity (incandescent lamp, trolley car, electric welding), optics (kinescope, transparent film) and air navigation (an absolutely new art), he did not remain inactive.

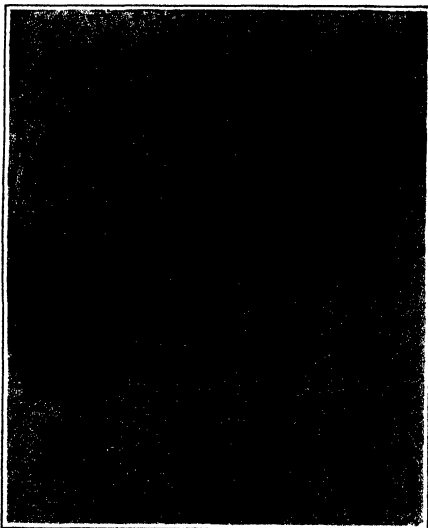
Some Prolific Inventors.

Between 1870 and 1900, Thomas Edison had received 742 patents; F. H. Richards, 619; Elton Thomas, 444; Charles E. Scribner, 374; L. C. Crowell, 298; Edward Weston, 280; R. M. Hueter, 278; Charles J. Van Deusen, 245; and George Westinghouse, 239. Up to 1910 Edison secured 900 patents, of which 718 were electrical. Considering all the patents which are presently pending or in course of preparation, it is estimated that the number of his inventions is greater than 2,000. It is safe to assert that he is the most prolific inventor of all time.

Although Great Britain has more pioneer inventions her credit involving fundamental operations that underlie all industry, she is not alone in the history of innovations of pioneer character who has contributed in the last one-half century are the basic process for making steel, the steam turbine, and the cyanide process. But the steam engine, the greatest invention of all ages, is here, and so is the Bessemer process, which inaugurated our present intensive industrial era.

Germany before 1871 was an almost negligible factor in the field of applied science, although she had previously to that date given ample evidence of her vigor in pure science. The adoption of a patent system based upon that of the United States, was an extreme stimulus to invention, and the impetus given to inventiveness

(Continued on page 345.)



The first patents were signed by President George Washington.

all taxable property in the United States at the time Commissioner Ellsworth made his report.

It has been said that the single invention of producing steel by the Bessemer process doubled, directly or through its influence, the world's wealth in the third of a century after its introduction. The forcing effect of patent protection on industry is well illustrated in the case of such branches as are directly based upon invention, and which did not exist or were in a negligible state in 1880.

Statistics for the Year 1909

NAME OF THE INDUSTRIES CALLED INTO EXISTENCE SINCE 1860

	Establishments	Persons engaged	Output annually	Value added by unit
Photography	18	6,528	\$11,728,000	\$5,067,000
Photo Apparatus	107	0,690	22,861,000	15,403,000
Cash Registers	50	0,491	23,708,000	20,136,000
Typewriters	80	12,101	19,719,000	15,642,000
Alloys	743	83,350	240,253,000	17,500,000

The figures in the last column are particularly significant as they show the very high percentage added to the cost of the raw materials by the process of manufacture, i. e., by the knowledge, skill and labor of the producers.

More astounding are the figures relating to the electrical industries, including telephony, central station lighting and power, and electric railways, the latest

Converting Night Into Day

Artificial Lighting Problems and How They Have
Been Solved

What the Inventor Has Done for Oil, Gas, and
Electricity in Illumination

Charles F. Brush, inventor
of the modern electric arc
lamp.

Carl Auer von Welsbach,
inventor of the Welsbach sys-
tem of gas lighting.

WHEN Col. E. I. Drake "struck oil" in Penn-
sylvania in 1859 he also established the lamp oil
industry. As soon as it was found that Pennsylvania
had abundant supplies of oil the inventors began to file
their applications for oil lamp patents. They began in
1859 itself and kept on for many years. Literally hun-
dreds of lamps were invented. It was no mean problem
to burn oil safely and efficiently in a lamp. Cigarette
wicks and fat wicks, single burners and double burners,
wicks of peculiar plaiting, were patented to feed the oil
in just the right quantity to the burner head by capil-
lary attraction. It is hardly worth while here to trace
the course of development of the kerosene lamp. The
simplest lamp soon proved the safest, all the more so
since laws were passed in almost every country to pro-
hibit the sale of oils with too high a flash point.

Arthur Kitson in 1885 patented a system of feeding
the oil under pressure to a chamber where it was
heated by the flame of the lamp itself and volatilized.
The vapor thus fed to a kind of atmospheric burner,
being automatically supplied by its action with suffi-
cient oxygen from the air to produce a very hot blue flame. Kitson employed a platinum gauze
which was heated by this flame to incandescence,
that being a time when the Welsbach mantle had not
yet been commercially introduced. The gauze answered
well enough for a time, but it became useless when soot
was deposited upon its meshes.

But even if Kitson had been able to utilize the Wel-
sach mantle, his lamp might not have been successful
in its early form. It is difficult to mix air with the
high-pressure vapor so intimately that carbonization
will not result, and a carbonized mantle is robbed of its
luminosity. Even when the desired intimacy of mix-
ture is obtained there is difficulty in maintaining it
automatically. The difficulty was ingeniously overcome
by F. Altman, among others, who devised an arrange-
ment in which water and oil were vaporized by a burner
in a small separate chamber, whereupon the mixture
of vapor and steam was fed to a special burner head,
supplied with air, and used to heat a Welsbach mantle to
incandescence. Such lamps are remarkably economical.
They yield three times the amount of light which can
be obtained from oil when consumed under ordinary
conditions.

The invention of the Welsbach mantle served not
only to improve the oil lamp, but also to revive "air
gas"—air mixed with volatile hydrocarbons and burned
in an Argand burner like
ordinary illuminating gas
of the present day. When
the general extension of
coal gas and electricity
had practically relegated
air gas to the place of an
abandoned illuminant the
Welsbach mantle gave it a
new lease of life. A. I. van
Vrieland, Hooker, and De
Laitte are among the in-
ventors who improved air
gas generating apparatus
so that the Welsbach man-
tle could be effectively em-
ployed.

The Development of Gas Lighting in Our Times.

Although towns were
lighted early in the nine-
teenth century by gas, it
was not until the last four
decades that real progress
was made in gas
lighting. In its brief
history there were great in-
novations which led to the
manufacture of the most
efficient and successful of
all the modern lamps.

The London Argand burner of 1875 was
considered the last word in illumination in its day—
something that could not be surpassed. But when the
incandescent mantle came, six times as much light was
obtained from the same amount of gas. By 1845 most
of the burners with which we are familiar had been
invented and fairly well standardized. William Mor-
doch himself, the first man to use coal gas in his home
(1779), devised the "cockspur" burner. J. B. Neilson
devised the "fish-tail" burner. Sir Edward Frankland
in 1826 brought out his burner for utilizing the heat of
the flame to raise the temperature of the air supply for
the combustion of the gas. A similar regenerative sys-
tem was that of the Rev. W. R. Bowditch (1854). By
far the best of these regenerative burners was that of
Friedrich Siemens, who came out with his invention in
1879. These ingenious burners, efficient as they were,
never succeeded in supplanting the ordinary fish-tail and
hating burner, simply because of their initial cost.

It is obvious that these various burners depend for
their efficiency on different principles. The ordinary
fish-tail or flat flame burner must be fed with a gas very
rich in carbon particles. In the regenerative burners
the temperature to which the carbon particles are
heated is raised as high as the material of the burner
will permit. It was the effort to increase this tem-
perature and with it the efficiency of the gas flame that
led to the evolution of the modern system of incan-
descent gas lighting.

While the principle underlying incandescent lighting
—that of raising the temperature of refractory sub-
stances to a point where they emit light—is old and
may be traced back fully a hundred years, it was not
until our own time that it was successfully applied. To
be sure, Gillard had tried to use platinum gauze so that
he might increase the utility of his water gas, intro-
duced in 1845, but his scheme failed because the plat-
inum was coated with a deposit of carbon in a short
time. Bunsen's invention of the burner that bears his
name—a burner which produces a very hot, blue, almost
non-luminous flame as a result of the mixture of air
with gas—really made incandescent gas lighting pos-
sible. After that it was easy for Clammond, a French-
man, to suggest the use of calcined magnesia as a re-
fractory material to be heated by a Bunsen burner.
Clammond created a sensation in the early eighties
when he exhibited his system of incandescent lighting

in London and Paris. He even used something like the
modern mantle or stocking, although he called it a
basket. What is more, he devised a creditable system
of inverted incandescent lighting.

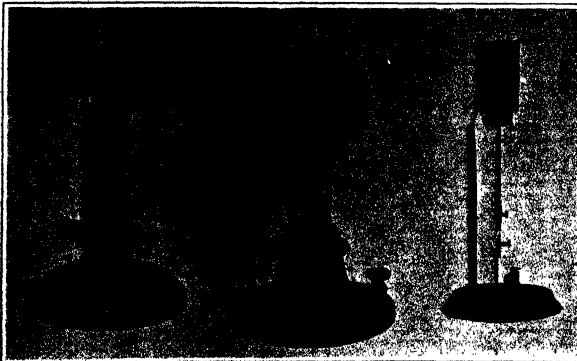
But it was not until Auer von Welsbach, a brilliant
Austrian chemist, conducted his study of the rare earths
that modern incandescent lighting was created. Al-
though his discovery was to a certain extent accidental,
still only a clear-seeing investigator could have seized
upon that accident and turned it to practical account.
During his spectroscopic study of the rare earths he
used the platinum wire in the time-honored way. It
occurred to him that he might obtain a more brilliant
effect for his momentary purpose if he immersed a piece
of cotton in the solution which he was investigating. To
his astonishment, he found that while the thread was
burned completely away, the salt of the solution into
which it had been dipped still remained in the form of the
original thread. What is more, that salt continued to glow
with a wonderful brilliancy. Another experimenter might
have passed the discovery by and continued with the main
investigation. Welsbach realized the meaning of that
brightly glowing thread, which was no longer cotton,
but a metallic oxide. He set about the task of devising
a fabric of cotton which could be used to soak up a
solution of rare earth (zirconium, lanthanum, yttrium),
and after much experimenting arrived at a mantle im-
pregnated with thorium oxide mixed with other oxides.
The really serviceable mantle came when he found that
a little ceria must be added to the thorium in order to ob-
tain a mantle capable of shedding the most light. All this
investigation was conducted in the middle of the eighties.

The Evolution of the Welsbach Mantle.

When it was placed upon the market over twenty
years ago the Welsbach mantle consisted of a knitted
hose-like fabric of cotton, which was soaked in a liquid
called lighting fluid—a solution of thorium and cerium
nitrates in water. The cotton was burned out, leaving
the thorium and cerium in the form of an ash, which
was then hardened and shaped. To form a protective
coating during shipment the mantle was dipped in a
colloid solution.

The ash of the finished mantle has the same physical
structure as the original fabric from which it was made,
whether it be cotton or any other fiber. It is obvious,
then, that the strength and other physical properties of
the mantle depend very largely on the nature of the
original thread. For perhaps a dozen years after the
discovery of the incandes-

cent mantle all mantles
were made from cotton. In
those days it was a miracle
enough to make any kind
of a mantle. The industry
was absolutely new and
was beset with numerous
difficulties, both chemical
and physical and one of
the earliest difficulties was
the finding of a suitable
fabric. Mantle was first in-
troduced in mantle-making
by Buhlmann in 1896. It
has certain marked advan-
tages over cotton, particu-
larly in maintaining its
candle power, and to this
day many mantles are still
made from ramie. It was
found by Knoller that arti-
ficial silk (nitro-cellulose)
was better than cotton for
the manufacture of man-
tles, because the life of the
mantle was more than dou-
bled. It would be out of
the question to use a ma-
terial as inflammable as



The incandescent mantle. Bunsen's first lamp. Brush's first lamp.
The incandescent mantle gave less light than many of the modern incandescents do. It embodied a "filament" at the
top, the bottom of which started an arc. Bunsen's first lamp was the outcome of the most intelligent experimenting in the
history of modern invention. Bunsen's first lamp and the first arc lamp of the wonderfully simple and successful kind
which came in 1877.

Three interesting steps in the development of electric lighting.

nitro-cellulose for the manufacture of fabrics, without rendering it safe. Hence, the thread is denitrated. In other words, we start with cotton, change it to nitro-cotton, which we dissolve and form into threads, and then take out the "nitro" part, leaving the original cotton, but with an entirely different physical structure. Instead of the short, hollow, opaque fibers of the original cotton, we now have solid lustrous filaments of unlimited length. Changing the cotton to nitro-cotton is simply a trick to get it in solution. The remarkable nature of this material is realized when we consider that a thread weighing one pound will reach twenty miles. This thread in turn is composed of twenty strands, and if these could be separated and placed end to end, their total length would be 400 miles. Ten pounds would reach from Maine to California.

Simultaneously with Kœfeler, de Lery (1897) and Plaisiety (1900) patented processes for mixing the thorium and cerium nitrates with a solution of nitro-cotton in ether and alcohol and squirting this solution through fine orifices. None of these schemes, however, turned out to be a commercial success. Plaisiety seems to have been the only one to persevere. Finally, he hit upon what seems the very obvious idea of making a knitted fabric of artificial filament, saturating it in the lighting fluid directly. As nitro-cellulose is absolutely solid and rod-like in structure, it absorbs 50 per cent more than the sponge-like cotton and ramie, because it is colloidal in nature. To harden the mantle thus made Plaisiety used ammonia. He took out patents in Germany in 1902 and in this country in 1904. His process was a commercial success.

Since 1904 vast improvements have been made in the manufacture of mantles from artificial fiber. Nitro-cellulose fibers are much better than natural fibers, because they are absolutely uniform, because they are free from indissoluble impurities, because they can be made absolutely continuous, and because they are strong. An artificial fiber mantle will support a weight of once suspended from its loop without breaking. This is a remarkable tensile strength for a product which, after all, is composed of nothing but soft. Cotton falls off in candle-power during the first 100 or 200 hours, and after 100 hours sustains a loss of about 25 per cent. Ramie deteriorates less rapidly, but unlike cotton, the color of the light changes to a whiter shade. Artificial fiber mantles actually increase in candle-power during the first 100 or 200 hours, and there is no change of color in the light even after 1,000 hours of burning. Unlike natural fibers, artificial fibers do not shrink, nor do they deteriorate in strength nearly so rapidly as cotton or ramie mantles. Hence, the artificial fiber mantle may be said to mark a distinct advance in the art of mantle-making, perhaps the greatest since the introduction of the thorium-cerium mantle itself.

In the last twenty years high-pressure systems of incandescent gas lighting have been developed after much experimenting and study, the object, of course, being to obtain more light from a given amount of gas. Pumps are required to supply the gas under pressure, a floating bell being necessary to eliminate the fluctuations caused by the strokes of the pump piston. One of the principal systems of this type was invented by Sugg and is much used in Europe in cities where gas is on a competitive basis with the electric arc. Other systems have been devised by Lucas, Selas, and Kellogg.

To avoid the use of pressure apparatus, what are known as self-inflating systems have also been invented. In these the lamp itself contains its own apparatus for supplying an increased quantity of air and gas. One of the most indefatigable inventors in this field is Lucas, who after much experimenting designed a chimney of steel in which a very powerful draft is produced which acts on the gas flame and air, with the result that a very brilliant light is obtained. Other inventors depend on little pumps attached to the lamp to obtain their forced feed. Thus, in the Scott-Snell system the lamps own heat drives a plunger which forces gas to the burner under pressure.

Clammond, we have said, invented an inverted gas mantle during the course of his investigations. He

recognized the fact that a vertical burner throws its light above the horizontal, whereas it is needed below, and that objectionable shadows are cast by the mantle supports and lamp parts. It was easier with his type of mantle to invert it than with the Weisbach. Clammond used an inverted blowpipe above his mantle and forced the air and gas down. To convert the ordinary Bunsen burner into a blowpipe simply blackens the mantle and is otherwise objectionable. What was needed was evidently some form of Bunsen burner which could be placed over a mantle and still operate under the usual pressure. H. A. Kent dodged the problem by inventing in 1897 a siphon-like Bunsen burner with the jets for gas and air below the burner head so that there was no tendency for carbon deposition.

Otto Mannemann, Bernat, and Cervenka discovered independently in 1903 that in the inverted incandescent gas lamp it was necessary to feed the mantle with a stream of mixture of smaller cross-section than that of the mantle itself and the importance of conducting the secondary air (air of combustion) toward the descending gas-air mixture. Not until this discovery was made could the inverted incandescent gas lamp be considered really practical.

The Evolution of Arc and Incandescent Lighting.

The arc lamp and the incandescent lamp bore many more points in common in the early days of electric light-

over their history we need not draw too sharp a line of demarcation between them.

In our historical review it is not necessary to follow the president of Triplex, who starts his *Scientific American History of New York with the creation of the world*. Save for a passing reference to Benjamin Franklin's kite-flying experiment (1752), which may be regarded as the connecting link between electric light in nature and electric light as produced by man, we may start with Sir Humphry Davy, who in 1801 first observed and studied the phenomenon of the electric arc. At this time there was not a single central lighting station—either gas or electric—in the world; even matches were undiscovered. For his electrodes, Davy used rods of wood charcoal, heated and plunged into mercury to make them better conductors. The arc light was not publicly exhibited until 1809, when, the dynamo being unknown, Davy's mammoth battery of 3,000 primary cells at the Royal Institution, London, served as a cumbersome source of current.

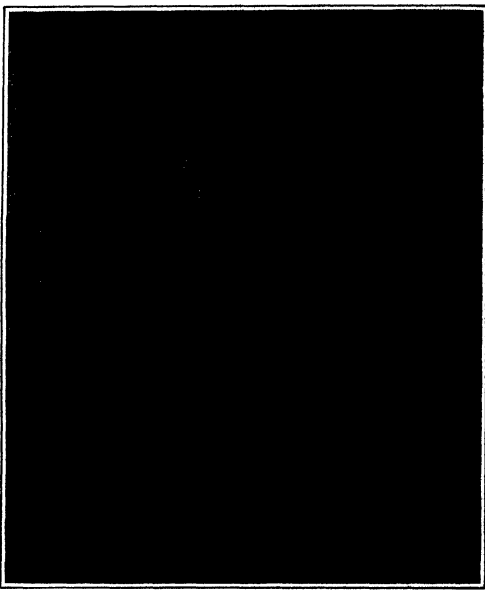
We now pass to the fourth decade of the nineteenth century—a decade the discoveries and inventions of which were destined to advance electric lighting tremendously. The most important of these discoveries, without doubt, was the principle of electromagnetism, announced by Michael Faraday in 1821, while Director of the Royal Institution. Details of the experiments that Faraday made in arriving at this grand underlying principle on which electric generators depend are preserved in his laboratory notebooks, and may be read in the published accounts of his life. The principle was not to find its broad commercial application, however, until several decades later. The year after Faraday's epochal observation was made, Hippolyte Pixii constructed an "arc" one of the first on record, consisting of a stationary electromagnet in which currents were induced by the rotation of a permanent horseshoe magnet.

It is undeniable that much more honor is generally due to the man who actually accomplishes a task than to him who first suggests the possibility of its accomplishment; nevertheless a great amount of credit rightly belongs to the theorist who has the insight or originality to suggest a certain line of activity. Thus, the carbon-filament incandescent lamp may be said, without detracting a whit from the labors of those who invented it, to have been born in the brain of Prof. Johann von Brunschwiler, who in 1858 suggested that a small piece of carbon, if incandesced in vacuo by electricity, might be employed as a lamp. He transmitted this idea to his pupil, Dr. Chang, who did considerable experimenting without, however, producing a commercially successful lamp.

Coming to the fifth decade, we find commercial arc lighting dimly foreshadowed in 1844, when Foucault, experimenting with gas-retort carbon and using this in connection with a galvanic battery, produced such a steady and continuous light that he was able to use it for photographic purposes. Foucault's arc was the forerunner of a great many "types of arc lamps that were to appear in their various forms from this time on until 1860, none of which, however, combined the commercial requirements of simplicity and reliability to a sufficient degree to bring them into widespread use, especially at a time when the dynamo was still away a protracted infancy in its cradle, the laboratory.

Among the freak types of arc lamp that passed into history during this early development period may be mentioned the Wright arc of 1846—the first arc lamp patented in England. This curious machine consisted of five circular carbon disks in series, of which two were movable by means of hand-screws serving to draw out the four arcs. No less awesome was the American arc lamp of Wallace, in which the arc flames played in and forth over a linear space of about a foot, along a narrow gap between the opposed edges of two, laminae rectangular carbon slabs. One of these Wallace arcs is preserved in the National Museum at Washington; they were used commercially, in conjunction with the Wallace-Farmer dynamo. Yet arc lamps in Belgium

(Continued on page 538.)



Edison, Lucas, Sugg

Emil Rathenau, founder of the great *Allgemeine Elektrizitäts Gesellschaft*, once told how he went to Paris in 1881, and at the electrical exhibition there saw the Edison exhibit. "The Edison system of lighting was faultlessly carried down to the very details and was thoroughly worked out as if it had been tested for decades in various towns. Neither sockets, switches, fuses, lampholders, nor any of the other accessories necessary to complete the installation were wanting, and the generating of the current, the regulation, the wiring with distributing boxes, house connections, meters, etc., all showed signs of astonishing skill and incomparable genius."

ing than they do now. "Early days" should be construed electrically, of course—say the seventies and eighties. For example, the first arc lamp to be extensively commercialized was the "candle" of Jablotchhoff (1876), which gave less light than many of the modern incandescent lamps. "Incandescence" is a "filament" at the top, the fusion of which started the arc. On the other hand, among the earliest incandescent lamps were the so-called "incandescence-arc" lamps, based on the principle of an arc playing between two incandescent wires in a partially evacuated bulb.

Then, too, the "active material"—to borrow a battery term—of both families of lamps was basically the same, being carbon both for lamp filaments and arc electrodes for many years; but later invention and development have caused the two families to grow apart, introducing filaments of osmium, tantalum and tungsten, and arc electrodes of metal or of carbon impregnated with various salts. However, arc and incandescent lamps have for a long time been developed contemporaneously, side by side as it were, so that in looking back

Some Personal Recollections

An Autobiographical Sketch

By Nikola Tesla

I AM glad to be accorded this opportunity for two reasons. In the first place I have long since desired to express my great appreciation of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN and to acknowledge my indebtedness for the timely and useful information which its columns are pouring out in a steady stream. It is a publication remarkable for the high quality of special articles as well as for the accurate review of technical advances. The knowledge it conveys is always reliable and rendered still more valuable through the scrupulous observance of literary courtesy in the quotation of the sources. The services it has rendered in helping invention and spreading enlightenment are inestimable. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN is a periodical ably and conscientiously conducted, measured and dignified in tone to the point of serving as a model, and in these features, as much as in the wealth and excellence of its contributions, it reflects great credit, not only on its staff and publishers, but on the whole country. This is not an idle compliment, but a genuine and well-deserved tribute to which I add my best wishes for continued success on this memorable occasion.

The second reason is one that concerns me personally. Many erroneous statements have appeared in print relative to my discovery of the rotating magnetic field and invention of the induction motor which I was compelled to pass in silence. Great interests have waged a long and bitter contest for my patent rights; commercial animosities and professional jealousies were aroused, and I was made to suffer in more than one way. But despite of all pressure and efforts of ingenious lawyers and experts, the rulings of the courts were in support of my claims for priority in every instance without exception. The battles have been fought and forgotten, the thirty or forty patents granted to me on the alternating system have expired. I have been released of burdensome obligations and am free to speak.

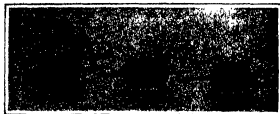
Every experience which I have lived through bearing on that early discovery is vividly present in my memory. I see the faces of the persons, the scenes and objects of my attention, with a sharpness and distinction and in a fullness of light which is astonishing, and is a measure of the intensity and depth of the original impressions. I have always been fortunate in ideas, but no other invention, however great, could be as dear to me as that first one. This will be understood if I dwell briefly on the circumstances surrounding it and some of the phases and incidents of my young life.

From my childhood I had been intended for the clergy. This prospect hung like a dark cloud on my mind. After passing eleven years at a public school and a higher institution, I obtained my certificate of maturity and found myself at the critical point of my career. Should I disobey my father, ignore the fondest wishes of my mother, or should I resign myself to fate? The thought oppressed me, and I looked to the future with dread.

Just at that time a terrible epidemic of cholera broke out in my native land. People knew nothing of the character of the disease and the means for sanitation were of the poorest kind. They burned huge piles of odorous shrubbery to purify the air, but drank freely of the infected water and died in crowds like sheep. Contrary to premonitory orders from my father I rushed home and was stricken down. Nine months in bed with scarcely the ability to move seemed to exhaust all my vitality, and I was given up by the physicians. It was an agonizing experience, not so much because of physical suffering as on account of my intense desire to live. On the cessation of one of the fainting spells my father cheered me by a promise to let me study engineering; but it would have remained unfulfilled had it not been for a marvelous cure brought about by an old lady. There was no force of suggestion or mysterious influence about it. Such means would have had no effect whatever on me, for I was a firm believer in natural laws. The remedy was purely medicinal, hercule if not dangerous, but it worked and in one year of mountain climbing and forest life I was fit for the most arduous bodily exertion. My father kept his word, and in 1877 I entered the Joanneum in Graz, Styria, one of the oldest technical institutions of Europe. I proposed to show results which would win my parents for their bitter disappointment due to my change of vocation. It was but a passing determination of a light-hearted youth; it was iron resolve. As some young reader of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN might draw profit from my example I will explain.

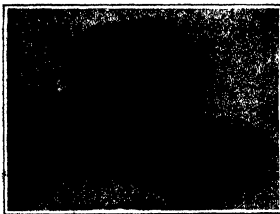
When I was a boy of seven or eight I read a novel entitled "The Son of Ape"—a German translation from the *Alphabet of Sordani*, a writer of renown.

The lessons it teaches are much like those of "Ben-Hur," and in this respect it might be viewed as anticipatory of the work of Wallace. The possibilities of will-power and self-control appeared tremendously to my vivid imagination, and I began to discipline myself. Had I a sweet cake or a juicy apple which I was dying to eat I would give it to another boy and go through the tortures of Tantalus, pained but satisfied. Had I some difficult task before me which was exhausting I would



Three rotors used with the early Tesla induction motor shown below.

attack it again and again until it was done. So I practiced day by day from morning till night. At first it called for a vigorous mental effort directed against disposition and desire, but as years went by the conflict lessened and finally my will and wish became identical. They are so to-day, and in this lies the secret of what ever success I have achieved. These experiences are as intimately linked with my discovery of the rotating magnetic field as if they formed an essential part of it.

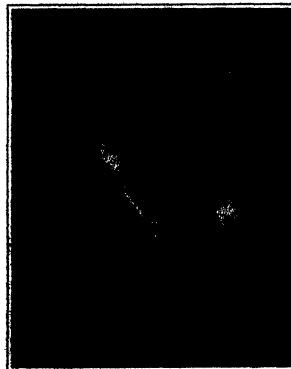


One of the earliest of Tesla's induction motors.

Although it weighed only a little over 20 pounds, it developed $\frac{1}{4}$ horsepower at a speed of 1,800 revolutions, a performance considered remarkable at the time.

but for them I would never have invented the induction motor.

In the first year of my studies at the Joanneum I rose regularly at three o'clock in the morning and worked till eleven at night, on Sundays or holidays excepted. My success was unusual and excited the interest of the professors. Among these was Dr. Allé, who lectured on differential equations and other branches of higher



Nikola Tesla.

mathematics and whose addresses were unforgettable intellectual traits, and Prof. Poeschl, who held the chair of Physics theoretical and experimental. These men I always remember with a sense of gratitude. Prof. Poeschl was peculiar. It was said of him that he wore the same coat for twenty years. But what he lacked in personal magnetism he made up in the perfection of his exposition. I never saw him miss a word or gesture, and his demonstrations and experiments always went off with clocklike precision. Some time in the winter of 1878 a new apparatus was installed in the lecture room. It was a dynamo with a laminated permanent magnet and a Gramme armature. Prof. Poeschl held wound some wire around the field to show the principle of self-excitation, and provided a battery for running the machine as a motor. As he was illustrating this latter feature there was lively sparking at the commutator and brushes, and I ventured to remark that these quites might be eliminated. He said that it was quite impossible and likened my proposal to a perpetual motion scheme, which amused my fellow students and embarrassed me greatly. For a time I hesitated, impressed by his authority, but my conviction grew stronger and I decided to work out the solution. At that time my resolve needed more to me than the most solemn vow.

I undertook the task with all the fire and boundless confidence of youth. To my mind it was simply a test of will-power. I knew nothing of the technical difficulties. All my reasoning time in Graz was passed in intense but fruitless effort, and I almost convinced myself that the problem was unsolvable. Indeed, I thought, was it possible to transform the steady pull of gravitation into a whirling force? The answer was an emphatic no. And was this not also true of magnetic attraction? The two propositions appeared very much the same.

In 1880 I went to Prague, Bohemia, carrying out my father's wish to complete my school education at a university. The atmosphere of that old and interesting city was favorable to invention. Hungry artists were plentiful and intelligent company could be found everywhere. Here I made the first distinct step in advance, by detaching the commutators from the machines and placing them on distant arbors. Every day I imagined arrangements on this plan without result, but feeling that I was nearing the solution. In the following year there was a sudden change in my views of life. I realized that my parents were making too great sacrifices for me and resolved to relieve them of the burden. The American telephone wave had reached the European continent, and the system was to be installed in Budapest. It appeared an ideal opportunity, and I took the train for that city. By an irony of fate my first employment was as a draughtsman. I hated drawing, it was for me the very worst of annoyances. Fortunately it was not long before I secured the position I sought, that of chief electrician to the telephone company. My duties brought me in contact with a number of young men in whom I became interested. One of these was Mr. Siklarty, who was a remarkable specimen of humanity. A big head with an awful lump on one side and a sallow complexion made him distinctly ugly, but from the neck down his body might have served for a statue of Apollo. His strength was phenomenal. At that time I had exhausted myself through hard work and incessant thinking. He impressed me with the necessity of systematic physical development, and I accepted his offer to train me in athletics. We exercised every day and I gained rapidly in strength. My mind also seemed to grow more vigorous and as my thoughts turned to the subject which absorbed me I was surprised to find the confidence of success. On one occasion, over present in my resolution, we were enjoying our strolls in the Városliget or City Park. I was reciting poetry, of which I was passionately fond. At that age I knew earthy books by heart and could read them from memory word by word. One of these was Faust. It was late in the afternoon, the sun was setting, and I was reminded of the passage:

"Sie rückt und weicht, der Tag ist überleitet,
Dort eilt sie hin und Eudert neues Leben,
Oh, das' kein Flügeln mich von Felsen heilt
Jhr nach und immer noch zu streben!"

Ach, zu des Irrenden Flügeln wird so leicht
Kein körperlicher Flügel sich gewöhnen!"

As I spoke the last words, plunged in thought and marvelling at the power of the poet, the idea came like

(Continued on page 578.)

Machines With Which Machines Are Made

A Brief History of the Development of Metal-Working Power-Driven Tools

HOW nearly the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN dates back to the very beginning of the machine tool industry in this country will be realized when it is known that the first planing machine was introduced into the country in 1830. Eight years later there were only four such machines in the United States, and when in 1845 the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN began its weekly record of progress in the mechanical arts, there was no hint of the tremendous development of the American machine tool industry that was soon to follow.

In the very earliest days it was the textile machinery that provided the most work for machine tools. Then the Mexican war produced great activity in the arms and ammunition factories, which resulted in the building of many machine tools and the development of a number of important improvements. The civil war and the sewing machine industry furnished other chapters in the progress of machine tools, and by 1878 they had developed to such an extent as to form the most remarkable feature of the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia. A glowing tribute to the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the American mechanical engineer was paid by Dr. John Anderson, who made a report to the British Parliament on machines and tools for working metal, wood and stone at the Exposition. He said: "The display of machine tools made by the United States was so vast that only the more salient points can be noted in a brief report. Americans as a rule are not copiers, the inventing of clever devices and tools for saving labor seems to be their natural forte, and, worthy of the old stock, they are probably quickened by the peculiarly favorable circumstances under which they live. It was the display made in this section which most conspicuously brought out the enormous strength of America as a producing power."

The textile industries continued to furnish the chief stimulus for the development of machine tools until the close of the century, when suddenly the automobile industry sprang into existence. At the same time the new high-speed tool steels were introduced. At the Paris Exposition in 1900 the public was astonished to see a machine taking such heavy cuts and at such a high speed that the shavings were at a blue heat, while the tool itself showed red hot even in daylight. Messrs. Taylor and White, two Americans experimenting with manganese and tungsten steel, had found a method of treating the alloys at high temperatures, which increased their efficiency greatly. The new steels increased the cutting speed of tools about 300 per cent. Immediately this had a wonderful influence upon the industry. Machines had to be redesigned to stand the enormous strains of taking such great cuts. At the same time the rapidly growing automobile industry furnished no end of capital for the development of all kinds of powerful and automatic machinery. The electric motor was introduced in the shop about this time, providing for individual drive, and hence a higher efficiency of operation.

Such in brief are the more important epochs in the development of machine tools.

Going back seventy years, we find that the lathe, the planer, the shaper, the slotting machine, the boring mill, and the drill had already been originated in England and introduced into this country. America's most valuable contributions to the machine tool industry were the turret lathe, which developed into the screw machine and the almost human automatic, and the milling machine, from which have grown certain types of gear cutting machines.

Some time between 1845 and 1853 Stephen Fitch,

pondering upon a method of producing screws more cheaply, hit upon the idea of furnishing his lathe with a number of tools set in a holder which could be revolved to bring them successively to the working position. This was the first revolving turret lathe, but the turret had to be turned by hand. In 1835 a machine was produced by the Jones & Lamson Machine Company, which had mechanism for turning the turret automatically, so that after a cut was finished with one tool the turret revolved a step and without any attention on the part of the operator would present the next tool to the work, without destroying the adjustment of the first, which would remain ready for the next piece when its turn came.

The next important advance in the turret lathe was made in 1889 by James Hartness, and patents on it were granted in 1891, and again in 1904. This was the introduction of a flat style of turret, which carries the tool holders upon the top instead of about its periphery.

These tool holders are designed to take simple turning and boring tools somewhat after the manner of the tool post of an engine lathe, and thus reduce the amount of tool-making required and adapt the machine to the production of parts in small lots. In addition to this, long pieces may be used in the machine, since, there being nothing in the way to prevent, the turret may pass under the piece without interfering. Another feature of this lathe is the mounting of the headstock upon a cross-slide, which performs the function of the cross-slide of an engine lathe and permits facing, necking, and internal undercuts to be done. The accompanying photograph shows the flat turret with cross-sliding headstock.

The machine is driven by a constant speed pulley, while in the headstock is a system of gearing which may be changed by means of the hand levers shown in the foreground of the photograph to provide nine different speeds.

In 1894 Conrad M. Conradson invented a lathe having a hole lengthwise through its spindle to adapt it for work "from the bar." The bar is of rough stock passed through the spindle and pushed forward and then gripped in the chuck after each piece has been finished and cut off. A tool slide having a crosswise movement only, though adjustable lengthwise of the lathe, is provided. This slide has two tool posts, of which the one in the rear, fitted with an inverted tool, may

be used for cutting a recess, rounding a corner, etc., as the case may be.

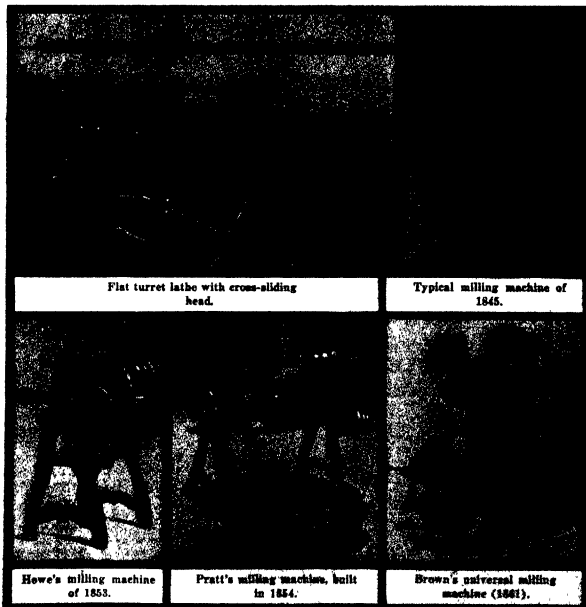
A vertical turret lathe appeared in 1891. This was invented by E. P. Bullard. In this lathe a supplementary cross-slide turret capable of carrying four tools is provided. Observation stops are used. Large micrometer dials carrying adjustable indexes are attached to the feed screw shafts, the sizes of the work being determined by the matching of these indexes against stationary indexes. The sizes of the work dealt with make impractical the use of the usual special tools set for outer diameters. Accordingly, the tools used are like those used in engine lathes, the outer diameters as well as the lengths of the pieces made being determined by the observation stops.

Up to 1908 the utility of the vertical turret lathes was limited in that the tool of neither crosshead nor slidehead could be fed at an oblique angle to the table, a requirement demanded by a large class of work. The cutting capacity of the slide tool was also limited in that the slidehead in its upward travel struck the cross-guide ways before the tool reached a height from the table corresponding to that of the underside of the guideways which determine the range of the vertical cut. E. P. Bullard in 1908 invented a machine eliminating these restrictions and limitations. In this machine the two heads are so designed that the cutting tool of each has a transverse and longitudinal movement. The full axial and radial swing of the rotary table and are so combined that the respective tools may be brought into close contact with each other anywhere within their sphere of operation, and in that position fed conjointly crosswise or lengthwise of the axis of rotation of the work. The two tools, for example, may be conjointly used on a crosswise or lengthwise reaching cut. This machine by joint use of the tools does twice as much work as could formerly be done by either tool alone.

The development of the turret lathe is still proceeding. Less than two years ago two important improvements were disclosed. J. C. Potter in his patent granted September 26th, 1915, devised an automatic turret lathe capable of operating at a higher speed than known before. In this machine the mechanism by which the turret slide is moved when the cam is not acting thereon can be made to move the turret slide at a much higher speed than it can be moved by the cam, and the movement of the cam drum can be timed so that the proper cam is in readiness to begin its work the instant that the other slide-moving mechanism finishes its portion of the movement of the turret slide.

W. L. Miller was granted a patent December 16th, 1915, for an automatic turret lathe in which are two intermittently moving drums, each of which having applied thereto, in various positions thereon, cam blocks which in turn, as the drums are rotated, engage the lower ends of certain levers, the upper ends of which are connected to the several mechanisms through which changes of speed and direction of movement of the operating parts that engage the work are effected. The shaft on which these drums are mounted is connected with the pulley or main driving shaft of the machine through driving connections which are normally idle, but are adapted to be rendered active by certain trip devices automatically thrown into operation to move or index the drum around one or more steps by trips or projections carried by the several moving parts that are controlled as to their speed and direction of movement by the intermittently moving cam drums.

By this mechanism, the operator, moving in advance the various ap-



Flat turret lathe with cross-sliding head.

Typical milling machine of 1845.

Howe's milling machine of 1853.

Pratt's milling machine, built in 1854.

Brown's universal milling machine (1861).

to be performed upon a given piece of work, the piece is fed, the proper feeds to be given each tool, and the proper spindle speeds, sets the chucks on the drums accordingly to produce automatically the predetermined movements and speeds; places the work in the chuck, and applies the power to the main shaft pulley. The machine then automatically performs these several operations in proper order or succession, and automatically stops when they are completed, leaving it to the operator only to remove the finished work and insert in the chuck a new piece of work. The utility of this improvement is obvious.

It was Eli Whitney, of the cotton gin fame, who in 1815 invented the first milling machine, and built a machine of this type at about that time in New Haven, Conn. When the Bensonic Automatic first came into being the milling machine had been improved to the extent of having vertical adjustment for the cutter spindle. "A machine of this type" is shown in one of the accompanying photographs. It was built by Gay Silver & Co. of North Chelmsford, Mass. In 1863 Frederick W. Howe, then in the employ of Robbins & Lawrence of Windsor, Vt., developed a milling machine which is the prototype of what has since been known as the Lincoln miller. The Lincoln miller was designed by F. A. Pratt of the Pratt & Whitney Company in 1864.

In 1861 Joseph R. Brown of the Brown & Sharpe Manufacturing Company developed the universal milling machine, which contained the vital principles of the universal milling machine of to-day. This machine was designed to cut spiral grooves in twist drills which had been worked out by hand prior to that date. The accompanying cut of the machine is reproduced from the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of December 27th, 1902. Many of these machines were built and sold during the Civil

the starting and stopping of the machine are normally controlled by the operator.

The development of cylindrical grinding began about fifty years ago. Such grinding was done in a crude way as early as 1860. Owing to the necessity of finishing needle and foot bars for sewing machines, the Brown & Sharpe Company built a grinding machine which was put on the market in 1864 and 1905. This consisted of a 14-inch lathe with a wheel stand mounted upon the carriage. It was provided with a reversing speed mechanism. Ten years later came the universal grinder invented by Joseph R. Brown, which was exhibited at the Centennial Exposition.

During the early fifties hand-operated gear-cutting machines were in use, and in 1855 Mr. Joseph R. Brown designed and built a precision gear-cutting machine adapted not only for cutting gears, but for index drilling and circular grinding.

As is well known, there are three basic systems of gear cutting: the formed tool system, the generating system, of which the hobbing system is a development, and the template system.

William Sellers & Co. in 1886 were the first to perform the functions of the tool system automatically, some of the machines then made being still in use in the Sellers shops. The first commercial automatic machine, however, was produced by Brown & Sharpe in 1877. In the latter machine the action is entirely automatic, the feed and return of cutter and the indexing of the blank from tooth to tooth requiring no attention on the part of the operator, who has but to remove the completed gears and supply their place with blanks.

The generating system of gear cutting was invented by Hugo Bilgram in 1864. The purpose of this machine was to produce level gears, for which at that time no satisfactory method of production was available.

E. R. Fellows is the leading representative of the generating system in his patents of 1891, 1907, 1908, 1911 and 1912. In the Fellows machines the cutter and blank revolve slowly as the cutter reciprocates vertically. It also is generated from an ideal or imaginary rack tooth represented by the side of an abrasive grinding wheel, the final generation being done after the cutter is hardened. These machines are of the highest degree of precision.

The hobbing process of gear cutting is a modification of the generating system and was originally done in Germany. The hob is represented by a worm, which cuts the gear. In action the hob is adjusted at an angle such that the tangent to the hob is parallel with the teeth to be cut. The feed is double, that is, the gear blank revolves, and as it does so the hob is fed slowly across it. The cut is continuous, the gear being completed as the hob leaves its farther edge. By suitable adjustments bevel gears may be cut with the same ease as spur gears.

The template system of gear cutting is most commonly used for large cut mill gears. Obviously, for such gears the cost of special cutters is prohibitive while a template costs but little.

By a suitable feeding mechanism the tool is guided by rollers which ride on the templates. But one of the templates is in position at a time in actual use, thus avoiding interference with each other.

The application of the template system to cutting bevel gears is done in the Gleason shops. The arm which carries the planing tool moves about the cone center of the gear to be cut, and its movement is guided by the template on which a roller attached to the arm rides. The template has the outline of the desired tooth profile suitably enlarged to provide for its increased distance from the cone center.



War, and following the Paris Exposition of 1889, where one was exhibited, a start was made in selling the American milling machine abroad. This was one of the factors leading to the establishing of an extensive business in American machine tools in foreign countries.

The most recent development in this type of machine is found in the semi-automatic machine of the Cincinnati Milling Machine Company. Two milling heads for simultaneous operations on both sides of the work are used, although single-head machines are also made by this company. The feature of these machines is the provision of an automatic quick return to the work table, and also an automatic increase in the forward movement for the numerous cases in which the surface to be machined is not continuous. A double set of dogs for controlling the feed mechanism is attached to the side of the work table. The work being properly chucked and one of the levers tripped, the table goes quickly forward at a rate of 100 inches per minute until the first surface to be machined reaches the cutter, when the motion automatically slows down to whatever feed has been selected, and this continues until one of the feeds is nullified. As soon as the cutter has passed this first face, the table automatically speeds up again to one hundred inches per minute, until the second face of the work reaches the cutter. Again the work proceeds at the speed selected, and, passing the second face, speeds up again, then slows down again when the third face is completed, feeds along the third face, and when this is completed, the table automatically returns at 100 inches per minute to the starting point.

Because of these movements the machine is semi-automatic, that is, the movements of the table are automatic, but the movements of the work are controlled by the operator. The chucking of the work and

In the first Bilgram machine the action was not fully automatic, but the later ones were. In these machines the straight-sided tool which represents one side of a rack tooth is mounted upon a ram driven precisely like a shaping machine ram. The gear blank is mounted below the tool upon a suitable arbor supported at its rear end by a conical segment which rolls upon a plane surface below it. The conical segment is a portion of the pitch surface of the gear to be cut, extended to the opposite nappes of the cone, while the plane surface is a portion of the pitch surface of the imaginary crown gear of which the cutting tool represents one side of a tooth.

The patents of J. E. Gleason in 1908, 1907, and 1910 disclosed many improvements on the Bilgram machine. In the Gleason machines the imaginary rack represented by two tools travels endwise with the feed, the gear blank turning upon its center, which does not change its position. The tools are mounted and reciprocate in guides on an arm which oscillates about the cone center of the gear blank cut. This oscillation being obtained by a horizontal yoke and vertical connecting rod. This yoke is secured to the main spindle and carries a segment gear, the pitch cone of this segment being identical with that of the gear blank being cut.

Mounted on the tool carrying arm is a second segment gear in mesh with the first. The second segment is a segment of a crown gear, its pitch plane being identical with that of the ideal crown gear tooth represented by the cutting tool. As the yoke oscillates it turns the gear blank with it, while the meshing of the segments compels the tool arm to oscillate and to carry the cutting tools past the blank in the same relation as a crown gear tooth in mesh with a tooth on the blank. The action of these machines is fully automatic.

Such in brief is the story of machine tools down to the present day, but their history is not yet finished. American mechanical engineers are renowned the world over, and they are as active as ever in producing improvements and in making machines that will work steadily without the slightest attention, bringing one tool after another into action and turning out most intricate pieces of work, as long as they are supplied with the stock to work upon.

Some Early American Patents

It is reported that the first American patent for a piano was issued to James S. Melson of New Jersey, May 27th, 1796, the first United States patent for washing machine was to Nathaniel Briggs of New Hampshire, March 28th, 1797, first United States patent for steam engine was to James Rumsey, August 20th, 1791; first United States patent for gas engine was to Samuel Brown of England, March 2nd, 1821, and that the first United States patent for air engine was to E. and J. Prentiss of Baltimore, June 22nd, 1824.

Richard M. Hoe's first United States patent for printing machine was granted May 20th, 1842, last patent April 27th, 1880.

John Ericsson issued his first United States patent February 1st, 1838, when he lived in Sweden; his second patent was issued November 5th, 1840, while he still resided in Sweden; a third patent issued in December, 1844, when he was living in New York; the last patent issued to him was on December 6th, 1887, while a later patent issued to his executors July 8th, 1890.

Thomas A. Edison's first patent issued June 1st, 1869, No. 90,696; many hundreds of patents have been issued to him since that date, the Patent Office fees alone running up into thousands of dollars.



Alfred Ely Beach, Founder of Munn & Co.

Seventy Years of the Scientific American

How the Scientific American Was Founded and How It Grew from Very Small Beginnings: the Active Part Played by Its Editors in Stimulating Public Interest in Science and Invention



Orson Desaix Munn, Founder of Munn & Co.

TO picture adequately the part which the **SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN** has played for nearly seventy years would necessitate the writing of a complete history of modern science. So interwoven is the career of the greatest popular scientific paper ever published with the great discoveries and inventions that each issue, beginning with September 7th, 1845, may be regarded as a cross section of the scientific knowledge of the day.

The **SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN** as we know it today is a monument to the untiring energy and enthusiasm of Mr. Orson D. Munn and Mr. Alfred E. Beach, who composed the original partnership of Munn & Co.

Mr. Beach had been brought up in the office of the *New York Sun*, of which his father, Moses Yale Beach, was the proprietor. It was but natural that the first office of Munn & Co. should have been located in the old Sun Building, on the corner of Fulton and Nassau streets, in New York city.

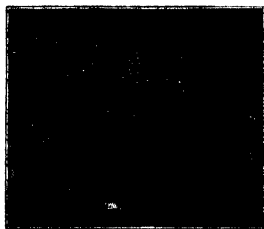
The first issue, which bears the date September 7th, 1845, was about as large as a modern daily newspaper. There were only four pages. That first issue boldly declares that "The **SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN** is the advocate of industry and the journal of mechanical and other improvements." Apparently there was not much industry to advocate or many mechanical improvements to record; for the editor found space enough to publish poetry, dissertations on temperance, and brief articles on such curious topics as "The Utility of Tribulations," "The Evil Influence of Fashion," "Street Roggers," "Oriental Servility," and "Church Benevolence."

When the **SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN** was first published the great achievements of the century were Dargy's discovery of the electric arc light and of electrolysis; Oersted's and Ampere's electro-dynamic discoveries; Daguerre's method of photographing; Henry's and Faraday's discoveries in induction; and Joule's determination of the mechanical equivalent of heat.

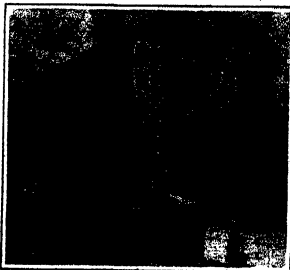
Restraining the Advertiser.

As interesting historically as the editorial page are the advertising columns of the **SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN**. Among the first advertisements that appeared was one of Adams & Co., offering to transmit "valuable packages and parcels of every description" from Philadelphia to New York at the unprecedented rate of three days. The modern kodak advertisement finds its counterpart in advertisements of apparatus for making daguerotypes. By 1849 the advertisements had increased so alarmingly that the publishers considered it their duty to apologize in the issue of May 5th, 1849,

for printing the unpardonable number of two and one half columns of advertising. To restrain the advertiser as much as possible, there appeared for some years



Patent Department of Munn & Co. in 1849. From a contemporary print.



The Scientific American offices at 37 Park Row, 1859-1882.

at the head of the advertising section of the **SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN** a notice (it was almost a warning) that read

One square of eight lines, 60 cents for each insertion.

One square of 12 lines, 75 cents for each insertion.

One square of 16 lines, \$1 for each insertion.

Advertisements should not exceed sixteen lines, and rates cannot be inserted in connection with them at any price.

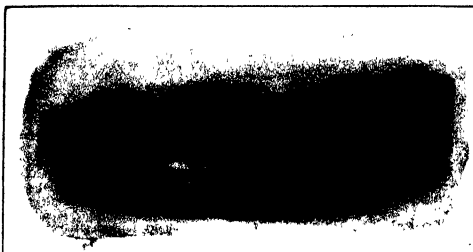
Time and the increasing importance of advertising to modern journalism changed that haughty attitude. "Display copy," as it is now called, was accepted in any amount in the late seventies.

It is curious the way in which firms, then small but now colossal, announced their readiness to serve the public. The Lamb Knitting Machine Company, the Otis Elevator Company, Jones & Laughlin, the American Bell Telephone Company, the Westinghouse Company, corporations now of international importance, stated the nature of their business with the formal politeness and ceremonious phraseology of a wedding invitation. Later, when the psychological effect of advertising was better understood, they became more direct, more personal in their appeal. One of the pioneers in that direction was George B. Eastman, who selected the **SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN** as the first medium in which to advertise the kodak.

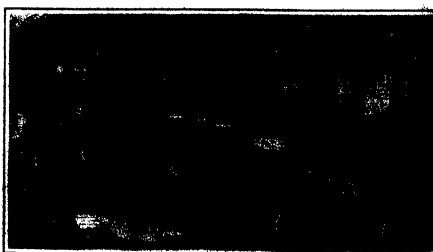
How the Patent Department Was Created.

Because it was the only scientific paper of 1845, the office soon became a meeting place for inventors. Out of this intimate relation sprang the necessity of creating a special department for inventors, a department to give advice on the patenting of inventions and on patent law. From its very inception that department has proved the most successful patent agency ever tabulated. Among its clients have been such distinguished men as Samuel F. B. Morse, inventor of the telegraph; Elias Howe and A. B. Wilson, famous for their sewing machine inventions; Capt. James B. Eads, the distinguished builder of the great Mississippi bridge; Capt. John Ericsson, designer of the "Monitor"; Dr. R. J. Gatling, inventor of the Gatling gun; Peter Cooper Hewitt, inventor of the mercury arc light; Cornelius Vanderbilt, Col. J. J. Astor, Dr. Leo Baekeland, the chemist; Henry Guy Carlton, the dramatist, and Thomas A. Edison.

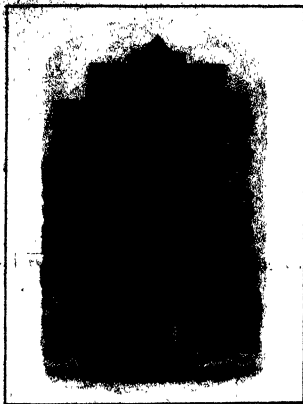
Some of the inventions patented by these men and others have been noteworthy. Among them may be mentioned the mercury arc light, the centrifugal snow plow, the kodak, the Murray page-printing telegraph, the Edison telegraph improvements, the Livingston editors, the Hartshorn shade roller, Emerson's Bromo-Seitzer.



United States Patent Office and Munn & Co.'s first office in Washington. (From an old print of 1859.)



Interior of Scientific American offices at 37 Park Row, 1882-1889. Here many famous inventors of the day came for advice.



Scientific American Building, Washington.

Is it any wonder that inventions which have proved the foundations of great industries were thus first brought to the notice of the publishers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, long before the general public, or even the Patent Office, ever heard of them?

A. B. Wilson and the Sewing Machine. Thus, one day, A. B. Wilson, a journeyman cabinet maker, came from Pittsfield, Mass., to lay before the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN the model of a sewing machine. He had been derided by his neighbors, all of whom regarded it as rather foolish to sew by machine. His invention proved to be a distinct improvement in the art, and its four-motion feed, essentially embodied in the Wheeler & Wilson sewing machine, made its inventor wealthy. The world first heard of it through the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of November 24th, 1840.

Thomas A. Edison, too, was a visitor in the early days of his brilliant career. In 1877, he came to the office and placed before the editors a small machine, about which he offered very few preliminary remarks. He turned a crank and, on the manifestation of every-present, the machine said: "Good morning. How do you do? How do you like the talking box?" That was the first public audience in which the modern phonograph ever addressed itself. So, too, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN editors were among the first who ever saw the electric incandescent lamp, the kinetoscope, the Edison dynamo, and the score of famous inventions with which the name Edison is now identified.

Alfred E. Beach's Scientific American Tunnel.

The proprietors of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN took more than a journalistic interest in invention. One of them, Mr. Alfred E. Beach, was an inventor of note himself. To him we owe the one of the first really successful typewriters and the first practical attempt at tunneling by means of a shield.

It was the transportation problem of New York, a problem which seems to have given as much concern in 1916 as it does now, that aroused the interest of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN in the possibility of constructing rapid transit subways. When hardly four years old, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN began the agitation of a national engineering solution of New York's problem. In the issue of November 3rd, 1840, appeared an editorial entitled "An Undiscovered Railroad in Broadway," in which we read:

"The plan is to tunnel Broadway through the whole length, with openings in stairways at every corner. This subterranean passage is to be laid down with a double track, with a road for the foot passengers on either side—the whole to be brilliantly lighted with gas. The cars, which are to be drawn by horses, will stop at intervals at every corner, thus performing the duty of an omnibus, including stoppages, in about an hour."

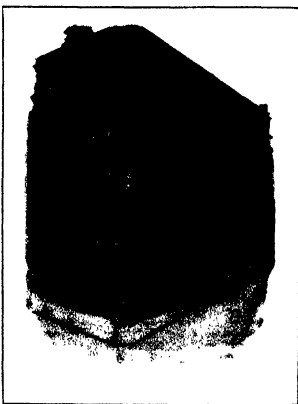
Later, after just the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, in company with the newspapers of the day,

berated the city authorities for their negligence in providing adequate transportation. Finally, Mr. A. E. Beach determined to attack the problem himself. Time and time again he had advocated the construction of a subway, only to be derided in the public press. His proposals must have been very exciting for the New York Times, in its issue of March 15th, 1889, protested:

"It is said that the city is quite likely to grant a charter to build what is called an arcade railroad under Broadway. We would scarcely believe it. When this wild scheme was dismised a year or two ago, we hoped and believed that we had heard the last of it—and so did everybody else."

Eventually Mr. Beach secured legislative authority to build a pneumatic tube from Warren to Cedar Street through which parcels were to be blown from one end to the other.

(Obtaining a franchise meant the paying of tribute to the politicians of the day. Mr. Beach, therefore, determined to build his subway furtively, without the formality of asking for a franchise. In six nights, a gang of men had secretly dug out a tunnel extending from Broadway and Warren Street to Broadway and Murray Street. The dirt was carried to the cellar of a structure that occupied the site on which the Rogers-Past Building now stands, and dumped there. A Tribune reporter, disguised as a workman, gained access to the subway. On the following day his paper published a complete exposure of the scheme. New York shared Horace Greeley's astonishment and indignation. To counteract the Tribune's attacks, and to prove to the public that the scheme was not utterly impracticable, Mr. Beach decided to throw the subway open to the public and to permit a general inspection of the tunnel, with its



New York Office 1883-1895.

car and the big machine that blew the car from one end of the tunnel to the other. An admission fee of 25 cents was charged, and the proceeds were given to charity.

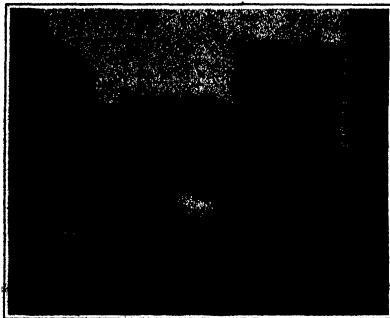
What New Yorkers saw is thus described in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of February 19th, 1870:

"Let the reader imagine a cylindrical tube, eight feet in the clear, bricked up and white washed, neat, clean, dry, and quiet. Along the bottom of this tube is laid a railroad track, and on this track runs a spacious car, richly upholstered, well lighted, and with plenty of space for exit. The whole arrangement is as comfortable and cozy as the front basement dining-room of a first-class city residence. The tunnel has not only the positive comforts described, but is absolutely free from the discomforts of surface car travel. The track is single and level. It is not cold in winter. It will be delightfully cool in summer. The air will be constantly changed in it by the action of the blowing machine. The filthy, health-destroying, patience-trying street dust, of which uptown residents get not only their fill, but more than their fill, so that it runs over and collects on their hair, their beards, and eyebrows, and floats in their dress like the vapor on a frosty morning, will never be found in the tunnel."

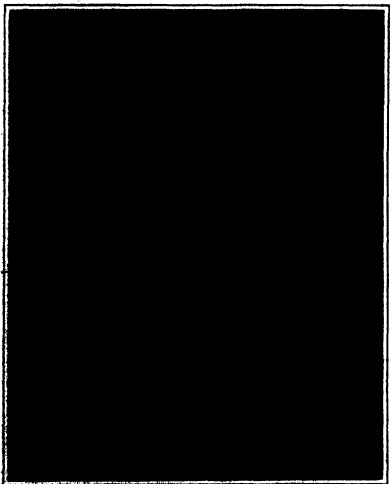
On the first day, a great stream of people passed through the tunnel, 21 feet beneath Broadway. At the Murray Street end stood the car. It fitted the tunnel like the carrier of a pneumatic tube, which it really was. The tunnel itself was "brilliantly illuminated" by gas, as one enthusiastic contemporary account remarks. Eighteen persons at a time took their seats in the car, were blown from one end of the tunnel to the other by compressed air from a 100 horse-power plant, and were sucked back when the blowing apparatus was reversed.

For a year the car traveled back and forth beneath Broadway. It was Mr. Beach's intention to excavate the whole length and breadth of Broadway, to lay his tracks, and to rejoin the street by building a roof over the trench—a complete anticipation of the "cut and fill" method which was actually adopted in constructing the present subway, many years afterward. New York was convinced. The Times ended by approving the system. But when Mr. Beach tried to have a bill passed authorizing him to complete his scheme, he found himself face to face with Tammany Hall. His bill was passed, but so was a Tammany bill, authorizing the construction of an elevated railroad at a cost of five million dollars, to be paid out of the city treasury. A Tammany Governor vetoed the Beach measure and signed the Tammany bill. The newspapers that had at first bitterly opposed the subway were in a rage. There was nothing for it but to close the short tunnel that had actually been built single-handed by the editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

After this experience it is not astonishing



On January 21st, 1882, the Scientific American Building on Park Row was destroyed by fire.



Copyright by J. B. McWhorter.

The Scientific American's new home in the Woolworth Building.

that the elevated railroad was hotly opposed in the columns of the *Scientific American*. The arguments advanced against the present structure that disfigures two of New York's principal avenues can be more fully appreciated now than they were then, verified, as they have been, by time and experience.

Advocating Better Railways.

Year after year, the *Scientific American* urged the need of better and speedier transportation, not only in the city of New York, but throughout the country. It performed a useful service in advocating the construction of transcontinental railways. As early as 1849 it began to agitate the advisability of linking the Atlantic and Pacific coasts by rail, and played a conspicuous part in the press campaign that molded public opinion and eventually brought that great undertaking to a successful consummation.

The possibilities of the Panama Canal, too, were early pointed out. In the very year of its foundation, the *Scientific American* broached the subject of the utilization of the Isthmus. The first projects proposed in the editorial column advocated a railway on which ships were to be bodily transported across the Isthmus. "Let a permanent double-track railway be constructed," said the *Scientific American* of November 26th, 1848, "and supplied with 32-wheeled cars; and ordinary merchant vessels may be transported from the Atlantic to the Pacific, or vice versa, in from ten to twenty hours." Hardly a year passed but some reference was to be found in the editorial columns of the vital importance of connecting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

The *Scientific American* and the Automobile.
The automobile has been a familiar vehicle on our public streets only for the past twelve years. Forty

years before its advent the *Scientific American* was publishing articles on the motor car, beginning with the fifth issue in 1865. Year after year, space was given to the ideas of inventors who knew that some day the motor-driven vehicle would displace the horse-drawn carriages in the blackness of futurity, most of them; wonderful glimpses of later developments, many of them; possible visions of bustling streets and jangling engines, all of them. It was through the *Scientific American* that the United States first heard of Cugnot, Trevithick, Guernay, Church, and Lenoir. When the automobile did appear at last, it seemed to its readers not like a sudden apparition, but as a vehicle with which they had always been familiar.

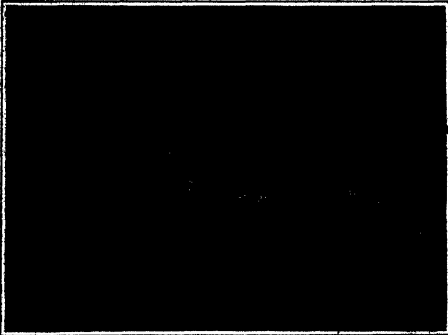
The *Scientific American* and Aerial Navigation.
Simultaneously with articles on automobiles appeared articles on aerial navigation. The *Scientific American*



New offices of Munn & Co., in the Woolworth Building.



Three of the fourteen private offices of Munn & Co.'s patent staff.



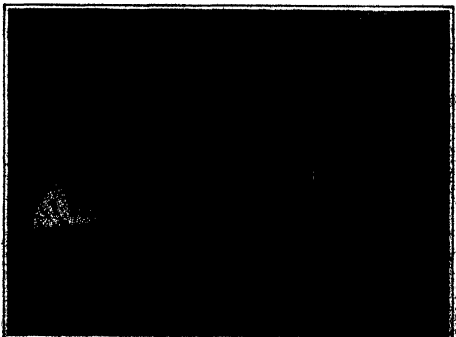
Where the draughtsmen prepare patent drawings.



Library and Waiting Room, Main Office.



The Book Department.



Where the correspondence, models and other records are kept.

only four numbers old when its editor announced the intention of constructing a dirigible airship 250 feet long and 85 feet in diameter, a long cigar-shaped craft, that may well be regarded in some respects as an anticipation of our modern dirigibles. "To drive it," said the Editor, "we have already constructed and put in operation a steam engine and boiler, capable of working two horse-powers, but weighing only 200 pounds." He had the safety of his passengers in mind, too, for "the balloon," he stated, "will be furnished with an improved parachute for each passenger, of which each may avail himself in less than one minute in case of extraordinary emergency, and thus descend safely on terra firma, much easier than he could paddle himself to shore on a cotton bale even from the middle of Long Island Sound." Encouraged by the Editor's optimism, inventors of aeronautic machinery turned to the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for advice and criticism. For over half a century it was the only periodical in this country that took the airship and aeroplane seriously and that devoted any amount of space to aerial navigation. Hence it was that the most distinguished aeronauts of the day were personal friends of the Editor. Among them was John Wise, the Nestor of American ballooning. He was not always pleased with the Editor's strictures, and voiced his disapproval in a spirited letter published in the issue of October 12th, 1849.

Although it believed in aerial navigation, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN performed a useful service by mercilessly ridiculing the more preposterous flapping-wing machines and screw-driven and by publishing simply worded, accurate information for the benefit of the inventor of airships and flying machines.

And so the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN contributed its share to the development of this newest of all methods of transportation, contributed it, moreover, by playing the part of an open-minded tutor. When the dirigible was scoring its first successes, and the heavier-than-air ma-

than-air machines, the first aviation prize of its kind in this country. Designed as a challenge trophy, the winning of which was to be made increasingly difficult as the art of flying progressed, the prize passed finally into the hands of Mr. Glenn H. Curtiss in 1910. When Mr. Edwin Gould cast about for a medium through which he could offer a prize of \$15,000 "for the most perfect and practicable heavier-than-air machine . . . equipped with two or more power plants," he selected the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, for reasons that

must have seemed obvious to those who knew how great a part the paper had played in recording the development of the flying machine.

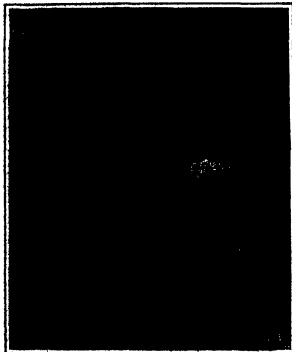
No less interesting to those who directed the destinies of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN than aerial navigation was the development of the modern battleship. From the year in which Ericsson's "Monitor" was launched (of which primitive craft the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN published what was long the only authoritative picture) to the present day, every improvement in the ironclad fighting ship has been noted.

The Scientific American and Its Subscribers.

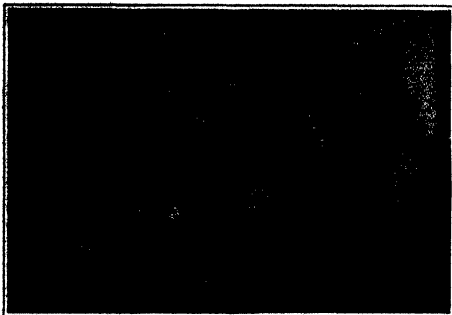
From the very inception of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, the editor and the subscribers have been more closely connected than is usual, even in these days of paternal magazine editing. The periodical was always regarded by the publishers as something more than a mere commercial venture. They have always felt that they owed a duty to the subscribers, and a duty that did not end in giving an amount of printed matter equivalent in value to the price of an annual subscription. Accordingly, no letter asking the editor for information is allowed to go unanswered. Often the response entails an amount of research worth many times the amount of the subscription. As a mark of appreciation of the services thus rendered, Mr. T. R. Bowman of Adelaide, South Australia, voluntarily presented the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN with a gold medal in 1896. The letter that accompanied his gift, which is probably unique in the history of magazine publishing, reads:

"I forward this token to the editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN as a souvenir of thanks for the many favors, information, and instruction I have derived from the perusal of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for the last twenty-seven years, also for your kindness in giving me at different times information by letter."

For several decades the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN stood practically alone in the particular field which it covered. Launched in a new country, destitute of great libraries,



The Law Library of Mann & Mann.



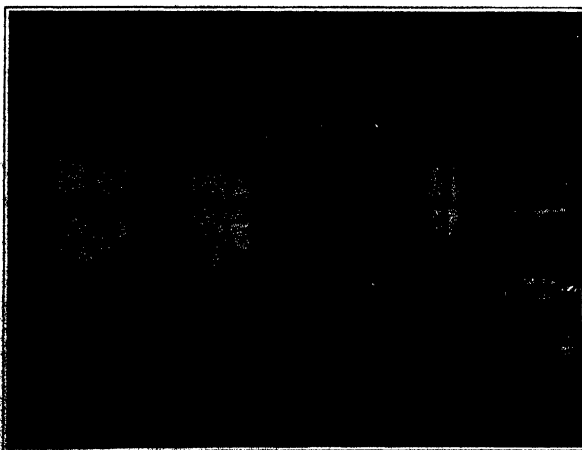
Subscription Department of the Scientific American publications.



The Advertising Department of the Scientific American.

chine figured only in novels, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN insisted that the aeroplane was the air vehicle of the future. Langley's unsuccessful attempt to launch his man-carrying machine in 1903, was made the subject of derisive editorials in almost every newspaper of the country. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN alone defended Langley, and pointed out that his aeroplane was no more defective than a ship which had never been launched.

It is true that the Wright brothers were regarded with a skeptical eye at first; but that was because they flew in secret and would tell nothing. Later, when the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN made an investigation and questioned citizens of Dayton, who had actually seen the machine fly, it secured the Wright brothers' strongest support. When it came, the publication allowed the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN to publish the famous 1903 Wright brothers' newspaper.

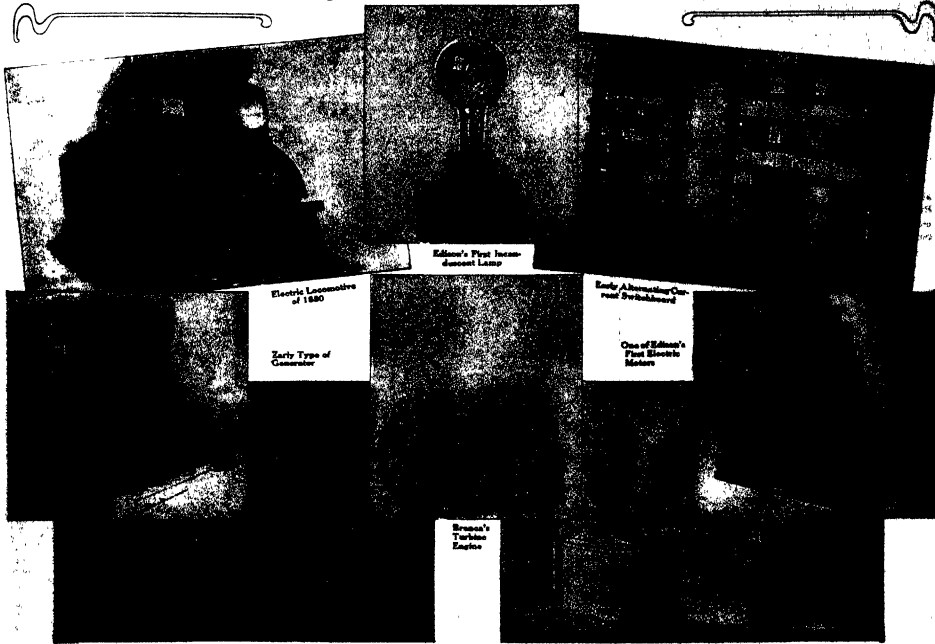


A corner of the Editorial Rooms.

great museums, or great universities, it served to a limited degree, it may be, but with distinct success, the purposes of all three. Not a few of the men who stand at the head of the great industrial institutions of the United States recall the hopeful days of their boyhood and their young manhood, when their chief source of instruction in the great happenings of that world in which they were about to make venture was the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Thousands of men who are now engineers and manufacturers received their first tiding of mechanical (or electrical) engineering from the pages of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. Thomas A. Edison has related that as a boy he used to walk three miles every week to get his SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. For nearly seventy years, home after home has explained with a simplicity that has appealed to every earnest student, unfamiliar with the phraseology of

MAKING A NEW INDUSTRY

The Phenomenal Development of Electrical Apparatus in the Last Two Decades



First Edison Electric Lighting Station in New York City
Only a few years ago Edison perfected the first incandescent electric lamp and built the first central distributing station in New York City. The advance of the electrical industry from this humble beginning, which is depicted above, has been truly wonderful.

THE great industrial development of electricity began when the General Electric Company was organized in May, 1882. This marked the birth of a new industry, which was destined to become the marvel of the age in a few short years. Never in the history of manufacturing had such progress been recorded. Invention followed invention, discovery added to discovery, until it seemed as though the public was introduced to new electrical achievements every day.

The consolidation of several minor and struggling electric concerns into the General Electric Company was for the purpose of bringing together and harmonizing divergent methods and, by uniting different patents, of securing a more perfect product. Up to that hour, electric lighting, electric power and electric traction had remained in the experimental stage. Never before in the industrial world did organization effect a more magical change in releasing latent energy. Guided by master hands, electricity leaped into industrial pre-eminence. The value of manufactured appliances multiplied; invention took on added impulse; public confidence in electricity increased. The Company gathered together the ablest minds of the day and placed within their reach unlimited means and the resources of the world as an aid to inventive genius. Written throughout the wonderful development of electrical science and arts is the history of the General Electric Company.

The Development of Electric Light

The Arc Lamp

Many years ago, in experimenting with electric phenomena, luminous effects were noted, but the actual history of electric arc lighting dates back only to 1858. Sir Humphrey Davy, with his chemical battery, in 1800 demonstrated the first crude arc light. But the arc lamp remained a costly laboratory experiment until the development of the dynamo in 1867. The modern period of arc lighting is credited to Z. T. Gramme, a Belgian inventor residing in Paris. His first patent was issued in 1870. In 1870 Jablotchoff, a Russian, perfected a method for controlling the arc, and the new lamps were soon in use in stores and streets. Charles F. Brush and Edmund Weston developed the series arc lighting now in use. The first Brush series arc lamp was erected in Cleveland in 1870. The first central station to operate arc lamps was the California Electric Light Company in San Francisco in 1879. The arc lamp was the foundation of the electrical industry and the experimental work to sub-divide the arc led to the discovery of the incandescent lamp.

From this humble beginning have been developed the present luminous arc lamps manufactured by the General Electric Company. These are made in two general types, known as the pendant and ornamental types. The former is designed for general street lighting, while the latter is adapted particularly for lighting business streets, or so-called "White Way" lighting.

The Incandescent Lamp

When the commercial world demanded electric lamps similar to the gas lamp then in use, such inventors as Swan, Edison, Brush, Sawyer, Weston and Maxim directed their exclusive efforts to solve the problem. As early as 1841 De Moleyna patented in England an electric lamp of crude form, in which a platinum wire enclosed in an exhausted globe was made incandescent by electricity. A few years later Starr of Cincinnati devised another lamp consisting of thin strips of graphite enclosed in a glass globe. No permanent lamp resulted from this early work and the scheme was declared impractical up to the very day Thomas A. Edison produced the first successful electric lamp.

Thomas A. Edison, a young man who had already shown his wonderful genius by the invention of the quadruplex telegraph, the telephone receiver and the phonograph, began his epoch-making work on the electric lamp in his little laboratory at Menlo Park, N. J., and in the small Edison shops in New York City, nearly forty years ago. In those years of 1878 and 1879 work went on day and night, and the entire field of science and the world at large were ransacked for a suitable filament for the new lamp.

It was the twenty-first day of October, 1879, when Edison announced to the world that the incandescent electric lamp had been found. Bamboo was selected for the tiny hair-like lamp filament and the tropical world was searched for the different kinds of bamboo in order that the best might be chosen. For the next eight years the lamps were made with bamboo filaments, after which a squirted cellulose was used.

During the first ten years of the new lamp, its efficiency was increased to 31 watts per candle and a reasonable commercial life obtained. For nearly twenty years there was no improvement in the efficiency of the lamp until the technical staff of the Research Laboratories of the General Electric Company developed the metallized carbon filament of 2.5 watts per candle. This led to the development in Europe of processes for making filaments from several of the rare metals, such as osmium, tantalum and tungsten, and within a few years the Research Laboratories developed ductile drawn tungsten wire, which, with other improvements, revolutionized the lamp industry by increasing the commercial life of the lamp and reducing its consumption to 1.5 watts per candle.

While investigating the causes of discoloration in lamp bulbs, produced by the gradual disintegration of the filament, the Research Laboratories made another important discovery. By filing the bulb with an inert gas the discoloration was reduced and at the same time it permitted the operation of the filament at higher temperature. Contemporaneously, a new method was found for mounting the filament. These improvements increased the efficiency of the lamp to 0.5 watts per candle in the larger sizes and to about 120 watts per candle in the smaller sizes.

The introduction and general adoption of the Mazda lamp has been literally nothing short of a revolution in

the art of interior illumination, with a correspondingly tremendous effect on exterior lighting.

The Development of the Central Station Idea

The development of the central station in the past 45 years is one of the many modern miracles that electricity has brought into this busy and progressive world. The history of this wonderful growth is best told in the difference between the 6 kw. generators of the first central station and the mammoth 35,000 kw. machines of today.

The first central station was installed at Menlo Park, N. J., by Thomas A. Edison in the winter of 1880-81 to demonstrate the practicability of his new incandescent electric lamp. At the same time a central station system was started in New York City, the generating station being located near the corner of Fulton and Pearl Streets. The equipments consisted of six direct-connected units, each having a capacity of about seven hundred 15-candle-power lamps. This plant was started on the 4th of September, 1882, with 5,500 lamps connected. While this station was being equipped, a small water power station was built at Appleton, Wis., and placed in operation first. The development and growth of the central station, outside of New York, did not begin until some years later.

Today there are nearly 6,000 central stations in this country alone and the annual business totals many millions of dollars. The engineering talent of the General Electric Company has been devoted to the invention and design of central station and also substation equipment from the very beginning of the central station idea. Even after the invention of generators, motors and lamps, the manner of installation of these machines, methods of control, records of performance and systems of distribution of the current had to be devised and have been perfected constantly by this company. Apparatus of the General Electric Company is now operating in central stations in every section of this country and is almost every country in the world.

[Electricity] Solves Transportation Problem

Early attempts to use electricity as a motive power resulted in a few scientific toys before 1880. Thomas Davenport, the Vermont blacksmith who invented the electric motor in 1835, constructed a toy car which ran around a circular track. Three years later a Scotch inventor made a small electric locomotive. A number of such locomotives were built during succeeding years until the Berlin exposition in 1879 when Messrs. Siemens and Halske constructed an electric line of about a third of a mile in length. The first regular commercial line in the world was at Litchfield, near Berlin, operated in 1880, but was not a success. Edison, Field, Van Dusen, Knight and many others experimented in electric traction at this time.

The first actually successful commercial electric railway, i. e., the first electric dependent passenger railway line of a city, was established in 1891 by the Sprague of the Sprague Electric Railway & Motor Car

ment in Richmond, Va. The road began operation in 1890, and, under the supervision of the General Electric Company, has since that time covered over 100 miles of track, had thirty cars operating in July, 1890, and has been in continuous successful operation ever since.

The phenomenal development and growth of electric street railway traction has revolutionized not only city, but also suburban and interurban transportation. In 1890 there were not more than 2,000 miles of electric railways in the United States. From this time up to the present, the mileage has steadily increased at the average of about 5,000 miles per year. The electric street railway has become one of the most important and essential to electric traction, the General Electric Company has figured with marked prominence.

In 1895 electric railway equipment reached what might be considered a staple basis of design. Fundamental features, such as the enclosed motor, cam on brushes, series drive winding, single reduction gearing, magnetic controller and the under-running trolley had then become established. There were in service at this time approximately 25,000 motor cars equipped with about a half a million horsepower of motors. A great many of the pioneer car motors were too small for the work, because their designers did not appreciate the amount of power required to accelerate a car. In 1895 the average rating of railway car motors was 35 horsepower. Other forms of street railway propulsion gradually disappeared almost as soon as electric operation was practically ascertained. There then existed some 30,000 miles of city electric railways. The electric street railway has become far more scientific and practical basis. From 1900 to 1910 the electric railway extended rapidly to suburban and interurban transportation. The development of electric traction there was a tremendous increase in the size and weight of cars. The average horsepower of railway motors increased from 35 horsepower in 1900 to 100 horsepower in 1910, and the average weight of cars increased from four to four motors, while city cars generally were equipped with two.

This increase in power brought about great improvements in controlling apparatus. The General Electric Company developed the multiple unit control for the operation of cars that was applied to the operation of cars on interurban roads and later for regular city surface cars. With the simplification of control were also introduced forced motor ventilation, reduction in the number of motor equipments and increase in efficiency, improvement in commutation and introduction of commutating poles, perfection of air brake apparatus, introduction of field control, etc.

The necessity for more powerful locomotives for heavy grades, for larger train units and for a safer kind of power for tunnel service led to the development of the 1895 in the Baltimore tunnel, where steam trains were continually becoming stalled on the grades. Electricity was then making such gigantic strides that the railroad officials appealed to electrical engineers for aid. The result was that the first electric locomotive for railroad service was manufactured by the General Electric Company and was installed on the Baltimore & Ohio. This road, first in steam in 1890, became also first in electricity.

In 1899 the New York Central took up the study of electric traction for its New York terminal, to eliminate the congestion of traffic and the noise and smoke. Nothing was done, however, until 1903, and in three years electric locomotives were hauling trains on this road. These electric locomotives operated at 600 volts direct current. The General Electric Company built thirty in 1905, twelve in 1906 and sixteen in 1913 and 1914. The last six of these engines were at the time the most powerful electric locomotives ever built and are capable of hauling 1,200-ton passenger trains on level tangent track continuously at 60 miles per hour.

During this period the electric traction has been steadily progressing, until practically all the extensive steam railroad systems in this country and many abroad have tunnels, or terminals, or grades where electric traction is being electrically operated. On some railroads electric locomotives are employed exclusively both for freight and passenger service. The use of direct current has been commensurate in steam railroad electrification, and it is soon came evident that the employment of high voltage would effect very decided economies in initial installation and operation.

The first rise to high voltage was from 600 volts to 1,200 volts. Many roads were equipped at this latter voltage, and most of the installations were introduced. Then there was a most notable jump to 2,400 volts when the main lines of the Butte, Anaconda & Pacific were electrified in 1912. The General Electric Company built twenty-one electric locomotives and all the substation apparatus and equipment for this road. The next, and the most significant, step in railway electrification was the extensive equipment being built for sections of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul transcontinental railroad by the General Electric Company for operation at 3,000 volts direct current. The plans for electric traction contemplate a total main line distance of 440 miles. Twenty-one 3,000-volt electric locomotives and all substation equipment are being constructed. The locomotives have a continuous rating of 3,000 horsepower and an hourly rating of 3,600 horsepower each, which makes them more powerful than any other electric locomotive ever built. The electric locomotive has clearly outdistanced its steam rival, and it is not too sanguine to predict that the day is drawing near when electric traction alone will operate all the railroads in the world.

The Generator

A hundred years ago when Davy and Volta were experimenting with electricity, the current was secured from costly and cumbersome chemical batteries. It was in 1831 that Michael Faraday discovered that the current could be produced by moving conductors in a magnetic field so as to cut the lines of magnetic force. A year later H. P. Piazzi invented the split commutator for reversing the current through the armature. Other improvements were made by J. Saxton, E. M. Clark and others. In 1859 E. W. Siemens improved the field magnet device, and in 1867-68 the dynamo became a commercial success in 1867-68.

When the General Electric Company came into the picture, the dynamo was in its infancy. In their early days, the dynamo was a simple machine, and was manufactured and operated in a very crude manner. As the demand for

greater power in single units arose, four, six, eight and larger numbers of poles were employed in accordance with speed requirements with the increase in the size of the machine. Simplification of the design, improvement in methods and means of insulation and ventilation, and greater efficiency through the introduction of commutating poles for direct current have been notable steps in the development of generators.

Probably the greatest advancement in the generation and use of electric current came with the invention and development of the alternating current machine. With the use of transformers and transmission line facilities, the use of electricity for light, heat and power purposes then received an impetus that has carried it into almost every industry on earth. To the development of the alternating current generator may be ascribed in no small measure the marvelous industrial growth of this country.

The largest direct current generators ever built, of 5,000 kw. capacity, were manufactured by the General Electric Company for the Southern Aluminum Company, Whitney, N. C. It is also significant that the largest alternating current generators ever built are the product of this Company, forming a part of recently built 3,000 kw. single unit Curtis steam turbo-generators. In the largest hydro-electric power house in the world at Keokuk, Iowa, where 30,000 horsepower is being developed ultimately from the Mississippi, are at present installed fifteen immense General Electric Company generators operating at the slow speed of 57.7 revolutions per minute and having a total rating of 10,000 horsepower. The production of wheel-driven, alternating current generators has reached units of 17,500 kw. also of General Electric Company manufacture.

The Electric Motor

Thomas Davenport, a poor, self-educated blacksmith of Northampton, Mass., is credited with the first electric motor in 1834, which embodies many of the first principles of the motors of today. Between the year 1835-60 a number of the most eminent electrical engineers of modern times, 1835 placed a motor to run a boat. Henry, Foran, Farmer, Siemens and others built motors. In 1842 Page constructed the first electric motor to run a mill. In 1842 a circular saw and a lathe. Davidson in 1842 ran an electric carriage about the streets of Glasgow. A motor of the horsepower was built in 1846 at Liverpool. Two im-

provements followed both in the construction of the electric armature by Siemens in 1855 and the ring armature by Packman in 1861. The real motor development began with the dynamo in 1871. As in the case of the generator, the General Electric Company brought early prototypes of electric motors into service, and the efforts of the company in this development have been practically contemporaneous with that of generators. The successful development of the alternating current motor was the result of the cooperation of the company to the advancement of industrial arts through electric drive. Special speed conditions, variable load and intermittent service have been peculiar problems of industrial motors, but they have been effectively solved by improved design and ingenious automatic controlling devices, and today, the motors manufactured by the General Electric Company range all the way from the smallest fractional horsepower sizes for domestic purposes and for direct drive of fine, delicate machines to the largest induction type motors over built, 600 horsepower, driving immense steel rolls in the mills of the Indiana Steel Company at Gary, Ind.

The Transmission of Electrical Energy

The development of electric transmission was the greatest boon to the industrial world in the history of manufacturing. The invention of the transformer enabled us to harness the most distant sources of power and to bring this cheap energy within the industrial centers to turn the wheels of mills and factories, light the streets and the street cars and railroads, illuminate buildings, etc.

It was about twenty-two years ago when the first 10,000 volt transmission line in the United States was built by the Southern California, transmitting single-phase alternating current from San Antonio Canyon to light Pomona and San Bernardino, 14 and 28 miles away. In all there were forty 6-kw transformers, the largest of that day, raising the voltage from 1,000 to 10,000 volts. One of the very first water power stations to transmit alternating current was the Gold King mine, at Talluride, Colorado, in 1890.

In 1897 Dr. Wm. Siemens indicated the commercial possibilities of electric transmission. Marcel Dupre, a Frenchman, sent 3 horsepower at 2,000 volts a distance of 24 miles over ordinary telegraph wires. In 1899 M. P. S. P. transmitted 250 horsepower over 28 miles to run a motor in a paper mill. All these first experiments were with direct current. In 1891, 108 horsepower with direct current was sent 108 miles in Germany with a loss of only 35 per cent.

These few installations immediately attracted the attention of the eminent engineers of the day, including Edison, Tesla, Thomson, Houston, Lord Kelvin, Stanley and others. From the work of these early investigators the science of transmitting power by electricity grew steadily with the General Electric Company. The most notable transmission installation in history was recently effected with the Company's apparatus at the Pacific Light & Power Corporation, Los Angeles, Cal. At present 70,000 kw. are generated from four machines of 17,500 kw. each to two power houses from a combined drop in the stream of 4,000 feet. The current is generated at 6,000 volts and is stepped up by transformers to 150,000 volts for transmission 24 miles away. This is the largest development of the transformer into the wonderful apparatus of today brings the power of mountain torrents to the heart of the great industrial centers.

Switchboards

Not until the early eighties was the switchboard regarded as a necessary portion of the electrical equipment of a station.

For convenience switches were first mounted on the side walls of the station and as the station grew in size and instruments were mounted on a wooden background removed from the wall to allow more room for wiring and the connections. This was the first switchboard. The

next step was to substitute a wooden construction in the form of a rack or skeleton framework, which had open spaces through which the wires were brought from behind the board to the connected equipment in front.

From this simple arrangement the switchboard as known by the General Electric Company has passed through many wonderful inventive stages. The switchboard is now one of the most important pieces of apparatus of the industry. It consists of as many panels as necessary, usually of slate to provide safety, and combines a multitude of instruments and devices for controlling, distributing and recording automatically at will the flow of electric current to one or a hundred or more circuits or machines in almost any quantity as was desired. Probably the most notable switchboards ever built were recently constructed by the General Electric Company. These are the highly special types of great remote control boards that control and indicate every movement of all the massive lock machinery in the Gatun, Pedro Miguel and Miraflores locks of the Panama Canal.

The Turbo-Generator

The turbine steam engine is fully 2,000 years old. It was described by Hero, of Alexandria, in his "Inventive" about the year 120 B. C. Branca, of Italy, used a small steam turbine to run a little drag grinding machine in 1609 A. D. Thus the turbine was the first steam engine, although the last to be developed.

The first commercial turbine was produced in England in 1884. In 1903 Prof. C. G. Curtis, of New York, in conjunction with the General Electric Company, produced the first vertical steam turbine. The turbines of this company are principally used to drive electric generators and have been developed by this Company from the small size of 5 kw. to the largest engine in the world, a single horizontal unit of 35,000 kw. capable of delivering some 50,000 horsepower.

The development of the Curtis steam turbo-generator in the short space of twelve years has thus been nothing short of marvelous. The remarkably high efficiency of these units and the excellent quality of the energy secured through the principle of their design has revolutionized the production and distribution of energy from steam. During this period improvement after improvement has followed both in the construction of the turbine and the components of the machines. It would be physically impossible to build reciprocating steam engines in units of the enormous capacity of the turbines. The turbines are compact, the great space such engines would occupy and their lower efficiency in comparison with the turbine would render them almost wholly impracticable. The turbines built by the Curtis turbo-generator of the General Electric Company may be said to be one of the foremost factors in the concentration of producing energy from steam, and its consequent economical distribution of light, heat and power in the many thousands of cities, towns and rural communities in this country.

(Electricity as a Source of Heat)

Notwithstanding the ease with which electrical energy can be changed into heat, and this knowledge was patent to the earliest experimenters, it was only a few years ago that electric heating and cooking devices were introduced to the public. Sir Humphrey Davy, a hundred years ago, with his first carbon arc, melted and fused all known substances. Diamond, quartz, and metals easily melted down, carbon boiled quickly away, even the fire bricks of his crude oven were consumed.

The secret of modern electric cooking is that the electric device is a carefully proportioned bit of resistance wire, or stamped resistance metal, imbedded between insulators and usually enclosed in a protective metal casing. The places where heat is required in manufacturing, electricity is generally used. The most important installations are for electric arc furnaces, open hearths, electric tempering baths, etc. It is also utilized in a thousand other ways. Electricity for domestic cooking has already reached such a high stage of development that the electric range can be said to compare favorably with gas or coal ranges. Probably the most popular heating device is the electric iron now in use in millions of homes. Electric heat is also used for culinary purposes in many of the largest restaurants and hotels. In all these fields the General Electric Company has developed efficient devices and apparatus.

Auxiliary Electrical Apparatus

The auxiliary electrical apparatus that has been invented and improved by the General Electric Company may well be said to cover practically the entire field of the application of electric energy. An enumeration of these devices is beyond the scope of this article. Along with the development of important apparatus came the invention of much special machinery for making it. The distribution of electric current involved the production of hundreds of wiring devices and accessories, plug sockets, receptacles, fuses, switches, etc. Then there are measuring, protective and controlling devices and other apparatus, such as arc breakers, voltage regulators, signal accessories, rheostats, lightning arresters, insulators, rectifiers, controllers of switches, and many other devices, synchronous converters, and scores of other apparatus and equipment.

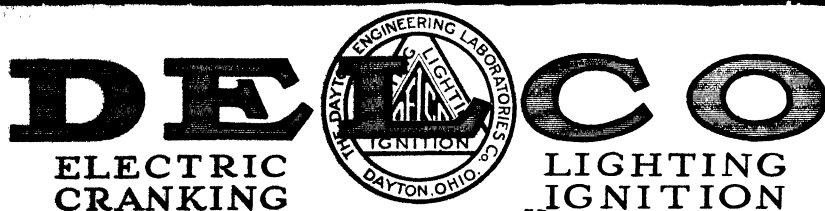
The Future of Electricity

The making of the electrical industry has so rapid because of the overwhelming magnitude of the potentialities of this most flexible and efficient form of energy, that the skilled scientists and engineers of the General Electric Company have bent every effort in order to keep pace with the constantly growing demands for its application. They are ever reaching out into new and greater spheres of activity for this universal servant of mankind. No one can foretell its marvelous future, yet so extensive even now are the applications of electricity as they are, we are impressed that electricity, the mysterious force we know of but do not yet know, is coming more and more to be the world's power.

GENERAL ELECTRIC COMPANY

SCHENECTADY, NEW YORK

Advertisement



This Little Over-running Clutch Protects your Battery

EVERY Motor car driver knows how easy it is to stop the engine and forget to turn off the ignition.

And it is quite obvious that every time this is done a serious drain is placed upon the battery—a drain that will entirely discharge the battery if allowed to continue long enough.

The Delco system protects the driver against his own forgetfulness. This over-running clutch that is used in cranking the engine begins to buzz as soon as the engine stops and keeps right on buzzing until the ignition switch is opened and the battery cut off.

It makes absolutely no sound when the car is in motion—but instantly calls the driver's attention to the necessity of pushing in his switch button when the car stops.

It is only one of a dozen little refinements that are helping to maintain and emphasize Delco leadership.

*240,000 Cars are now in Operation Equipped
with Delco Cranking, Lighting and Ignition*

The Dayton Engineering Laboratories Company, Dayton, Ohio

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

Three columns are open to the inventor of new and useful inventions. The notices are inserted by the inventor at the expense of the inventor. The notices are inserted by the inventor at the expense of the inventor. The notices are inserted by the inventor at the expense of the inventor.

Electrical Devices.

ELECTRICALLY OPERATED TIME SWITCH.—J. W. PASSEWITZ and M. E. B. CHANAS. Address the inventor, New York. The switch is especially adapted for lighting circuits whereby the lamps can remain lighted only for predetermined intervals so that there will not be a waste of current by the lights being kept burning when they are not needed, such a switch being especially useful in refrigerating or cold storage rooms where the employees are likely to leave the lamps in circuit ineffectually when they pass out of the room after having performed the duty that necessitated their entrance.

Of General Interest.

DISPLAY RACK.—O. F. KIM, Crestline, Ohio. The invention relates to racks for displaying articles for sale, such as signs, and the main object thereof is to support a plurality of said articles as to be readily displayed individually. It provides a rack from which the desired one of the articles can be easily removed, without disturbing any of the articles thereon.

CORD LEAD.—B. HAYMAN, care of H. Blumgarten, care of Graham Ave. and Varet St., Brooklyn, N. Y. This improvement relates to guides or leads for cord, cables and the like, and provides an improved construction designed to lead or guide a cable from one side of the wall to the other, so that the wall will normally be closed and solid, but a free passageway will be provided for the cable.

CHUTE.—O. E. WARD, Box 87, Brunswick, Ga. This invention relates to chutes, the more particular purpose being to provide a device suitable for general use and of special service for depositing loose material, such as stone, shale rock, in the hold or other predetermined portion inside of a marine vessel.

SCUMMING APPARATUS.—J. J. PHILLIPS, Brookhaven, Miss. This apparatus is more especially designed for scumming clay and the material and arranged to separate the finer particles from the coarser ones and draw the same to different chutes so that the finer particles pass directly to the brick-making machine while the coarser pass to the dry pan to be treated further.

MATCH BOX.—R. DICKSON, 29 Mt. Royal Ave., Hamilton, Ontario, Canada. This invention provides a structure which will vend matches one at a time, and will also automatically strike or light the same, provide a vending match box which will dispense to view the matches to be vend, and which is provided with a magnet for releasing the vend flag part of the box; and provides for vending one match at a time.

Household Utilities.

BROOM PROTECTOR.—J. KADANA, 130 W. 106th St., New York, N. Y. An object in this invention is to provide an improved structure which may be rapidly applied and removed and while applied properly hold the straw or fibers of the broom.

PUMPING MECHANISM FOR VACUUM CLEANERS.

PUMPING MECHANISM FOR VACUUM CLEANERS.—II. BECKEL, 2108 North Milton Ave., Whittier, Cal. This invention relates to vacuum cleaners of the type employing a rotating and one or more bellows, together with a dirt receptacle, the purpose being to produce a neat and compact vacuum cleaner in the form of minimum of parts, and all of its parts being readily accessible.

SANITARY SHIELD.—ELEANOR I. BLANK, 11400 Bell, Mount Airy, Pa. This invention relates to sanitary shields for seats of water closets, and one of the main objects thereof is to provide such devices in the form of sheets of paper preferably medicated having protecting curtains connected therewith in use, but which prevent no loose or dripping members before use.

ROTARY VALVE.

ROTARY VALVE.—II. BOWMAN, 435 Fourteenth St., Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. The invention relates to multi-cylinder engine, particularly to those using gas or oil as fuel, and one of the objects thereof is to provide a rotary valve for each of said cylinders having, each, an inlet port and an exhaust passage. In

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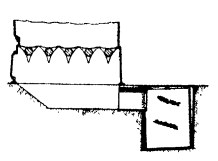
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RECEIPT FOR FURNACE.

RECEIPT FOR FURNACE.—J. H. BISHOP, Chicago, Ill. This invention relates to devices for removing ashes from the ash pit of furnaces, without stirring up dust and dirt. In use the ashes which have dropped from the furnace grate-ashes to the pit there

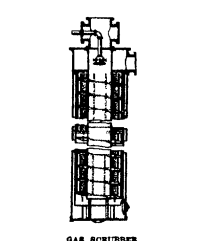


ASH RECEPTACLE FOR FURNACES

under are pushed through a spout by means of a shovel or the like, into a suitable receptacle which is provided with a removable cover plate, normally in closed position to prevent the escape of dust. After the dust has settled in the receptacle, the latter will be removed by a shovel and the ashes will be deposited in a receptacle which can be removed without raising any dust.

Heating and Lighting.

GAS SCRUBBER.—W. M. DEAR, care of Standard Oil Cloth Co., Buchanan, N. Y. The invention provides a gas scrubber having a spiral member for directing the gas in a circular path so that all the impurities and moisture will be directed outwardly to be collected by flanges through openings in a wall.



GAS SCRUBBER.

at the outer side of the spiral. It also provides a means for directing gas downwardly and spraying it at the inner side of the spiral to cool and remove some of the impurities, the gas then being permitted to pass upwardly through the spiral.

Machines and Mechanical Devices.

TYPE WRITER.—A. A. THOMPSON, 644 First Ave., New York, N. Y. The invention relates to machines in which a printing carriage, preferably in the form of a wheel, is employed, the same being provided with flanges, carrying the printing types on a few teeth. The printing carriage is mounted on a frame for movement in its own plane for locating a type at the printing point, and the frame is movable relatively to the plane of the type writer for printing.

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ROTARY VALVE

this valve the split construction prevents any tendency to bind when the valve becomes heated and also in the event of a failure of the power screw being born by the shaft running on ball bearings. No amount of water will affect the timing or rate of opening of the valve. The operation is noiseless and easy.

TYPE WRITER ATTACHMENT.—G. W. PALMER, 3113 Reed Road, Seattle, Wash. This invention provides an attachment capable of quick connection to a type writer or dashing therefrom for supporting a roll of paper, and also in the event of a failure of the strip may be withdrawn for use from the roll by the turning of the platen roll.

NOISE-REPRODUCING MACHINE.—C. W. WALKER, 2000 Washington Ave., Mount N. Y. The invention relates to improvements in

sound reproducing machines of either the phonograph or gramophone type, and more particularly to that class of sound reproducing machines in which the sound is reproduced by amplifying means are inclosed within a cabinet.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.

SLIDE VALVE.—J. W. MILLER, P. O. Box 91, Winchester, Ill. This invention relates to the invention has reference to slide valves for engines, and the main object thereof is to provide a slide valve which will automatically find a seat which, at the same time, positions the valve with respect to the ports.

VALVE SPRING COMPRESSOR.—J. J. BAKER, 10 Monroe St., Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention refers to devices for facilitating the removal of valves from the valve casings of internal combustion engines, and is more particularly designed for use in connection with the Ford engine. It provides a valve spring compressor which can be easily and quickly applied, whether to place the valve in position or to remove the same from the valve casing.

Railways and Their Accessories.

RAILROAD SANITARY APPARATUS.—G. W. KELLEY and J. R. KELLEY, care of Kelley Bros., Great Central Terminal, New York. N. Y. This invention provides impounding means for railroad toilet, adapted to be employed by authorized persons, provides means for heating the impounding receptacle to prevent freezing of the contents thereof; and provides a means for heating the receptacle for cold receptacles, having an automatic device to prevent the accumulation of water therein.

SAFETY DEVICE FOR RAILROAD TURN TABLES.—J. S. BOWLING, Bowling Green, Mo. The improvement provides means which will lock a turntable when it is positioned relative to a track to prevent a locomotive on the track and which will automatically disengage a step block on one of the track rails when the turntable is unlocked to permit of the rotation of the turntable.

Pertaining to Recreation.

FISHING DEVICE.—D. CORNELL, care of Pilot Association, Charleston, S. C. The invention provides a construction and arrangement of means whereby fish may be automatically taken from the water and deposited in a cold storage receptacle, without the necessity of manually handling the fish and with great saving of expense and labor. Mr. Cornell has invented another fishing device, in which he provides an arrangement whereby electric lights may be carried by the net supporting outriggers in such position as to cast their rays downward across the water surface, and thus to concentrate them in advance of the net, in order that fish happening in the zone of light may be attracted to the net and not to the approach of net and vessel.

DOLL HEAD.—MARTY E. RADICK, 28 Oakwood Ave., White Plains, N. Y. This doll has a plurality of faces, each having a different expression with means whereby any one of the faces may be exposed, while the others are covered so that the child can give different facial expressions to its doll, for example, either of happiness or sorrow.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

POWER TRANSMISSION MECHANISM FOR MOTOR VEHICLES.—G. M. STONE, Griswold, Iowa. By this mechanism power transmitted from a suitable drive shaft to the power axle or shaft of a vehicle or machine may be employed so that two sections or power shafts may be driven simultaneously and at equal speeds in one direction, or in opposite directions, or whereby one of the sections may be driven while the other remains stationary, thus permitting the shaft or vehicle to be propelled forwardly or backwardly, or in the event of a vehicle stuck at short range approximately squarely around.

REPLENISHING TIRE.—B. M. NEWCOMB, care of Alfred B. Co., 220 W. 4th St., New York, N. Y. An object of this invention is the provision of a resilient shoe for automobile wheels wherein the shoe is formed with a substantially tubular body divided into sections, and the sections split so as to prevent resilient side members.

SPED CHANGING GEAR.—E. M. RAYBURN and A. G. RAYBURN, Address E. M. Rayburn, Sausalito, Cal. This flexible device is for use in transmitting power from the power plant of the vehicle to the wheels, wherein the driven shaft is connected to the countershaft by means of a driving belt, the connection, and wherein the countershaft is connected to the driving shaft in such manner that the said shafts may be in reverse or in an undisturbedly connected without any shock or jar.

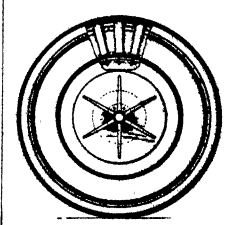
CRIB ATTACHMENT FOR GOLF CARTS.—R. HAYES, Montrose, Colo. This improvement provides a crib detachable to and from a golf cart detachable from an ordinary folding golf cart of any approved form. It provides a firm support for the feet of the golfer, together with fastening means for the rear end of the crib to detachably secure the crib body to the top frame of the cart body and its wheels.

HEADLIGHT CONTROL.—W. C. STONE, Greenburg, Pa. An object of this invention is to provide means for projecting a light downwardly or upwardly so as to illuminate a rising or descending road in front of the vehicle.

the, whereby the alignment of the road may be instantly brought to the view of the driver of the vehicle.

WHEEL ARROW.—J. W. MILLER, P. O. Box 91, Winchester, Ill. The purpose here is to provide a device having sides of very light material which can be brought into position or removed therefrom, and which, when in position, will be carried by the bottom portion of the device, so that there is never the necessity of bending for sides which have been attached.

WHEEL.—T. C. BARNARD, Amherst, Mass. This invention provides a resilient wheel for use with motor vehicles, such as automobiles, the tire and wheels having resilient elements arranged with a tie for cushioning jar and shock, and wherein the tire is provided with a tread member, and wherein all of the outside



WHEEL FOR MOTOR VEHICLES.

ing mechanism is housed in such a manner as to prevent the entrance of dust and the like, while at the same time the wheel is so constructed that the wheel is not impaired, and the wheel is not increased in size and does not suffer greatly from the ordinary wear and tear.

HYDRAULIC TRANSMISSION.—W. E. FARRER, Montrose, Colo. In this patent the object of the invention is the provision of a novel differential transmission unit having hydraulic action and attaining the desired results, including a wide range of gear ratios, both forward or reverse, without the use of either spur or bevel gears.

MAXIMUM PRESSURE SAFETY INFLATING TIRE GAGE.—P. F. FOX, 142 Mt. Vernon Way, Green Cove, N. Y. The primary object of the inventor is to provide a device which will provide a certain and positive means for insuring the exact pressure in an inner tube for a pneumatic tire or the like that such tire is designed to carry, and to automatically indicate at all times the pressure within the tire, and especially the maximum pressure which the tire is adapted to withstand.

COLLAPSIABLE CORE.—O. E. HENNING, care of C. M. WATSON, 194 South Main St., Akron, Ohio. The collapsible core is for use in the manufacture of rubber tires, and the inventor's object is to provide a core which can be easily and quickly manipulated. This object is attained by providing a core formed of a plurality of sections bound together by means of fixed and expanding rings.

Designs.

DESIGN FOR A VANITY CASE.—E. A. GUTTMAN, 129 W. 10th St., New York, N. Y. This vanity case is oblong in form and comprises of three sections, of which the center one holds a small circular mirror, the whole article having scalloped edges around it and across the top of its sections.

DESIGN FOR A BUTTON, BADGE, OR SIMILAR ARTICLE.—P. J. JOLLY, 61 Madison Lane, Raleigh, N. C., and R. L. FOWLER, New York, N. Y. This design relates to a button and consists of a baby sitting on a cushioned seat, holding a lily in its hand, the infant held by a cord grasped by a bird standing on the edge of a road bank and dressed in the garb of Uncle Sam.

NOTE.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the Bureau of Patents for ten cents each. Please state the name of the patentee, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

We wish to call attention to the fact that we are in position to receive complete orders in every branch of patent and trademark work. Our staff is composed of mechanical, electrical and chemical experts, thoroughly trained to prepare and prosecute all patent applications, irrespective of the complex nature of the subject matter involved, or of the specialized technical or scientific knowledge required therefor.

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See how wide and easy, covered the doors are—hinges and catches opening so freely

And sit in the deep and restful cushions—give you the highest quality

Every detail of the motor, simple and readily ACCESSIBLE

And then feel the satiny lustre that's put on to any BRIGHT with 30 finishing operations

And study that famous Studebaker FULL-floating Rear Axle with its extra strong pressed steel housing

Look for Quality EVERYwhere —not just in "spots"

You can find many cars that excel in this or that detail of construction. One will talk POWER steadily—because it has paid most attention to power—developed that one quality more highly than others. Another, perhaps, will talk of its light weight—because its engineers have devoted special attention to doing away with useless weight. Others will tell you of this or that BIG excellence. But Studebaker emphasizes no ONE excellence in this Studebaker SIX to the exclusion of all others. For the simple reason that Studebaker has built this Six to be 100 per cent. quality from "stem to stern."

It's the "evenly built" SIX

Straight thro' the car you can go and find QUALITY in every detail. No one feature over-developed. But every one as highly developed as Studebaker's \$45,000,000 resources permit.

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A satiny lustre that STAYS bright

And a finish that few cars at any price can match—a smooth and satiny lustre that STAYS new—because it is worked on thro' 30 operations during the two months the car stays in the paint-rooms.

And not a detail is overlooked to enhance the beauty of the car, either. Random CROWN fenders and running-boards free of time and tool-works, hidden handles of the doors—all lend grace to the looks of the car.

They want COMFORT—and they find it in this SIX. They find a big, inviting car—with room enough in the driver's seat for the tallest man to sit in comfort, even thro' long days of touring. Plenty of room in the tonneau, too.

Deep, restful cushions of high-grade leather

And the wide, roomy cushions, so deep and restful, are alluring to the man who has owned the costliest of cars.

The doors, too, are wide and easy to open. The hinges and the catches are cunningly hidden so that no latch line in ambush to rip even the fluffiest of summer dresses.

But what of POWER! comes the query And merely a glance at that ample motor suffices to convince any man who knows motors of the silent and flexible power this SIX has.

See how simply and cleanly designed it is—marvellously accessible in its every detail—built to develop power—but ECONOMICAL power that takes you uphill and down, over any roads, always making every drop of gasoline PULL.

Silent and Flexible Power

And then, the simple, RELIABLE-at-any-speed Battery Ignition system that Studebaker uses in place of the magneto. Most of the leading cars have discarded the magneto—but Studebaker is especially fortunate in having done so THREE years ago and in having had THREE extra years' experience of over 100,000 Studebaker owners to work on in the development of this Electric System.

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every man who has ever driven a car. Simplicity itself in design, it says at a glance to the man who knows cars—"SAFETY" and "ACCESSIBILITY"

The EASIEST-riding Car you ever sat in

The radius rods and torque arm say that the car rides freely and smoothly on ANY roads. For they take the driving thrusts off the long, flat springs that you find in the rear. Wonderful springs they are, too—a marvel to the man who knows the difficulties of spring designing. For they are the outcome of THREE long years' experiment with designs and trials of a hundred alloys. Three-quarter elliptic, with spring-shackles at both ends to take up and play, they make the car marvellously EASY-riding.

You find a brake equalizer such as only one of the \$5,000 cars uses. Oversteer brakes, too, that insure SAFETY. You find a delicate balance of chassis that makes the car EASIER-riding, easier-driving—easier on tires, too.

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And so you can go from stem to stern of this Studebaker SIX and find QUALITY in every little detail. And when you stand it side by side with other cars, even at twice its price, you will have to answer a very decided doubt in your own mind as to whether you CAN get more than \$1385 will buy in this Studebaker SIX. See it at your local Studebaker dealer's—and EARLY if you hope for prompt delivery.

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—if you want a Studebaker

That's our advice on the day this issue of The Scientific American goes to press. With makers plants, the largest in the industry, most of them running overtime, we can't be sure of being able to fill anything like the orders now pending. We've built SIXES ever during the last six months—the winter months at that—and even then, there's a shortage of SIXES in sight. Your local Dealer may have a few left—but not for long. Better see him NOW

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Studebaker ROADSTER	\$ 985
Studebaker FOUR	945
Studebaker SIX, 7-passenger	1480
P. O. B. Detroit	

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Studebaker ROADSTER	\$1280
Studebaker FOUR	1230
Studebaker SIX	1750
Studebaker SIX, 7-passenger	1525

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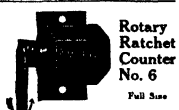
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Counter**

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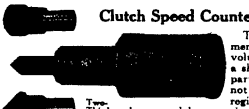
This counter is supplied in either ratchet or revolution form, as desired. Choice is offered of 3, 4 or 5 wheels. Price \$4. With lock and keys \$5.25.



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Veeder Mfg. Co.

18 Sargeant St. Hartford, Conn.

Seventy Years of Invention

(Continued from page 355.)

menting. The present type of automatic bobbin-changing loom was the outgrowth of an invention made by James H. Northrop, who instead of following the old idea of changing the shuttle in order to renew the web, conceived the idea of changing the bobbin in the shuttle automatically while the loom was in motion. By April, 1846, several looms were constructed on these lines. The basic patent for filling-changing looms was granted on June 23rd, 1891. Before this patent was issued no one had ever automatically placed filling in a shuttle in a shuttle box of a loom and threaded the shuttle automatically. On the same date, Rhodes received a patent for shuttle-changing mechanism, which applied the principle of the web fork for detection of the absence of the failure of filling and of an ejector to the changing of a shuttle in which the filling was exhausted. These patents constitute the foundation of the monopoly possessed by the Draper Company for automatic filling-changing looms.

An early patent for automatic web-replenishing looms, especially adapted for multi-colored weaving, was granted to Wyman and Crompton in 1896. These inventors were the first to use a loom containing a series of shuttles under the control of a pattern surface to present at a shed a shuttle having a desired different colored filling and an apparatus by which to provide such shuttles automatically with like filling, thus avoiding the stoppage of a loom when filling is to be supplied to a shuttle; also having suitable devices to move positively the filling device having filling of different colors, so that the filling of the desired color may be put in position to be removed from the feeder and put into a shuttle then in place to receive it.

1905-1915

The nearer we come to the present day the more difficult it is to pick out the inventions of importance. It is impossible to tell at the birth of an idea what its future development may be. And so in listing the inventions of 1905 to 1915, we shall undoubtedly leave out many inventions that may prove of highest consequence in years to come, and, on the other hand, we may include some that loom up rather large now, but which when viewed from the proper perspective of time, may prove to be not so important after all.

Many of the recent inventions are referred to in detail in the special articles in this issue, and to avoid repetition they will not be listed here, which will account for the rather meager showing of the following list.

Paper Pulp Improvements.

In the paper pulp industry the past ten years have been marked by important developments. The rate and uniformity of production have been increased especially by the use of tall magazine grinders, introduced from Germany within the past three years. Grinders of the magazine type hold two cones of stone, which are sufficient to keep the stone engaged for a twelve-hour grinding period. The supply of stone to the grinder box is regulated automatically by hydraulic presses operating on each side of the stone, so that the grinding operation may be continued during an eight night shift without attention.

In the United States the development of the paper industry to its present proportions has taken place very rapidly. The Fourdrinier parts have been lengthened and widened until to-day paper machines are actually in operation which have a width of 200 inches and are capable of being speeded up to 700 feet a minute, at against 80 inches of width and 200 feet a minute not so many years ago. In Germany, prior to the outbreak of war newspaper machines had been contracted for to run at a speed of 1,000 feet a minute, such being equipped with wire of 20,044 inches maximum width. The introduction of scientific methods and management in the paper industry has resulted in reducing the cost of paper notwithstanding

the rising prices of raw materials. In 1870, the average price of 48 paper was \$122 per ton, and in 1905 the cost per ton to the consumer was \$35.

High-Speed Printing.

After Campbell, Tucker and Crowell had brought the newspaper printing press to a point where 24,000 to 28,000 copies could be printed an hour, so marked improvement was made until Henry Wise Wood introduced radically new ideas. One of his first presses was installed in the offices of the New York Herald this year. Instead of drawing the paper through the press—a proceeding which subjected it to strain and reduced the speed of printing for fear of breakage—Wood carried it along bodily without strain to the printing types. The machine adjusts itself automatically to the peculiarities of the various paper rolls, so that breakages are avoided and the amount of attention required by the press is reduced to a minimum. The paper is handled in streams and assembled in a single stream made up of as many thicknesses as the newspaper to be printed has leaves. This combined stream is then folded, cut and delivered. The rate of printing is 10,000 copies an hour (eighteen to thirty-two pages.)

Although inventors had given the newspaper office the rapid printing press and type casting and composing machines, stereotyping remained almost at its starting point. One of the few arts still in the realm of the handicraft in 1905, stereotyping was revolutionized by the introduction of Henry Wise Wood's "Autoplate" machine. This consists of a casting mechanism and a series of finishing mechanisms which automatically co-operate in one machine to make casts and finish them. When used to make plates the conventional half-inch thickness its speed is four finished plates a minute; but when the thickness is but one quarter of an inch eight plates a minute are easily obtained. A single machine does work that could not be so well performed by thirty-five men.

The Gyrocompass.

One of the promising developments of the decade, but whose importance it is impossible to gauge thus far has been the use of the gyrocompass in a great many widely different applications. Mr. Louis Brennan, inventor of the Brennan torpedo, devised a gyroscopic monorail, the car being supported on the rail without lateral guides, by the action of a pair of oppositely turning gyroscopes. This renewed interest in the previous invention of Schlick, who used a gyrocompass to keep a ship from rocking. Dr. H. Anschütz-Kaempfe, who used a gyrocompass to replace the magnetic compass and this has been used with considerable success in warships, particularly submarines in which the compass is entirely surrounded by a steel shell that acts as a shield for the magnetic needle and prevents it from being affected by the earth's magnetism. A gyroscopic stabilizer for aeroplanes was developed by Sperry in this country.

Metalizing or Metal Plating.

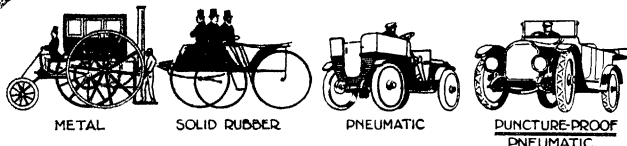
A process of dry galvanizing or "electroplating" was discovered by Mr. Sherard Cowper-Coles. By this process iron and steel can be coated with metallic zinc by the simple operation of holding the piece in zinc dust in a drum and raising the temperature of the zinc dust to 500 or 600 deg. Fahr., which is some 200 degrees below the melting point of zinc. Dr. Schoop of Zürich invented a method of coating objects with metal in which the metal is pulverized and projected against the object by a jet of high-pressure steam. The object is thus bombarded with a hail of fine metallic particles, which are liquefied by the energy of the impact, and thus soldered one to another.

In 1907 E. J. Acheson discovered a method of producing defectless graphite.

Mechanical Engineering.

There were many improvements in mechanical engineering made from those listed in our article on machine tools. Mr. H. A. Humphrey, a well-known English engineer, invented an internal absorption water pump. In the pump there are no moving parts except the piston and the explosive mixture of gas and air is ignited in the engine in contact with the

THE FOUR GREAT EPOCHS IN THE HISTORY OF TIRES



METAL

SOLID RUBBER

PNEUMATIC

PUNCTURE-PROOF
PNEUMATIC

THE EVOLUTION OF THE WHEEL SHOE
exhibits four definite phases: *Metal, Solid Rubber, Pneumatic and Puncture-Proof Pneumatic.*

The history of the first three is universally known. The fourth, and greatest development, the production of the **LEE PUNCTURE-PROOF PNEUMATIC TIRE**, marks a gigantic forward stride into the future of motoring. It signifies the definite passing of **ROAD TROUBLE** while still preserving the inherent **COMFORT** advantages of the pneumatic principle.

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end of a column of water which fulfills the dual function of piston and flywheel and moves so as to draw in a fresh combustible charge, to compress this charge previous to explosion, to permit expansion to be carried on to atmospheric pressure, and finally to exhaust the products of combustion. All these movements are brought about and controlled by changes in the momentum which occurs naturally in the column of water itself.

Nikola Tesla invented a steam turbine, which depends for its operation on the viscosity of steam, acting upon a series of flat metal disks narrowly spaced apart. Charles M. Manly, who first sprang into prominence in connection with his work on the Langley aeroplane, developed a hydraulic drive system that is a hydraulic means of controlling the speed of a motor vehicle. A number of similar variable speed gears were developed, one of them being used with great success for elevating or "pointing" the guns of battleships.

Mr. David Roberts invented the caterpillar tractor which could haul heavy guns or other trailers over rough country. The crawling action of the caterpillar tractor enables it to go over country that is cut up by gullies and over sandy or marshy ground with equal facility.

The decade was particularly marked for developments in illumination, but this subject is fully covered in a special article.

In 1908 Hans Kussel succeeded in making filaments from the colloids of heavy refractory metals such as tungsten, vanadium, etc. The filaments thus obtained when heated pass over to the metallic state and form very thin homogeneous threads of pure metal. Efficiency of one watt were obtained.

The rise of the moving picture industry made it important to obtain a safe film. In 1907 A. Eichengrün conducted experiments with Becker and Guntrum, which yielded acetyl-cellulose, known better by the trade name of cellulite. Cellulite is not generally used as a material for photographic films, but rather as a substitute for celluloid for other industrial purposes.

The commercial development of the phonograph in the past ten years has been almost as remarkable as that of the moving picture industry.

Early in the decade Parsons of turbine fame brought out his "aureophone," a device for augmenting talking machine sound reproduction by the use of compressed air, the air being admitted through a valve controlled by the needle, and hence taking the place of the reproducing diaphragm.

In this decade, Thomas A. Edison completed his storage battery in which nickel hydrate forms the active material of the positive plate, and iron oxide of the negative plate, while the electrolyte consists of a solution of pure potassium hydrate (caustic potash) in distilled water.

Fourmier d'Albe invented an apparatus known as the "optophone," which renders light audible. This effect is accomplished by the use of selenium cells in an electric circuit containing a telephone. By its use a person totally blind may be able to locate a window or open bright light, and to discover readily the shadows of objects passing between him and the light.

The Rise of the Automobile

(Continued from page 551.)

everything before them. In the rear of the crowd of contestants was Frank Duryea with his American machine. No one had any idea that it would figure prominently in the race. For a long time Frank Duryea was retarded by having to thread his way through the slower machines. One fifth of the distance had been traversed before he cleared the crowd. Then he put on full speed. One after the other he passed the fast foreign cars, and when he reached Brighton he sat down and waited nearly an hour for his nearest competitor to come up. America led the world! But, as Mr. Charles E. Duryea has tersely put it, "Americans were then ready for the automobile. Oats too cheap."

We must turn back now for a moment and look into the early history of the electric vehicle. It antedates the gasoline vehicle, for in 1828 we find, in Boston, an electric "omnibus" with a capacity for 12 passengers. This was a contrivance of 18 miles per hour and it had 24 wheels, and could make up to 20 miles an hour. George of the battery. In 1868 E. W. Fisher was running an electric omnibus on the streets of Boston. The idea of an electricity propelled vehicle occurred to inventors long before this, but it was not until about that time that the storage battery had developed to an extent that made it available for the present purpose. In 1904 an automobile race was held at the State Fair at Providence, R. I. A Duryea gasoline car maintained the lead, but an electric car built by A. L. Riker followed it closely and was beaten only for second place at the finish by another electric car entered by the Electric Carriage and Motor Company. The next year the Pope Manufacturing Company built a two-seated phaeton, driven by electricity, and in 1906 the manufacturers of electric vehicles had assumed such proportions as to make a very creditable showing at the Electrical Show held in Madison Square Garden, New York.

Returning again to the gasoline vehicle, we find Alexander Winton a most active promoter of public interest in the automobile. As early as 1897 he started out on a long-distance tour, attempting to run from New York to San Francisco. He met difficulties of such a trip can only be realized when we consider that the roads in those days were far worse than they are now and the motorcar was by no means a robust machine. It took Winton from June 28th to August 27th to complete the trip. In 1900 Winton entered the national tour, this time a transcontinental tour. After encountering almost insuperable difficulties, his tour finally ended in the sands of the great desert through which he found it impossible to make his way. In 1903 Winton succeeded in driving across the continent. Two other models made the trip, namely a Packard and an Oldsmobile. The first beginning of automobile manufacture is claimed by Winton, who in 1898 built and sold four motorcars.

The first automobile show in New York was held in 1899. This was really a bicycle show, in which automobiles were included as a prominent feature. The next year the automobile had a show all to itself, and among the features of domestic manufacture were many steam machines and several electric.

Track racing suddenly became very popular. A notable contest was held at the mile track at Guttenberg, N. J., in 1900, where races were held between gasoline, electric, and steam vehicles. One of our photographs shows the start of a five-mile race between two Panhard and Lerasor machines, which was won by A. C. Boetwick in the remarkable time of 7 minutes and 43 1/2 seconds, a speed of close to 98 miles per hour. In the ten-mile championship race the same two cars raced, but this time they had a serious competitor in an electric racing car built by A. L. Riker. In these days we are not accustomed to class electric as racing automobiles, but in that race the Riker machine was far away from the others and led them by many yards at the first mile, when unfortunately, a short-circuit disabled the batteries and put the machine out of the running. Boetwick again won the race. His time was 15 minutes and 9 1/2 seconds, a speed of between 80 and 90 miles per hour. It is interesting to note that, despite his early successes, Mr. Riker abandoned the electric and became chief engineer of the Locomobile Company, which originally built steam cars and finally abandoned steam for gasoline.

An omnibus provided with gasoline electric drive was exhibited in 1905. In the Automobile Show of 1905 the six-cylinder four-cylinder Franklin was a prominent feature. Public demand for a light, inexpensive car was reflected in the motor-driven backboard. At the show in Paris that year the positive influence made the appearance, and was developed by the French manufacturer.

MAGIC, STAGE ILLUSIONS AND SCIENTIFIC DIVERSIONS, INCLUDING TRICK PHOTOGRAPHY. Compiled and edited by Albert A. Hopkins. With an introduction by Henry Ridgely Evans. 112 pages. 64 pages and 400 illustrations. \$2.50.

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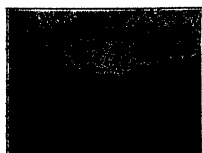
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The Wide Use of the Storage Battery

A Story of Unusual Achievement



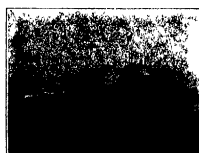
The "Wet" Battery is very widely used in motor cars and for other storage purposes.



Over 250,000 automobiles are equipped with the "Wet" Battery, and are operated by starting, lighting and ignition.



174 of the storage battery street cars in New York City are operated by "Wet" Batteries.



A large majority of the Submarines in the U. S. Navy use "Wet" Batteries for their operation when submerged.



"Wet" Storage Batteries are used by the Electric Light and Power Companies to supply their customers of continuous service.

DID YOU SAY you were not interested in storage batteries? Do you realize that not a day passes that a storage battery is not called upon to do some work for you? Look at the illustrations on this page. Did you know that storage batteries were a vital factor in all these applications of electricity?

How much use could be made of water if there were no tanks, pails, buckets, etc., to hold it? A storage battery is to electricity what a receptacle is to water.

In this country "storage battery" and "The Electric Storage Battery Company" are inseparably associated. You can't think of one without thinking of the other, because for 27 years this company has produced by far the greatest part of all the storage batteries manufactured in this country.

Just consider this thought. If all the storage batteries made by The Electric Storage Battery Company were suddenly thrown out of service this whole country would be badly crippled. Think of conditions with the millions of Bell telephones out of service. Think of the electric lighting companies in New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston and other large cities without a reserve supply of electricity in cases of emergency. Think of many of the railroads without signal apparatus with which to operate their trains. Think of submarines in the United States Navy without batteries for their operation when submerged. Think of thousands of electric delivery wagons and trucks suddenly made useless. Think of hundreds of thousands of automobiles without batteries for starting, lighting or ignition.

And again, don't get the idea that a storage battery is merely a wood or rubber receptacle containing plates of lead immersed in dilute sulphuric acid.

The big jobs and the important ones that storage batteries are doing every hour of the day prove that storage battery design and manufacture is of necessity a highly specialized and developed art. Storage batteries are and have been a most important factor in the growth and development of the electrical industry.

This Company, organized in 1888, is the oldest, the largest and the most experienced storage battery manufacturer in this country. The trade-marked names "Wet" and "Chloride Accumulator" are without doubt the most valuable storage battery trade marks in the country.

Electrical engineers throughout the country know from long experience that these names stand for scientific design and the highest quality of material. Although the demands for new types of storage batteries have developed so rapidly, yet this Company has always thoroughly tested under actual service conditions each new design of its batteries before allowing it to be put on the market. It has not experimented on its customers. The reputation of the Company has been very carefully built up and maintained from year to year.

And beside designing and manufacturing storage batteries which have given the Company the leading position in the industry, it has also built up a large service organization so as to most efficiently serve its customers in all parts of the country. This organization includes 15 Sales Offices, 13 Battery Depots, Branch Construction and Operating Departments and over 1000 Distributors. No battery user is far from a reliable source of information.

If you are interested in storage batteries, whether a small battery for your motor car or a large battery for your local electric lighting company, you can with the utmost confidence take up the matter with this Company.

Engineering co-operation, battery instructions, descriptive literature covering batteries for any particular service—all are at your disposal. Write our office nearest you.



The "Chloride Accumulator" is widely used in commercial and industrial service.



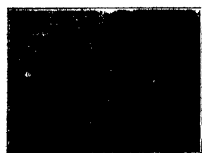
The Bell Western Union and Postal Companies depend upon the "Chloride Accumulator" for telephone and telegraph service.



The "Chloride Accumulator" and the "Wet" Battery are very widely used for storage.



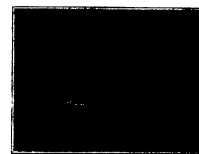
The "Chloride Accumulator" Battery has made it possible to store electric power in case of emergency lighting.



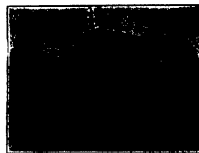
The "Chloride Accumulator" and the "Wet" Battery have been made standard for wireless service.



The "Chloride Accumulator" "Wet" Battery gives the reliable source of energy necessary for railway signaling switch and signal work.



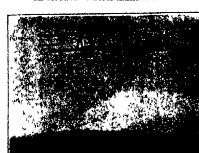
Industrial plants, operated by "Chloride" and "Wet" Batteries are found to be efficient and economical.



"Wet" and "Chloride" Batteries are very widely used in industrial and mine locomotives.



The four famous "Wet" Batteries have for years been used in a large majority of all electric vehicles manufactured.



The dependability of the "Wet" Battery is strongly evidenced by its use in aeroplanes.



Hundreds of yards are equipped with the "Chloride Accumulator" and "Wet" Battery for electric lighting service.

THE ELECTRIC STORAGE BATTERY CO.

New York Boston Chicago Washington PHILADELPHIA, PA. Denver San Francisco Seattle St. Louis
Cleveland Atlanta Pittsburgh Detroit 1888-1915 Rochester Los Angeles Toronto

When ordering, say—Medium—Heavy—or Ford Special—That's all you have to know about

Tirolene

"The Oil That's Clean"

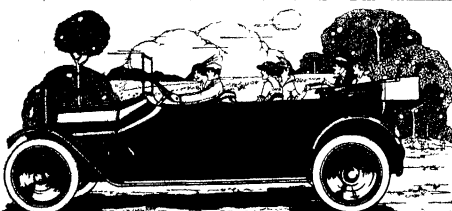
It's refined from Pure Pennsylvania Crude to properly lubricate an automobile engine—it does it—and renders the engine 100% efficient. What more can an oil do? It has proved itself, thousands of users attest its superiority, and one trial will convince the most skeptical. Ask your dealer. If he does not handle it, write us. We will either sell you direct or put you in touch with a dealer who does sell "Tirolene." At least send for the booklet—"The Oil That's Clean."—It's not large, but it's interesting. Send now.

TIONA OIL COMPANY
BIRMINGHAM NEW YORK
A limited territory open to jobbers and dealers

1 and 5 gal. Cans
"The Oil That's Clean"



Tirolene in Steel Drums containing 33 and 54 gallons for use in the private garage. The cleanest, cheapest, handiest way to handle your oil. Invaluable faucet for drawing off the oil as needed. Convenient in your motor boat house. Write to-day for prices. Look for the "Bull's Eye" Sign along the road.



It took twelve years to build this Car

The building of this car with 1200 fewer parts, has been supervised by Capt. William Mitchell Lewis, pioneer in the automobile field, collaborating with M. Rene Petard, celebrated French engineer. Into the

LEWIS "VT"

Monarch of the Sixes

has been built the experience-bought knowledge of twelve years of automobile construction. Read the specifications and see how much value can be built into an automobile to sell at \$1600.

Gear Shifting by Electricity

When your Lewis Six is equipped with the Magneto Gear Shift, you can drive as easily as an electric trolley. No stopping or shifting of the Magneto Gear Shift, as manufactured by the Curtis Magneto Mfg. Company, Milwaukee, Wis. Complete at \$150.00 extra.

Let us have your name and address and we will tell you where you can see and ride in a Lewis "VI," also send you the Lewis catalog.

L. P. C. Motor Co., 75 LEWIS STREET Racine, Wis.

SPECIFICATIONS

135-in. wheel base and 36-in. underling rear springs, easy wheel and comfort on country roads. Six-cylinder motor develops more horsepower to the cubic inch than any other automobile engine on the market. Reserve gasoline supply—Stewart vacuum feed—Remy starter—Siroberg new type carburetor—Stanwood transmission—Power tire pump—One-man oil mhoir top—Tread 56 inches, tires 36 x 4—Crown fenders and integral cast aluminum wood-hold bracket and instrument board—a car of "class" from radiator to tail-light.

ent high development of American machine tools is directly traceable to the automobile. American automobiles invaded European markets even in time of peace and proved to be a serious competitor, especially the lower-priced cars, and now our motor trucks are pouring into war-torn Europe.

A report just issued by the United States Department of Agriculture on the motor vehicle registrations and revenues for 1914, shows that we have 1,090,984 automobiles in service and 44,350 motor trucks. There are 21,265 manufacturers and dealers' licenses and 427,170 owners and chauffeurs' licenses.

Transportation on Land and Sea

(Continued from page 555.)

Considerably over a billion passengers have been carried on this system, through a continuous stretch of years, without the loss of a single life.

Development of the Steam and the Electric Locomotive.

The purpose of the present article is to trace the principal improvements in the steam locomotive during the past seventy years, and follow this with a brief account of what has been done in applying electrification to steam railroads.

Beginning with the year 1846, we note that the locomotive engine had then reached a high degree of efficiency, but was still far from being an economical power plant. We shall, therefore, find that during the period under notice the efforts of engineers were to make the locomotive more efficient by increasing its hauling capacity and reducing the cost of fuel and maintenance. Progress has thus been attained by studying the details of feed-water heating, more or less perfect combustion, variable steam cut-off, compounding, superheating, and mechanical stoking, for, as life is made up of details, so is the locomotive engine.

Fig. 1 shows a typical locomotive of seventy years ago. It was a wood-burning Rogers engine weighing about 18 tons and was built for the Morris & Essex Railroad, now a part of the Lackawanna Railroad system. It had a peculiar double valve gear with independent cut-off, by which the last of the valves could be varied at will, with the object of economizing steam; but the design was soon abandoned and the Stephenson link motion was adopted. For about fifty years this valve gear was in general use, but the increasing size of the engines involved a proportionate increase in the weight of the double eccentric and heavy links, so that at high speeds the friction and resistance were enormous. A further objection was that the link connecting the two eccentrics, moving through wide angles, caused the block to slip in the link, producing distorted and lost motions. For these and other reasons, it has ceased to become a desirable valve gear.

About fifteen years ago the Walschaert gear came into use in the United States. This motion, while retaining the link, dispensed with one eccentric, and could be placed outside the frames, giving easy access to the parts. Also, the link being pivoted to a fixed center, there is not so much slip and lost motion as in the Stephenson gear. An exhaustive article on this valve motion will be found in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT of March 27th, 1900.

In recent years some improved valve gears have been introduced to still further simplify the details of valvel motion. Two examples are illustrated herewith. Fig. 5 shows the Baker valve motion, which dispenses with links and sliding blocks, and substitutes a bell crank lever, a radius bar and a yoke. The movement is derived from the cross-head and the eccentric crank. The cross-head moves the valve the amount of the lap and lead in each way, and the eccentric crank gives the remainder of the movement. The operation gives a quick opening of the port by the valve, and an increased pre-admission as the cut-off is shortened—a great advantage in high speeds.

Fig. 4 illustrates the Southern Locomotive

five valve gear. In this design there is a link, but it is hinged directly to the engine frame and is stationary. There is no slip of the block, as it only moves in the link when the reversing lever is shifted to vary the cut-off or reverse the engine. Cross-head connections are eliminated, the valve movement being derived from the eccentric rod and a bell crank. This motion also gives a quick port opening by the valve. These new valve gears have merit, and are coming into extensive use.

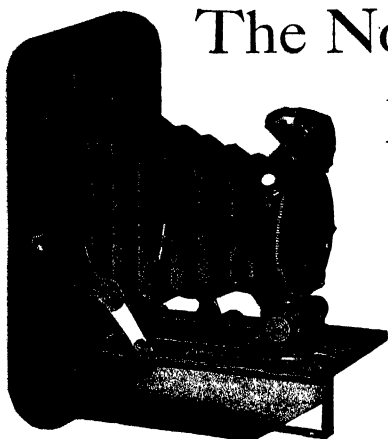
Economy of fuel and water have been studied by the leading engineers of the world among them being Joseph Gault, his locomotive superintendent of the London & Southwestern Railway (England). In 1850 he built a remarkable locomotive, which is illustrated in Fig. 2. This engine weighed about 25 tons and hauled some of the fastest express trains at that time. The upright cylinder is mounted on the smokestack was a feed-water heater, through which the exhaust steam was passed, where it came in contact with water from a circulating pump. This water was thus heated to near the boiling point, and what was not immediately required for the boiler was sent to the boiler along with the condensed steam, into the tank, heating the water there. A portion of this water was intercepted by the boiler feed pump and forced through a reheating chamber in the smoke box, which raised its temperature above the boiling point before it entered the boiler. The fire box was divided transversely into two compartments by an inclined water space, each compartment having its own fire door, grate, and ash pan. The rear, and larger, compartment was arched with perforated tiles, and a combustion chamber in the boiler was heavily filled with perforated fire bricks. The gas from the rear furnace thus passed through the tile bridge, over the hot fire in the front furnace, and there ignited, passing through the bricks in the combustion chamber, and thence through the flues. The writer has seen these engines at work. They burned bituminous coal and consumed their smoke perfectly, showing a fuel economy of over 15 per cent.

During the period under notice, much attention was given to balancing the reciprocating parts of locomotives. Many designs were brought out, but only one can be noticed here, and is illustrated in Fig. 2. This was a four-cylinder balanced engine, the cranks being oppositely disposed. It was designed by John Haswell, a British engineer, and was built in 1861 for the Austrian State Railways. This engine weighed about 24 tons and ran with remarkable steadiness. Although it was a simple engine, it was the precursor of the modern four-cylinder balanced locomotive; but before this latter engine came into the field, a number of two- and three-cylinder compound engines were tried. These were efficient until the time came when the great size of the low-pressure cylinders made them too large for the clearance limits of platforms, bridges, and tunnels. Four-cylinder compounds, with all the cylinders outside the frames, were subject to the same limits; and so, about fifteen years ago, this class of engine, having a different arrangement of cylinders, came into use. A notable example of this design is a French express locomotive, which began service on the Chemin de Fer du Nord five years ago. It hauls some of the fastest trains in the world and, with the tender, weighs 155½ tons. The cranks are balanced, with the high-pressure cylinders outside and the low-pressure cylinders inside the frames. The steam is superheated and is controlled by a mechanical stoker. This engine was illustrated in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of December 16th, 1911.

Another class of compound locomotive has all the cylinders outside the frames. This system is a feature of the Mallet engine, which came in about the year 1860. The latest example is illustrated in Fig. 7, which shows the heaviest and most powerful locomotive in the world. It has three pairs of cylinders, one pair leading under the tender. The total weight of the engine and the tender is 410 tons. This locomotive is working on the Paris-Bordeaux

Fig. 4 illustrates the Southern Locomotive

If it isn't an Eastman, it isn't a Kodak.



The No. 1 Autographic KODAK, *Special*

Small enough to go in your pocket—*conveniently*.

Good enough to do any work that any hand camera will do—*satisfactorily*.

SPEED. The Shutter has a speed of $1/300$ of a second and slower controllable speeds to one second—also has the time and bulb actions, *and is large enough to give the full benefit of the anastigmat lenses* with which the camera is listed.

QUALITY. All the way through the No. 1 Autographic Kodak *Special* has that mechanical precision, that nicety of adjustment and finish that gives the distinction of "class".

SIZE. The pictures are $2\frac{1}{4} \times 3\frac{1}{4}$ inches; the camera measures but $1\frac{3}{8} \times 3\frac{3}{8} \times 6\frac{5}{8}$ inches, in spite of the fact that its equipment provides for anastigmat lenses of the highest speed.

AUTOGRAPHIC. It is "autographic", of course. All the folding Kodaks now are. You can date and title the negative easily and permanently at the time you make the exposure.

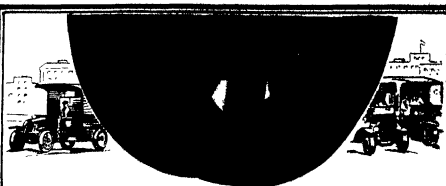
SIMPLICITY. Effective as it is, the Kodak Idea, Simplicity, has not for one moment been lost sight of, there are no complications. The No. 1 Autographic Kodak, *Special*, has the refinements that appeal to the expert—to the beginner it offers no confusing technicalities.

THE PRICE.

No. 1 Autographic Kodak <i>Special</i> , with Zeiss-Kodak Anastigmat lens, <i>f</i> .6.3,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	\$45.00
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EASTMAN KODAK COMPANY, ROCHESTER, N. Y., *The Kodak City.*



Truck Tires Free

Unless the 1915 Goodyear S-V
Outwears Any Other

Here is an offer which Truck users cannot afford to neglect. It will settle for you, without any risk, the entire Truck Tire question.

For three months—April, May and June—this amazing warrant goes with every S-V Truck Tire put on under these conditions:

Every Penny Back

Equip opposite wheels, at the same time, one with a Goodyear S-V, one with any other standard make tire of like rating, bought in the open market.

If the Goodyear S-V fails to cost less per mile than the other, we will return you its full purchase price, making the S-V free.

Mark that—no partial rebate, no mileage adjustment, no replacement. The tire that fails is FREE. Get this guarantee in writing when you buy the tires.

Never Such a Warrant

Never before has such a warrant been given on any class of tire. If widely accepted, it means with us a million-dollar stake. It is given without reservation against any tire in the field. It covers accidents as well as wear.

Numerous makers claim to build tires as good as the Goodyear S-V. Let us stop arguing in print and in person. Let us compare them on opposite wheels. We have done that already, under every condition. Over 5,000 S-V tires were tested out on trucks before we made this offer. We know to a certainty the results you'll get, barring accidents.

We have worked for eight years on this Truck Tire problem.

We built 29 types before arriving at this one.

We built 74 models of this S-V type before we attained this perfection.

We give you in it, as compared with others, 20 per cent more available tread rubber.

The shape ends bulging, breaking or excessive grinding.

The compound minimizes friction.

The tire can't creep, as we press it on at a minimum of 50,000 pounds. It can't separate, for the tread, the backing and the rubber are welded into lasting union.

Go to a Goodyear Distributor or ask our local branch where you can get this warrant on the latest S-V tire. Accept it while the offer lasts.

GOODYEAR
TRADE MARK
S-V Truck Tires

THE GOODYEAR TIRE & RUBBER CO., Desk 132, Akron, O.

Makers of Goodyear Automobile Tires

We Make Dismountable, Block, Cushion, Pneumatic and Other Types of Truck Tires

(2374)

road and was fully described in the *Scientific American* of June 12th, 1914. It has a feed-water heater, a fire brick arch, a superheater, and a mechanical stoker. These last two improvements have done more than any others to increase the efficiency and output of the steam locomotive, thereby helping it to retain its place in successful competition with the electric motor. By superheating the steam, cylinder condensation is reduced, and the increased volume of superheated steam results in more work being performed with the same quantity of water. Superheating is not new to about the year 1880 some British-built locomotives worked successfully with smoke-box superheaters.

In the matter of coal consumption, when we consider that the fireman of a modern locomotive has to shovel coal into the fire box at the rate of about 6,000 pounds an hour, or 100 pounds per minute, it is evident that on the largest locomotive hand firing is impractical. The Erie engine (Fig. 7) is equipped with a Street mechanical stoker, which is illustrated in Fig. 8. It consists essentially of a screw conveyor for passing coal from the tender to the boiler, an elevator for raising it to a point above the fire door, a system for regulating its delivery to the fire box, and a distributing system for spreading it over the grate. Over six hundred of these stokers are now in successful use, increasing the burning power of the locomotive from 10 to 20 per cent.

In the year ended June 30th, 1914, the steam railways of the United States spent over \$220,000,000 for locomotive fuel; and the cost of fuel is increasing. Experiments conducted during the past year have demonstrated that pulverized coal is the coming fuel; for, even with low grades of coal—now considered useless—practically perfect combustion with absence of smoke has thus been obtained. This new system should open the way for a marked reduction in expenditures for fuel on railways.

Electrifying Steam Railroads.

It was inevitable, in view of the success of the trolley car, that electric traction should ultimately be applied to steam railroads. The first main line steam railroad in this country to make use of electric traction was the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, which as far back as 1886 built some powerful 100-ton electric locomotives for hauling its iron ore from the Belt Line tunnel at Baltimore. Following this came the electrification of the Valtellina line in Italy. By far the most ambitious attempt, at the time it was inaugurated, to apply electric traction on a large scale to a great railroad system was the electrification of the terminal and suburban lines on two of the most important railroads in America, namely, the New York Central and the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroads. Each of these is a four-track road and each handles an extremely heavy service. Both installations were forced upon its owners by legislative action—the result of a serious collision in the tunnel leading into the Grand Central Terminal Station, New York. The New York Central road is operated on the direct-current system, and that of the New Haven Railroad by the alternating system. The New York Central zone covers 82.5 miles of road, 255 miles of track, and employs 62 locomotives. The New York, New Haven & Hartford Company has over 100 miles of road electrified, 606 miles of track, inclusive yards and sidings; the system being operated by 100 electric locomotives. The progress of the electrification of steam roads throughout the world is shown in the table from a bulletin of the United States Census Bureau of 1912, which is published herewith. The latest direct-current locomotive used on the New York Central is express passenger service, which is an improvement upon the one shown in our illustration, has a speed of 80 miles an hour, drawing a 1,200-ton train. The complete weight of the locomotive is 162 tons, the drawbar pull is 80,000 pounds. The striking condition is a special type of under-running drive rail.

Current Steam Locomotive Service

Name of Railroad.	Miles of Road.	Miles of Track.	Locomotives.
New York, New Haven & Hartford	82.5	255	100
Spokane & Inland Empire	108	237	13
Butte, Anaconda & Pacific	37	60	17
French Southern	104	156	8
Biden State	10	81	94
Prussian State	10	80	13
Italian State	104	156	8
St. Polten-Maribach	82	98	14
Baltic Mountains	48	48	11
Bormes Alps	52	60	15

Principal Terminal or Passenger Service

Name of Railroad.	Miles of Road.	Miles of Track.	Locomotives.
New York Central	80	240	47
Pennsylvania	18	72	35
Long Island	100	200	10
West Jersey & Seashore	78	180	10
New York, Westchester & Boston	19	83	10
Southern Pacific	80	100	10
Metropolitan Railway, London	53	70	20
London, Bournemouth & South Coast	60	160	10
Paris-Orleans	14	48	11
Hamburg	41	41	10

Main Line Electrification to be Completed in 1915 and 1916

Name of Railroad.	Miles of Road.	Miles of Track.	Locomotives.
New York & Western	30	86	36
Pennsylvania	80	80	10
Canadian Pacific	30	45	4
Chicago, Milwaukee & Puget Sound	113	168	14
Northeastern	18	44	10
Swiss Federal	93	100	20
Swiss State	91	154	44
Vienna Prater	43	50	10
Italian State	82	60	8

U. S. Census of 1912

The electrification of the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad has been completed through to New Haven, covering a distance, including the New York Central Line, Woodlawn to New York, of about 75 miles. The passenger service is operated by means of 100-ton locomotives, which are rated at 1,000 continuous horsepower each. For light trains a single locomotive is used, and two for through heavy express trains, which, together, in hauling much a train at 60 miles per hour, develop on level track about 1,500 horse-power. Alternating 13,500-volt current is developed and transmitted through an overhead line. This line has also in operation a very successful freight service, the engine of which weighs 110 tons, and is capable of developing momentarily a tractive effort of 40,000 pounds and a continuous effort of 22,000 pounds. These are geared locomotives of 1,400 horse-power each, designed to haul a load of 1,800 tons in through service at 35 miles an hour. Two of these locomotives coupled up can take care of a trailing tonnage averaging from 2,500 to 3,000 tons.

Thus far no comparative figures of cost of operation have been published by which to judge of the relative economic efficiency of the direct and alternating systems as thus indicated for steam road electrification. The prevailing opinion is that the direct current is preferable for terminal and suburban service and the alternating current system for long-distance work. The raising of the voltage in direct-current service, however, has made the latter a strong competitor of the alternating current in long-distance through service.

Seventy Years of Civil Engineering

(Continued from page 122.)

Bristol, England, is a motto in Latin, which translated would read, "It is difficult to build a highway through the air." In another chapter of this issue we show how the subsequent development of the steel industry made it possible to build highways through the air on a scale of magnitude undreamed of by our fathers. There is a limit, however, to the length of bridges, or at least to the length of the individual spans in bridges. In this issue we show how when it came to the question of providing direct unbroken railroad communication with New York city, the same was shown for a vast suspension bridge with a span of 2,500 feet between towers, and the main span of the bridge, spanning the Hudson River, was the longest single span of a bridge in the world. The bridge was the longest single span of a bridge in the world. The bridge was the longest single span of a bridge in the world.



More than 10,000 Eight-Cylinder Cadillacs are now in the hands of users

and dealers have placed orders for 10,000 more

MORE than ten thousand Cadillac "Eights" are now in the hands of users.

Dealers can see a demand ahead so great that they have placed orders for ten thousand more. Figures so large—involving a sum of money so vast—point irresistibly to one conclusion.

The conclusion is that the usual large Cadillac clientele has been enormously augmented by this Cadillac "Eight."

The demand is not merely the normal Cadillac growth, but it is the opening up of the new spheres of influence, and an influx of new Cadillac admirers and enthusiasts.

It has assumed the proportions of a national movement, at least among those who own, or wish to own high grade cars.

This excess over normal comes from many sources but it is chiefly made up:

First, of the great number who are glad to pay more for the Cadillac because of the Cadillac "Eight" advantages, and

Second, a very great number who are glad to pay less for the same excellent and satisfying reason.

It is frequently said that no company, other than the Cadillac, could have won such immediate and universal acceptance for any principle representing so wide a departure from conventional practice.

And it would seem that there is verification of this in the attitude of the two classes of buyers just mentioned.

Those who are willing to pay more, and those who are glad to pay less, accept the Cadillac "Eight" with equal eagerness—because of the performance of the car itself and because of the reputation of its maker for producing only that which it knows to be right.

They are no more insistent on a "demonstration" than old Cadillac owners—though it is only fair to say that a drive of but short duration immensely increases their enthusiasm.

This latter experience arouses even the most phlegmatic and non-committal.

The reports which they carry home, and to their clubs and to their places of business, largely

explain why Cadillac dealers have ordered ten thousand more of these cars.

Has the full wonder of this demand been borne in upon you?

Have you thought of it in the light of the fact that the Cadillac is not a "low-priced" car,—as the term is commonly used?

The huge volume attained by cars of low price is a wonderful thing in itself—a sort of economic phenomenon.

But is it not much more wonderful that a high grade car should command such a market as this Eight-Cylinder Cadillac has won?

There is no other situation at all like it in the automobile industry.

It is not merely a figure of speech to say that the Cadillac "Eight" stands alone.

It does stand alone—absolutely and unapproachably alone—in point of performance.

It likewise stands alone in point of demand and of sales among high grade cars.

And, of course, it would not be so, if it ought not to be so.

As you ascend in the scale of prices, the number of those able to purchase grows fewer.

If the Cadillac "Eight" had not preserved every Cadillac tradition and added new and potent powers of attraction—this great market would simply not be here.

There would not be and could not be the marked disparity in volume between the Cadillac "Eight" and those immediately above and below it in price.

It is a sort of a re-adjustment of the national view-point—a re-alignment of buyers—some leaving one field, and some leaving another, and most of them concentrating on the Cadillac.

Thus far we have found no one who has ridden in the Cadillac "Eight" who does not say that this is precisely as it should be.

With the Eight-Cylinder Cadillac performing in ways distinctly its own, performing in ways which have heretofore been believed impossible in any car, there is nothing strange in the fact that dealers recognize that the visible demand is not yet half satisfied.



HUB CAP
OF THE CADILLAC "EIGHT"

Styles and Prices

Standard Seven passenger car, Five passenger Salon and Roadster, \$1975
Landulet Coupe, \$2500. Five passenger Sedan, \$2800. Seven passenger
Limousine, \$3450. Prices F O B Detroit

CADILLAC MOTOR CAR CO. DETROIT, MICH.

J-M Responsibility doesn't wait for a "trial", but looks up your roof to see it's right

John

Green Bay, Wis.

The number of J-M Roofs this contractor has put on in Green Bay shows that folks believe what he says about

J-M ROOFING Responsibility

J-M Trade
Advances
Shingles
Fire and weather-
proof, last for
years. After long
tests, J-M Lullin
Shingles, Green Bay,
Wis., are the only
roof that can be
used on any roof.

J-M Asphalt
Ready Roofing
Weather-proof, fire-
proof, resistant to
decay, and will last
for years. J-M Asphalt
Roofing, Green Bay,
Wis., is the only roof
that can be used on
any roof.

J-M Asphalt
Built-up Roofing
A monolithic
system, seamless,
fire, weather, and
decay resistant. J-M
Asphalt Built-up Roofing,
Green Bay, Wis., is the
only roof that can be
used on any roof.

J-M Regal
Ready Roofing
Built-up, ready
roofing, resistant
to decay, and will
last for years. J-M
Regal Roofing, Green
Bay, Wis., is the only
roof that can be used
on any roof.

J-M Roofs
For Every
Requirement

J-M Responsibility is a Johns-Manville business principle.

The practical application of this principle to you and to your J-M Roof is provided in a new feature of our service known as

J-M Roof Registration

When you register your J-M Roof with us you say: "Here is my roof, look after it for me." We can—and will—do just exactly that, for there are enough of us to do it. We cover the continent.

You do your part when you take J-M Roofsings on our word that they are the best and most economical roofings you can buy.

Our part is to see that J-M Roofings give complete satisfaction—that they give the Full Service they are meant to give. Register your J-M Roof with us and J-M Responsibility, step by step, financial stability and highest commercial character will assure you permanent satisfaction.

J-M Asphalt Roofings are examined and approved by Underwriters' Laboratories under the direction of the National Board of Fire Underwriters.

Write us about the building you wish to roof. Our roofing experience goes back fifty years, on all kinds of buildings, and we can advise you to your advantage. We will also send you Roofing Literature of value.

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Albany	Chicago	Detroit	Indianapolis	Louisville	New York	Portland	Seattle
Albany	Chicago	Detroit	Indianapolis	Louisville	New York	Portland	Seattle

GRAFLEX CAMERAS

You can make snapshots indoors if you use a Graflex Camera. This picture was made indoors with the shutter set at 1/35 of a second. The negative had plenty of exposure. The negative had plenty of exposure. The negative had plenty of exposure.

No camera equals the Graflex for high speed photography. In this picture both the automobile and airplane were going at a very high rate of speed. This made it necessary to set the shutter at 1/1000 of a second to get a picture that was clear and distinct.

Photographs in the deep woods or in the shade offer many difficulties to those who are not equipped with a Graflex Camera. With the Graflex you can make pictures under light conditions that make photography impossible with cameras of the usual type.

With the Graflex Camera you can make exposures of any duration from "time" to 1/1000 of a second. You see the image on the focusing screen, right up to the size it will appear in the finished print, up to the instant of exposure.

One strange thing about the Graflex is the fact that it is so small. Yet it does the very best.

FOLMER & SCHWING DIVISION
LARGEST CAMERA COMPANY
BOSTON, MASS. NEW YORK

traction, with its absence of smoke, steam and cinders, pointed to a new way of solving the problem, namely, by electrically-operated tunnels. The bridge was awarded at least for the time being, and the Pennsylvania Railroad built two main-line tunnels under the North River and the Hudson & Manhattan Railway Company borrowed the same great waterway with its four separate tunnels. The Pennsylvania crossed the East River with four tunnels and the New York subway drove beneath the same river with its two tubes connecting its system with Brooklyn.

If these great works were rendered operatively successful by the development of electric traction, they were rendered constructively successful by the development, many a decade before this, of an ingenious excavating device known as the Greathead shield, the credit for the development of which should be divided among several inventors.

The fundamental difficulty in driving a tunnel beneath a stream or river, and therefore through material which is more or less fluid, lies in the fact that means must be taken for preventing the inflow of the material to the heading of the tunnel while it is open for excavation work.

The use of pneumatic pressure, together with a shield of cast-iron cross-section of the tunnel provided with a cutting edge, solved the problem. Credit for the inception of this method goes to that many-sided and brilliant French-English engineer, Sir M. I. Brunel. He secured his first patent for a tunneling shield in subaqueous material in 1818 and used it in building the first tunnel under the Thames River, London. Brunel's shield was rectangular, but in 1805 Peter W. Barlow, an English engineer, patented in England a method which employed a circular shield with a cast-iron lining of the completed tunnel back of the shield. Four years later he was associated with another English engineer, James Henry Greathead, in building a tunnel under the Tower of London, 1,350 feet long and 7 feet in diameter, which was completed in less than a year, a remarkable record at that time for work of this character.

In 1860 Alfred Ely Beach patented a method of using hydraulic ram abutting against the lining of the completed tunnel for pushing the shield forward into the undisturbed material. A later and most important development of subaqueous work was that used in the completion of the downtown tunnels of the Hudson Terminal tubes. This was the displacement method by which, instead of permitting the material to enter the tube through the shield for removal through its approaches, the shield was pushed bodily forward, the fluid material flowing around the tube as it progressed.

The general public is so thoroughly familiar with the engineering features of the subway work which is being carried on in its midst that it calls for no detailed description here. The excavation is now usually done by cut-and-cover work, in which the street pavement is replaced by timber roofing supported on heavy timbering, over which the street traffic passes while the work of excavation is carried on below. In the earlier subways, the roof was supported on steel columns and steel floor beams, arches being thrown in between the floor beams. The latest method is to make the tunnel lining of monolithic reinforced concrete—a cheaper and more rapid method of construction.

Foundation Work and the "Skyscraper."

The method of building deep foundations in loose material, or in such material as is water-bearing, by means of the pneumatic caisson was well established by the year 1845. Credit for the first use of pneumatic pressure in building foundations is given to Smeaton by that great work, Ludwig Darmstadter's "Chronological Handbook of Natural Science and Technology." This author states that in 1778 Smeaton sank the foundations for a bridge at Hexam, Northumberland, by the use of compressed air. In 1849 the French engineer, Trégar, made use of the pneumatic caisson for driving through river

and at Cherbourg, France, a method used successfully in almost all situations in the bed of rivers is that of the open caisson, a notable instance of which was the construction of the foundations for the Hawkesbury Bridge in Australia, which was built by American engineers. In this method, the excavation is done by means of dredges, generally of the clam-shell type, which excavate the material within the shell and thereby cause it to settle to the desired level. The most important use of the pneumatic caisson in the period from 1880 to 1890 was the construction of the massive piers for the Fort River Bridge. The cylinders were built with a double shell and provided with a massive cutting edge at the pier-work on the outer shell. At a certain distance above the bottom, a strong, heavily-trussed steel roof was provided, and from this shafts provided with air locks led to the surface, one of them being used for the entrance and exit of the working crew, the other for the unloading of the excavated rock and other material.

The most extensive use of pneumatic caissons has occurred in the city of New York, in preparing the foundations of some of the tallest buildings in the world. Manhattan Island consists mainly of gneiss rock of very irregular contour, overlain with river sand; the depth to rock varying from a few feet to two hundred feet and over. With the introduction of the skeleton-steel frame building, the weight of the superstructure was concentrated at certain defined points over the whole area covered by the building.

In preparing the foundations, pneumatic steel caissons were sunk to a bearing upon solid rock, the caissons being filled subsequently with concrete up to the level of the footing of the steel columns. The building laws allow a maximum load of 15 tons per square foot, and upon this loading it has been possible, without exceeding the height of buildings to unprecedented heights. The modern steel building, especially in the later types, is absolutely deepfoot, the columns, the floor beams and all the main steel structural work being located in terra cotta or some other fire-resisting material. The entire walls and interior partitions are carried by the steel framework, and this has made it possible to avoid the accumulation of pressure and consequent thickening of the lower walls, which were unavoidable in the tall buildings that preceded the age of steel construction. Had it not been for the introduction of the elevator, the towering office buildings of the present day would have been impracticable, but with their introduction and subsequent improvement, and notably because of the high speed at which they are run, there is no limit, so far as accessibility is concerned, to the height to which skeleton-steel buildings may be carried. The two loftiest structures of this kind in the world are the tower of the Metropolitan Life Building, which is 700 feet in height, and the 785-foot tower of the Woolworth Building, which is the highest office building in the world, and the highest structure of any kind with the exception of the Eiffel Tower. The future limitations of tall buildings will be due to legal restriction rather than to any inherent structural difficulties. Some years ago the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN requested an engineer to prepare plans, showing to what height a building might be erected without exceeding the unit pressure of 15 tons per square foot, and it was found that, on a base 200 feet square, it would be possible to erect a structure that was 2,000 feet high, and that this building would be perfectly safe in the heaviest tornadoes that might blow against it.

The Invention and Development of Photography

(Continued from page 561)

solution of the elements of light, as when exposed to light.

The next was the discovery that silver, gun and other bodies were rendered wholly insoluble when exposed to light in combination with certain acids.

A True Exponent of Progress—

THE G.V. ELECTRIC TRUCK

THE "Scientific American" has recorded no more interesting phase of industrial progress than the growth of Motor Transportation. A decade or so has seen the city truck horse superseded by a trackless machine. A few years have modified our entire system of handling merchandise, at least in the larger cities.

And in this march of progress, in this inevitable working of economic law, the Electric Truck—and especially the G. V. Electric truck—has had an important part. It was the pioneer—the first motor competitor of the city horse.

A glance at the illustrations will show, in part, the evolution of the G. V. Electric. It was a trucking factor before the two cylinder automobile was efficient. In spite of the limitations of early design and power plant—in spite of prejudice and competition—it has steadily forged ahead. Today there are nearly 2,000 General Vehicle Electric trucks in daily service in New York City alone. This is more than 25% of all trucks employed in the city. G. V. Electrics are operating in 42 of the 48 states and 9 foreign countries.

A Growing Confidence in Electric Delivery

Now that the Electric truck has demonstrated its long-lived efficiency—now that it is better understood—there is a growing confidence in the Electric method—yes—the Electric principle—of trucking and delivery. The more efficient motor trucking becomes the more Electric trucks will be used in their field. And this field takes in fully 80% of all average city work. This is being recognized and shrewd men are profiting thereby.

The Electric is *not* a competitor of the Gasoline truck. Both have their economical fields in which they are fundamentally superior. The

trouble has been that some business men have ignored the Electric and paid an unnecessary premium on other forms of delivery in the Electric's field.

Twenty-five (25) big city firms already use 1,116 G. V. Electrics. This shows the logical preponderance of the high grade Electric in the city. Other firms are systematizing their delivery service and giving the horse, the Electric truck and the Gasoline truck each their economic place. The scientific application of motor trucking to his business should be studied by every business man and in that study we can help. And this is why.

The Complete G. V. Line Includes All Types of Motor Trucks

Engineering counsel and co-operation can best be supplied by the strong, experienced manufacturer of motor trucks. The General Vehicle Company has developed a *complete line of commercial motor vehicles*. It builds gasoline trucks as well as electric trucks, *industrial* (or internal service) trucks, as well as road trucks. It has even supplied *gas-electric* trucks for special purposes. Six Electric models ranging from 1,000 to 10,000 pounds are provided and both worm and chain drive are available in the lightest types. Patrol wagons, street sprinklers, ambulances, power-dumping bodies, trucks equipped with winches and hoists, street cleaning tractors, trailers and many other types are provided. The Industrial Division, supplies Electric industrial trucks (as illustrated), industrial tractors, including "Electric mules" for the lumber, crane trucks and similar apparatus. No other manufacturer is in a position to so well serve the varied needs of the truck buyer as the long established General Vehicle Company.

We are prepared to impartially fit the right vehicle to the exact need. To supplement the Electric truck with the gas truck or to displace the hand truck. *Specific adaptability* is our watchword. This is why you can bring your trucking and delivery problem to us with every assurance of practical co-operation and help.

Catalogue 101 contains fascinating figures on ready-to-your-hand returns on improved delivery. Why not write for it?

General Vehicle Company, Inc.

General Office and Factory

Long Island City, New York



NEW YORK

CHICAGO

BOSTON

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1—A 5-ton G. V. Electric built 1901. Double motor piston drive. Note the steering in front and the relatively crude steering mechanism.



2—A 5-ton G. V. Electric built 1912. Single motor chain drive. Contrast this with the truck above.



3—G. V. Electric built 1905. Double motor piston drive. Plain bearings. Right side lower steering. Mileage per charge 25.



4—G. V. Electric built 1907. Single motor chain drive. Steering wheel in center, roller bearings. Mileage per charge 40.



5—G. V. Electric built 1914. Single motor worm drive. Long wheel base, steering wheel on left. Battery under hood. Oil oil of hook, interlocking safety device. Mileage per charge 50-60.



6—G. V. Electric built 1916. Single motor worm drive. Long wheel base, steering wheel on left. Battery under hood. Oil oil of hook, interlocking safety device. Mileage per charge 50-60.



7—5-ton G. V. Mercedes (gasoline) Truck. The United Dressed Beef Co. operates 25 G. V. Trucks. 25 Electric and 3 Gas. The latter for the long fast hauls.



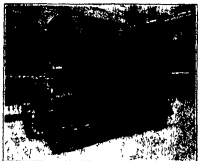
8—A Modern 5-ton G. V. Electric with winch. This winch is fed from the same battery which drives the truck. Very efficient.



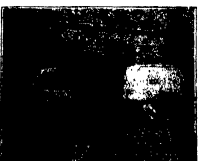
9—5-ton G.V. Electric ice truck. One customer uses three with dump bodies for moving crushed ice. We have been very successful in the cold-weather business also.



10—2000 lb. G. V. Electric industrial truck. Hundreds of these are demonstrating to the manufacturer the railroad and the steamship company that the hand truck, like the truck horse, is becoming obsolete. These Electric stevedores frequently replace 15 men each.



11—G.V. Electric worm drive patrol wagon. Practical, efficient, economical. Ample speed and mileage, compare it with the Lord & Taylor wagon.



12—G. V. Electric Street Cleaning Tractor. Very powerful and efficient. We are building 10 others for use on the Great time. Bring your problem to the General Vehicle Company.

Answer this Question?

Have you looked into the
efficiency of the Counting,
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For if you have and you are not using **NATIONAL SYSTEM**

You are Losing Money
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We will guarantee to prove this to you if you will let us go into the matter. We are Efficiency Experts. It costs you not one penny unless we make you money, as we guarantee—50 to 90% saving.

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No Middle Step Here

The men who are pouring the concrete follow fast on the heels of the men who lay the Self-Sentering. No time and expense for forms—temporary construction is unnecessary.

Self-Sentering is a combined centering and reinforcement. Think what cutting out forms would mean in the money and time cost of your proposed new building. But



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cuts more than the cost of forms. It lightens construction. With Self-Sentering your everlasting concrete roofs, curtain walls, partitions, etc., need be but two inches thick. Can be adapted to all shapes and designs. You can have arched or flat floors. Gauge for gauge, Self-Sentering has a greater sectional area than any other similar form. For required strength, Self-Sentering construction is, therefore, the lightest.

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Latest edition. 112 pages. Full of details, test results and various types of construction. Send for it today. The last word in improved construction.

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Makers also of Herringbone the Rigid Metal Lath



This observation was first made by Mr. Bequerel.

The next idea evolved was that getting made insoluble by light, might be made to imprison particles of coloring matter. Where light acted, these would remain where it did not act they would wash out by reason of the insolubility of the portion of the film in which they were contained. This was an important step and was made by Pottevin in 1855. The carbon process now used was invented and patented in 1866 by J. W. Swan.

The Introduction of Dry Plates.

Although dry plates were proposed as early as 1854 by Gaudin in France and Muirhead in England, J. M. Tanponot seems to have been the first to have invented a practical dry plate. His process was cumbersome. It was not until Major C. Russell introduced the alkaline developer (1862), which necessitated the employment of silver bromide on the sensitized glass, that the dry plate really became workable by anyone. His dry plates are the forerunners of those we now employ in photography.

Up to the time of W. B. Bolton and B. J. Sayre's experiments (1864) silver iodide had been considered the staple of a sensitized film on which to take negatives. It occurred to them to bring the sensitive salts of silver in colloid form while liquid and to form a sensitive film merely by letting the colloid, containing the salts in suspension, flow over the glass plate. Thus, the colloid emulsion process was born—a process which revolutionized photographic manipulations. M. Carey Lea of Philadelphia and W. Cooper, Jr., of Reading, placed the process on a commercial basis by improvements which made the plate more sensitive.

Since silver bromide emulsion could not be prepared in colloid form, naturally experimenters began to cast about for colloid substitutes. The researches of Maddox (1871), King (1873), Burgess (1873), but above all the work of H. Kennett (1874) and C. Bennett (1878) resulted in the gelatine emulsion process of making dry plates.

Development of the Photographic Camera.

The first photographic camera of which we have any account was simply a darkened room, the sunlight being reflected through a window by means of a mirror casting an image of the subject upon a sheet of sensitized paper. The next was a plain box with a plate holder fitted to the back, the lens being mounted in a tube and inserted in the aperture in front so that it would slide in or out as a means of focusing. Such was the camera used by Niépce and Daguerre in their earlier experiments, but in 1839 we find Daguerre using a camera composed of two boxes, one sliding within the other, controlled by a brass sliding rod underneath.

Then followed the camera with stationary front, the back sliding upon its base with a set-screw and connected with the front by means of a bellows.

The wagon load of paraphernalia necessary for the amateur's traveling outfit in the seventies and eighties, while it did not deter an enthusiast here and there, did prevent anything like widespread interest in photography. To simplify these processes and lighten the camera equipment itself were the problems that fell to the American inventor, George Eastman.

Dry plates were too heavy and cumbersome for the amateur. A thin, rollable, sensitive, transparent strip, which would carry the negative, was required—something unbreakable and light. That need was supplied by the celluloid film which was invented by the Rev. Hannibal Goodwin in 1867. There can be no doubt that the celluloid film was also independently worked out by Eastman and his chemists; certainly the commercial film came from Eastman and his associates.

That the film camera—the kodak as we now call it—became as popular as it is must always be credited to Eastman. He and his chemists had worked on the film idea for years. They certainly developed a commercially practical method of pro-

ducing films cheaply—at first using ground paper and finally "gelatin" emulsion.

The important, permanent invention—the kodak—was a logical outcome of the roll film idea. The first kodak appeared in 1886. It took round pictures 2½ inches in diameter, had a fixed focus, and carried a roll of one hundred exposures. Compared with the 11½ inch camera we carry to-day, with so much pride, it was a rather crude and clumsy affair. But it marked a giant stride, and relieved the amateur of so much of his burden that photography henceforth became a pleasure instead of a drudgery. Its evolution proceeded simultaneously with the film discoveries, the evolutionary stages involving daylight loading, first by means of a black protecting cloth at each end of the spool, and later by the present cartridge system. This latter rendered obsolete all earlier kodak models and marked the beginning of the compact, convenient, and dainty models of to-day.

Photographs in Natural Colors.

Long before the hand camera became as popular as it is, long, indeed, before photography became a general pastime, the taking of pictures in natural colors engaged the attention of scientific men.

The original process used by Clerk Maxwell in his famous lecture at the Royal Institution in 1861 was an additive process, for he projected on a screen three lantern slides made from three negatives taken of a colored ribbon by means of three lanterns in front of which were glass troughs, these containing, respectively, autophosphane of iron, which is red; chloride of copper, which is green; and ammonio-copper sulphate, which is blue-violet. The three lantern slides taken by red light was projected by red light, that from the negative taken by green light was projected by green light, and that taken by blue light was projected by blue light, the three pictures being superposed on one another, so that a colored image was seen on the screen, of which the report says: "If the red and green images had been as fully photographed as the blue, it would have been a truly colored image of the ribbon." This imperfection of Maxwell's result was undoubtedly due to his lack of photographic materials appreciably sensitive to any colors other than blue-violet.

Since this first experiment the additive process of three-color projection has been used by many workers, the best known being Ives. In his famous "Kromskop" he modified the principle so that his apparatus could be used both for projection on a screen and also for viewing by the eye to be used by an individual observer.

An entirely different application of the additive process of color photography is found in the screen plates, of which the best known example is the Lumière autochrome plate. The possibility of this method was first indicated by Duane du Haeron in 1868, in the little booklet entitled "La Photographie des Couleurs," in which he outlined many of the processes of color photography which have since been realized in practice. The principle of the screen plate process is to divide the surface of the plate into a number of microscopic filter units—red, green, and blue-violet—and then to take the picture through these units upon an emulsion from which a positive is made either by reversal or by the ordinary photographic methods, this positive being registered with the screen, so that when the emulsion was dissolved by exposure through one of the filter units, light is transmitted through that unit in the finished picture. The Lumière plate represents this process in its simplest form, the filter screen being coated upon glass and the emulsion on top of the screen, while the negative itself is reversed and covered by a glass plate, so that it remains always registered with regard to the screen.

The subtractive processes depend upon the generation of colors by the combination of the three complementary colors—blue-green, magenta, and yellow. Where magenta is superposed by yellow, we get



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Over one-third of all the Electric Trucks and Delivery Wagons in the Country are Equipped with Edison Batteries. The few typical examples shown in the border prove that Buyers of the Best buy Edison.

Seventy-five per cent. of the Industrial Trucks, Baggage Trucks, etc. are equipped with Edison Batteries. One-half of the Storage Battery Mining Locomotives are equipped with Edison Batteries.

One hundred American Railroads are using the Edison Battery for Train Lighting or Signaling or both. The Edison Battery has placed the Lighting of Country Homes remote from Central Station Service on a practical basis. The Edison Battery has eliminated "battery trouble" from the Ignition and Lighting Systems of Gasoline Automobiles and Trucks. For Passenger Electric and Motor Cycle Lighting the Edison Battery has taken the leading place.

The Edison Battery Electric Safety Mine Lamp is the first to receive the approval of the U. S. Bureau of Mines for Safety and for Practicability and Efficiency in General Service (February 1915).

The Edison "Wireless-Special" Battery has been adopted as an emergency source of power for radio apparatus and for emergency lighting by such large navigation companies as the United Fruit Co. and the Merchants and Miners Transportation Company.

The President's Yacht "Mayflower" is lighted by an Edison Battery. The "Iolanda," "Vanadis" and "Sea Call" have the three largest storage battery equipments of any American Steam Yachts and are Edison-Equipped. Innumerable smaller installations all testify to the value of an Alkaline Battery in Marine Work.

The Edison Battery for Submarine Boats has been purchased by the U. S. Government for the Submarine now being constructed at Portsmouth, the first Submarine which this Government has ever undertaken to build in its own yards.

An Exhibition of Edison Storage Batteries and their practical applications is being held in Transportation Building, Panama Pacific Exposition.

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"You've been strutting around the house, bragging: 'How Cool I Am'—now I know the reason—caught with the goods. You can't get ahead of your Dad, though—ha! ha! I'm wearing B.V.D., too. 'Mother got mine for me the other day at Brown's. You bet she knows how to buy. Always gets what she asks for, and Boy, I haven't felt so cool and comfortable in all my life. Doesn't bind or chafe—launders as white and soft as a handkerchief.'"

On every B.V.D. Undergarment is sewed

This Red Wagon Label



(Trade Mark Reg. U. S. Pat. Off. and Foreign Countries)

Firmly insist upon seeing the B.V.D. Red Wagon Label, and firmly refuse to take any Athlete's Underwear without it. Then you will get properly cut, correctly made, long-service underwear.

B.V.D. Union Suits (Pat. U. S. & 4,400,718) 50¢ \$1.00, \$1.50, \$2.00 and \$3.00; B.V.D. 4 and 6 Cut Undershirts and Knee Length Drawers, 50¢, 75¢, \$1.00 and \$1.50 the Garment.

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primary red, the yellow absorbing the blue and the magenta the green light, so that only the red constituent of white light is left. By superposing the three in the requisite proportions, all colors can be reproduced. The method adopted in practice is to make three negatives through the three color filters just as in the additive process, and then to print positives from these negatives in such a way that the image consists of a colored dye, the commonest method being to print the negatives in dichromated gelatine. Three negatives are printed by this process, the negative taken through the red filter being printed on gelatine which is dyed blue-green, the one through the green filter on gelatine dyed magenta, and the one through the blue filter on gelatine that is dyed yellow. When the three colored transparencies are cemented together on top of one another, the result completely reproduces the colors of the original object. This transparency may be viewed in the hand or examined in front of an artificial light or projected in a lantern, or instead of this, a paper may be made by stripping off the three gelatine sheets on paper; and some very beautiful results have been obtained.

The simplest possible subtractive process will be one in which the original negatives themselves are directly transformed into color positives; therefore, the simplest possible color process will be one in which two negatives taken under two filters are directly transformed into the partial pictures for the two-color process, the red negative being turned into a green positive and the green negative into a red positive, and the two then superposed face to face to make the completed picture. Such a process would employ no loose film and only the minimum number of glass plates, while there would be no transferring of pictures from one glass to another. The final difficulty of registering also is reduced to a minimum. Moreover, if the original negatives can be actually transformed into a color positive, we may expect to retain in the positives all the gradation in the original negatives. The gradation by this process should consequently be as good as can possibly be obtained. Also, since there is no screen and the high-lights are represented by clear, unstained gelatine, the transparency of the picture should be equal to that of a black and white subject.

The direct transformation of a negative in black silver into a positive in which the silver of the negative was represented by clear gelatine and the places that were lightest in the negative by a full strength of any colored dye that could be chosen, the transformation being correct throughout, so that all the gradation of the original negative was reproduced in the resulting positive was a problem never satisfactorily solved until it was attacked in the research laboratories of the Eastman Kodak Company. It was this specific problem of transforming a silver negative into a dye positive, the working out of which made the new two-color "Kodachrome" process possible.

The method adopted is to make the negatives on specially prepared panchromatic plates and through the correct filters, and then develop them as usual. They are then chemically treated so as to remove the black silver and leave the plate looking just like the colorless sheet of gelatine, showing no sign of an image. When this plate is put into the specially prepared dye bath, the dye goes into the plate more easily than the silver was absent in the negative; that is, where there was least light in the original photograph or in the part represented by deep shadows; while in the parts corresponding to the high-lights, where there was much silver in the negative, the dye penetrates more slowly, so that as the film slowly enters the film, the original negative is transformed into a positive produced in a colored dye. While the one color is made in this way, the companion picture is also dyed in the other color, and the two, when placed together, make the finished picture. The process is thus seen to be simplicity in itself, the chief point of it being the method which has

been worked out for transforming a black and white negative into a color positive, and which has been adopted by the process. It is evident that all colors cannot be correctly reproduced, and the colors for which the process fails are the blues, violets, magentas, and purples. Light blues appear blue-green, and violets, black; magentas appear pink; and purples, dark brownish-red. On the other hand, flesh tints of all kinds, and all shades of red, orange or green grays and blacks are well rendered. As these are predominant in portraits, the results are more satisfying for this class of work than for outdoor work.

How the Motion-picture Machine Was Invented

In a certain sense, motion-picture photography is as old as photography itself. There is abundant evidence of the desire to produce visual representations of objects in motion, evidence embodied in such fantastically named toys as the Thaumatrope, Zoetrope (Wheel of Life), Stroboscope, Phenakistoscope, etc. Most of these are fifty years old and more. The first of them was invented by Dr. Coleman Sellers of Philadelphia, who took out a patent on February 6th, 1861, for what he called his "stereoscopic cabinet," but which came to be known as a "kinesmatograph." Sellers must be regarded as the pioneer in the motion picture field.

In these early devices the pictures were usually arranged in a circle on cardboard and viewed through holes corresponding in number with the pictures. The pictures passed before the eye continuously and were seen for a greater or less time according to the size of the hole. Sellers, the first in the field, differed from his contemporaries and imitators in recognizing the fact that the pictures should be entirely at rest during the moment of vision, a principle essential in motion-picture photography. The three vital features of a modern motion-picture apparatus are (1) a flexible ribbon picture carrier, (2) a mechanism for intermittently holding it before a lens, and (3) a place for the exhibition of the pictures to a great many people at the same time. Sellers's apparatus fulfilled the first two of these conditions; but his apparatus exhibited his pictures to one person at a time only. Because he introduced the intermittently moved ribbon-like picture carrier, however, Sellers is in a sense the father of motion-picture photography. Ducons of France in 1868 patented a ribbon-like picture carrier, the latter controlled by sprockets. Then came Donithorne, an Englishman (see *Nature*, January 24th, 1878); Marey of Lyons, France (1881); and Reynaud (1889) with the same idea. While all of these adopted and employed perforated picture ribbons, Marey employed the celluloid film.

The First Public Motion Picture Entertainment

To Henry Reay of Philadelphia must be assigned the credit of having given the first motion-picture exhibition in the modern sense of the term. That was in 1870 His invention, the "Phanatrope," was first exhibited in Philadelphia, at the American Academy of Music, February 8th, 1870, before an audience of more than 1,500 persons. The related photographs were small glass plate positives of selected subjects reduced from wet plate negatives, taken from successive poses, by an ordinary camera. The "phanatrope" or exhibiting device, was a revolving disk rotated by the operator so that the images of the figures (the pictures) were kept in perfect synchronism with the sprockets of forty revolving pictures. We have here not only the first motion picture but the correlation of the pictures. Henry Reay went on to make a number of pictures and gave a number of exhibitions, but he never made a motion picture in the modern sense of the word.

1845 - 1915

Seventy Years of the New-York Life Insurance Company

THE New-York Life Insurance Company was organized in the same year the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN was founded. There were at that time twelve American life companies, and the new insurance written during the previous year was about three million dollars. Of these twelve companies, nine survive, but only four are now taking new risks. The business of all American life companies in 1914—now over 200 in number—was about thirty-five hundred millions. The New-York Life's new business in a single week is now greater than the total yearly business of all the companies when the New-York Life was organized.

But New York was a small city seventy years ago, and the United States was geographically very large. The city had a population of less than 400,000; but one steam railroad—the Harlem—entered it. There were but 27 States in the Union, with a total population of about 20,000,000. There were less than 5,000 miles of railroad in the whole country, and the first iron rail was laid in that year. Chicago had about 10,000 inhabitants, San Francisco about 500, Minneapolis, St. Paul and Kansas City a few hundred, Omaha and Denver none. The first telegram had been sent less than a year before. The expenditures of the United States Government were less than \$22,000,000. The slave-ship "Spitfire" was condemned at Boston in 1845, and among the first thousand policies written by the New-York Life were 339 upon the lives of persons of African descent who were held in bondage under the laws of the United States.

The first Annual Statement of the New-York Life showed the following:

Policies issued	449	Expenses	\$5,191.16
Amount insured	\$929,038.00	Net Assets	17,495.55
Premiums received	22,622.71	Insurance in force	799,000.00
Interest received	32.33		

There had been no death-losses. The first death-claim was paid in November, 1846, was for \$225, and was paid upon the life of a slave. There was a sort of irony in the fact that his name was Philip Swan! Such policies were always for small amounts, the term one year, with a seven-year rate. Sometimes several lives were insured under one policy; Policy No. 268 was upon the lives of ten slaves and one white man. The issue of slave policies was discontinued by direction of the Trustees in April, 1848.

The policies of the time gave the insured permission to travel and reside in the United States south of Virginia and Kentucky, BETWEEN NOVEMBER 1 AND JUNE 1, and that was considered liberal. To travel outside the settled limits of the United States, Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, a permit must be obtained. Policies were absolutely forfeitable for (1) non-payment of premium, (2) death by the insured's own hand, (3) any untrue statement in the application, (4) death upon the high seas, in consequence of a duel, or at the hands of justice, or in the known violation of any law of the United States, or of any State or Province in which residence and travel were permitted. Military or naval service in time of war invalidated the policy.

It is now time to note how far we have come in the matter of business and in policy conditions. The Seventieth Annual Report of the New-York Life shows the following figures for the year 1914:

New Policies written	107,320	Expenses	\$13,293,067
Amount insured	\$226,674,121	Taxes, other than real estate taxes	1,309,601
Premiums received	90,467,178	Policies in force, Dec. 31	1,142,253
Interests, rents, etc.	35,799,396	Amount insured	2,347,098,388
Paid death-losses	26,230,268	Net assets, Dec. 31	799,838,591
Other payments to policy-holders	45,741,097		

The changes in policy conditions have been almost as great as in the volume of business—if such things could be compared. Policies are now written practically without conditions except the due payment of premium, provided present residence, occupation and habits of life are satisfactory. A suicide clause is operative for one year. Policies are automatically non-forfeitable after two years' premiums have been paid. Loans and cash values are available after two years. Policies are payable in case of death, not only in cash, but other valuable options are available, such as leaving the money with the Company at interest and drawing it out \$100 at a time; payment in a selected number of equal annual instalments; an income for life, etc. Under the first of these options the New-York Life will pay the \$100 in five \$20 checks.

Another late feature introduced by the New-York Life is a disability clause, insuring against total and permanent disability. The benefits include the waiver of premiums due, and the payment of the face of the policy in ten equal annual instalments if the disability continues.

The advantages of life insurance are now so generally recognized that it has been adopted by the state, by business and by society, in one form or another, as the best method of replacing the earning power of the husband and father who dies prematurely.

What will the next seventy years bring to Life Insurance and to the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN? Many amazing developments in science will be reflected in the pages of this publication. Is it too much to hope that within that period the savagery of international relations may be superseded by the law of human brotherhood—which is the great law of life insurance?

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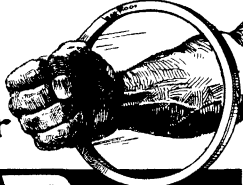
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photographs combined with the voice of a reader who supplied the audible words. Perhaps the name of Edward Muybridge is the most conspicuous in the history of chronophotography, although he was not the developer of motion-picture apparatus in the accepted sense. His remarkable studies of animals in motion were made with a battery of cameras. His work was of more scientific than of commercial value. Muybridge did design, about 1880, his "zoopraxiscope" to exhibit his glass plate positives of animal movements. This was more or less an exact counterpart of Heile's "phantasmagrop." The device of Mr. C. Francis Jenkins of Washington, D. C. deserves particular mention, for they seem to have established a type of projector which has continued until now. He was the first to have publicly exhibited in 1888 (before the Capitol Camera Club, Washington), and later in 1894, with an apparatus of a modern type. Lumière gave the first public demonstration in Paris in 1885 with his cinematograph—a combination camera projector which exhibited pictures of remarkable beauty.

In 1890 Edison made his first motion-picture camera in which a film was intermittently moved. His earliest form of exhibiting apparatus, known as the "kinescope," was a machine in which a positive print from the negative obtained in the camera was exhibited directly to the eye through a peephole, but in 1895 the films were applied to modified forms of magic lanterns, by which the images were projected upon a screen. Edison, however, was not held to be the creator of the modern motion-picture apparatus in a very important patent infringement suit decided a few years ago. Indeed, it is hardly to be expected that any one man could claim to have created the motion-picture machine as we know it. It is a composite, embodying principles discovered many years ago, each by a single investigator. But Edison certainly did fine work in developing the machine along the line of manufacturing details and much credit is due to him for that.

The standardization of the motion-picture machine is now world-wide. Films made in the most remote corners of the earth fit any machine in any theater anywhere. Hooks, as employed by Lumière, have become standard in cameras, while the intermittently rotated sprocket plan of Jenkins has been adopted on projecting machines in all countries. To Nicholas Power belongs the credit of having introduced many refinements which contributed to the perfection of the projecting apparatus, notably his device for preventing the ignition of the highly inflammable film as it passes in front of the intensely hot arc light.

Of those who essayed to exploit machines combining motion and sound, not one can be considered pre-eminently successful. It seems a very difficult matter to synchronize the phonograph with the motion-picture projector and, indeed, dozens of patents have been taken out for synchronizing devices. The fault seems to lie more with the sound reproducing devices than with the motion-picture machine. The phonographic voice is certainly not as natural as the animated picture.

Motion-picture Photography in Colors. Motion-picture photography in colors depends upon the same principles as ordinary photography in colors. In addition to one or two processes which are only of laboratory interest, all methods of color photography consist of applications of the three-color theory of vision, depending upon the fact that any color may be matched by a combination in the proper proportions of the three primary colors—red, green, and blue—and violet. There are two main methods by which the combination of these colors can be achieved and in motion, produced, these being termed, respectively, the additive and subtractive methods.

Of the photographic color schemes in chronophotography, the South-Urban kinemacolor process is prominent. This is a process in which two colors are used

instead of three. Positives made from a red and green negative are projected alternately upon the screen through red and green filters. While the color-rendering in this process is quite pleasing, the correctness is much inferior to that of the three-color process, but the results obtained are sufficiently encouraging to justify the belief that a slight improvement in color rendering over the results obtained by this two-color additive process is satisfactory for many purposes.

One of the latest applications has been the Gaumont three-color process, where three cinematograph pictures are taken on films of the usual width, one over the other, through three lenses, the pictures being somewhat reduced in height so that the three pictures are two and one quarter times the length of the ordinary black-and-white picture, the film being moved after each exposure through the length of the three pictures. Projection is accomplished by means of a very ingenious triple lens, each positive being projected through its own lens system and filter.

Communicating Over Great Distances

(Continued from page 512.)

opening the old Reia-Bell controversy, it must be said that there is grave doubt whether Reia's instrument ever did or could transmit speech, whereas there is no doubt at all that Bell's instrument did transmit speech. The exact idea of the telephone also occurred to Elisha Gray, who, however, filed a caveat in the United States Patent Office only a few hours after Bell, with the result that all the commercial fruits of one of the greatest discoveries in the world slipped from his grasp. Bell's patent has been called "the most valuable single patent ever issued" in any country. That is probably true; for its claims cover not merely an instrument, but the whole art of transmitting speech over a wire. When the telephone was placed upon a business basis by Gardiner Hubbard and Thomas Watson, there was very much indeed for the encouragement which he gave Bell and for his business acumen, and broad-mindedness; the Western Union Telegraph Company realized that a formidable competitor of the telegraph had appeared. It organized the American Speaking Telephone Company, and engaged Edison, Gray and Doherty as electrical engineers. These three men, as well as Berliner, Blake, Hughes, and others, developed the telephone and made it a really practical commercial instrument. In 1877 Berliner invented the loose-contact transmitter, which applied the induction coil between transmitter and receiver. These two inventions have ever since been applied in all practical telephony, and no other devices have taken their places in practice. Both of these are essential elements of the telephone as we know it. In Bell's instruments sound vibrations impinge upon a steel diaphragm, arranged adjacent to the pole of a bar electro-magnet, whereby the diaphragm acts as an armature, and by its vibrations induces very weak electric impulses in the magnetic coil. These impulses, according to Bell's theory, correspond in form with the sound waves, and passing over the line, energize the magnet coil at the receiving end, and by varying the magnetism, cause the receiving diaphragm to be similarly vibrated to reproduce the sound. A single apparatus is, therefore, used at each end, performing the double function of transmitter and receiver. With Berliner's improvement a closed circuit is used, on which is constantly flowing a battery current, and instead of that circuit is a pair of electrodes, one or both of which is of carbon. These electrodes are always in contact with a certain initial pressure, so that current will be always flowing over the circuit. One of the electrodes is connected with the diaphragm on which the sound waves impinge, and the vibration of this diaphragm causes the pressure between the electrodes to be correspondingly varied, and thereby effects a variation in the current, resulting in the production of impulses which reproduce the sound waves. (Continued on page 512.)



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Inquiry No. 2140. Wanted the name and address of a concern selling Dr. Young's K-C Sanitary Bath.

Inquiry No. 2141. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer of a machine for cutting sheets of cloth and wrapping and bundle around the cloth with wire. A machine of some such kind is used in the yard made for wiring up clothing to launch the bundles of burlap for palm brushes.

Inquiry No. 2142. Wanted the name and address of manufacturers of fuel oil burners, and are well equipped with all accessories, and are willing to exportation in a locomotive firebox of the following dimensions: 24 inches forward and 26 inches at the back, between grate level and crown sheet, 21 inches side walls.

Inquiry No. 2144. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer or concern if it is covering the needs for use with air pumps for creating a vacuum.

Inquiry No. 2145. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer who can make a combination pencil holder and pencil protector.

Inquiry No. 2146. Wanted the name and address of a manufacturer who can supply machinery for automatically wrapping cigars in silk imported from Japan having the ends tightly wound and covered with cellophane purchase of machine or patent rights.

Inquiry No. 2147. Wanted to buy patented article, which is needed in every home, with a possible view to manufacture and distributing.

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AS a companion piece to our *Eight* we announce for 1915 a new *Oldsmobile Four*, Model 43—very distinctive, with 120-inch wheelbase and a correspondingly ample body. Everything about the car attracts—a powerful Oldsmobile valve-in-head motor; long and buoyant springs, fascinatingly attractive cabinet work; clear, thrifty, live hickory wheels in natural finish; seats delightfully deep and soft—and the surprisingly moderate price, \$1095.

Booklet No. 126 on request.

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...the first specifications cover the transmitting of subscribers' lines on contacts arranged in layers or levels on the inside of a section of a cylinder, and of connecting them with other lines by means of wipers fixed on a shaft having a vertical and rotary movement. The first mechanism required seven wires from each station to the central office mechanism, which was controlled by means of push buttons mounted on the telephone. Pressing one of these buttons caused a number of times sent current to a magnet which lifted the wiper shaft to the desired level. Pressing a second button sent current to a second magnet, which caused the shaft to revolve, bringing the wipers into contact with the line leading to the called telephone. A third button was used to ring the bell, and at the end of the conversation, the connection was released by pressing a fourth button, which caused a magnet to withdraw the details which held the shaft in position. Strowger was not an electrical expert. While his invention was extremely crude and impractical for actual service, it contained many possibilities of development. Mr. Alexander H. Keith, an electrical engineer, became interested in the subject. Under his guidance the improvement of the apparatus began at once, and has continued uninterruptedly for the past twenty-five years.

A review of the history of the adoption of automatic equipment shows that the first public exchange was installed in La Porte, Ind., in 1892. Since that date some one hundred and fifty other exchanges have been installed in the United States, especially in the Central and Western States.

Facsimile Telegraphy and Phototelegraphy.

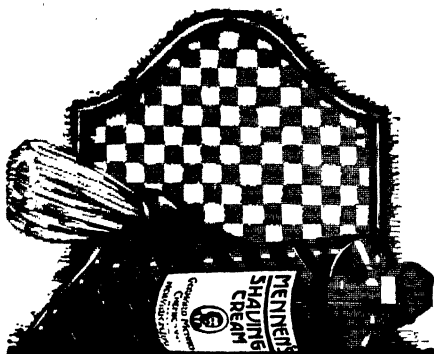
Teleautography, or telegraphic transmission of a facsimile of handwriting, or drawings, or photography, or telegraphic reproduction by a receiver of a picture sent by a transmitter are in their present states the slow results of the experiments of many inventors during a long period of years. The first device of all, a copying machine intended especially for transmitting print, was invented by a Scotchman, Alexander Bain, who obtained a patent for it in 1843. In this each letter was formed by a number of lines, each line being transmitted by a special wire. The lines were produced by a comb containing insulated metal points, which glided over the type to be transmitted. A similar comb at the receiving end reproduced the lines on a chemically prepared paper. Bain proposed to copy the type with one metal point alone, omitting the comb and transmitting one line after another, but the patent does not make clear how the lines were put together. Bain's method was later taken up and improved by Russell, who exhibited this apparatus at the London Exposition of 1862. The next and more practical copying machine was that of Bakewell, who in 1867 transmitted handwriting. Bakewell substituted with insulating ink his method around a cylinder, the rotation of which by clockwork caused a metal wiper to slide over the foil. The same condition existed at the receiving cylinder, which also slid chemically prepared paper was substituted for the foil. With each rotation the wiper shifted slightly toward the center of the cylinder, and an effort was made to keep the rotation synchronous.

...the first specifications cover the transmitting of subscribers' lines on contacts arranged in layers or levels on the inside of a section of a cylinder, and of connecting them with other lines by means of wipers fixed on a shaft having a vertical and rotary movement. The first mechanism required seven wires from each station to the central office mechanism, which was controlled by means of push buttons mounted on the telephone. Pressing one of these buttons caused a number of times sent current to a magnet which lifted the wiper shaft to the desired level. Pressing a second button sent current to a second magnet, which caused the shaft to revolve, bringing the wipers into contact with the line leading to the called telephone. A third button was used to ring the bell, and at the end of the conversation, the connection was released by pressing a fourth button, which caused a magnet to withdraw the details which held the shaft in position. Strowger was not an electrical expert. While his invention was extremely crude and impractical for actual service, it contained many possibilities of development. Mr. Alexander H. Keith, an electrical engineer, became interested in the subject. Under his guidance the improvement of the apparatus began at once, and has continued uninterruptedly for the past twenty-five years.

although of little practical value, introduced a new element, an electro-magnetic receiving device to replace the electro-chemical one. Every electric impulse from the transmitter brought a small electro-magnet into action, which caused an automatic pen to be pressed against ordinary writing paper. Oseelli's "Pantelegraph" (1856) had reciprocating action, metal foil, and better synchronous movement. This was the first device to come into action in Paris and some French provincial cities. The Abbatin, Meyer (about 1864), brought out an apparatus with electro-magnetic receiver, the novelty being in the helix, which takes the place of the receiving metal style. This was the first electro-magnetic copying telegraph to come into practical use. Gérard (1863) devised a metal style that moved in spiral lines like the needle of a gramophone, but the idea led to no result. Also in 1865 Hubert, a Frenchman, proposed replacing the insulating marking on the foil by heavy marking forming a kind of relief. This idea was developed later by others. Lénor, who in 1867 proposed an original method of synchronism, is said to be the first to suggest transmitting photographs by the teleautograph, after reduction to black and white. He was also the first to lay carbon paper upon white in a receiver. In 1868 D'Arhincourt produced an improved synchronism in which tuning-forks were employed for the first time in a teleautograph. His theory is largely used at the present time. In the seventies, Sawyer, an American, introduced the pressing of the paper containing the picture to be transmitted on a fine plate, thus making a printing plate, also a method of writing in relief or embossed lines for the transmitter. Relief writing was first developed by Edison in the early eighties, and by Denison in the middle of the eighties. De Houdt (1874) obtained synchronism by using a special line aided by a vibrating pole-changer, and Sheehy (1883) by a special line aided by alternating current motors. Bain's idea in the formation of letters was revived by Parvelli (1882) and Brooks (1884), who used alternating currents of different frequencies. Hummel's teleautograph and the electrophotograph of Dunlany, Palmer and Mills, which appeared at the close of the last century, are copying telegraphs with electro-magnetic receivers.

The teleautograph has also proved capable of working in connection with wireless telegraphy. The idea was first brought out in the patents of Klier (1888), and Greville-Williams (1896) and was further developed by Bruen (1903), Pauson (1904), Garcia (1908), and Knudsen (1906). In all of these apparatus the conductive part of the transmitting foil closes the primary current of a Ruhmkorff coil by the aid of which electric waves are sent out. At the receiving end a coherer closes a local current during the arrival of the waves from the transmitter. Among the teleautographs based upon this method which have had practical demonstration are those of Berjonne (1897), Thorne Baker (1905), and Korn.

In another form, the teleautograph, instead of copying the original in fine lines at the receiver, makes a recording pen follow the movements of a pencil writing at the transmitter. The idea is that the movement of the point of the pencil on a level surface is made up of two components which can be sent separately by quantitative or pulsatory currents and recombined at the receiver. The first person to suggest transmitting handwriting in this way was the Englishman Jones (1862), the Frenchman Lacoste (1867) and Blenzangé (1868), who proposed a separation by rectangular coordinates. In 1878 Cowper, an Englishman, made the first actual long-distance writer working on the two component principle, using in it quantitative transmission. In 1881 Jordeny, a Frenchman, demonstrated a model at Paris. In 1885, Robertson, an American, brought out a device which is a development of Cowper's idea. In 1886 Höpfer suggested separation by polar co-ordinates. O'Brien's method (1888) was very much like that of Ellsbe Gray, who in the same year brought out his first apparatus,



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etiple of the Adamian method (about 1907) of transmitting variations of tone by intermediate *cliché* has more value.

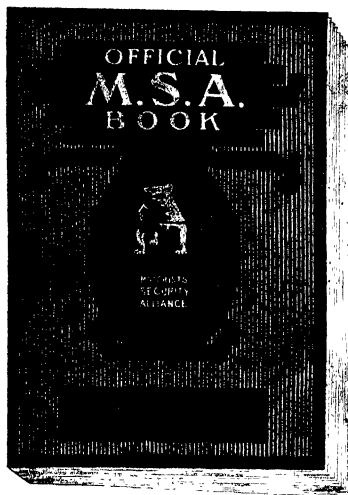
In the statistical method the picture is divided into a large number of small squares, the values of which are estimated and sent as numbers or combinations of numbers in an ordinary telegram, which is then traced out on a correspondingly ruled paper. Gras (1897) proposed such a method for simple outlines. The same idea was brought forward by Bickinson in 1899. In 1895 Willoughby obtained a patent for a somewhat improved invention. A further advance was made by Walter (1897), who sought to transmit half-tones. In 1904 Fortoug combined this method with a form of intermediate *cliché*. In 1910 Stoll and Hiedel made some practical experiments between Chicago and New York by a method similar in principle to Walter's.

When Prof. Heinrich Hertz, in 1887, at Karlsruhe, evolved his splendid experimental proof of the Maxwellian theory of light as an electromagnetic wave phenomenon it would have been indeed a wild dreamer who could have foretold even present-day uses of wireless telegraphy. But an inkling of the future crept out when, two years later, Elhu Thomson suggested that the Hertzian waves might prove valuable for signaling through fog or material objects which could not be penetrated by the shorter waves of light. This idea of Hertzian wave telegraphy was not, however, productive of immediate results, for the inception of radiotelegraphy did not occur until six years later.

In 1890 Edouard Branly's investigations at Paris resulted in the production of delicate instruments which had the property of indicating the presence of Hertzian waves. These operated virtually by closing up the tiny gaps between particles of a pulverized metallic mass, upon the arrival of waves, and so thereafter received the name "coherer." A few years later, in England, Sir Oliver Lodge repeated the experiments of Hertz on a larger scale, using the coherer instead of Hertz's spark-gap resonator as a responding device. In this work fairly large distances, at least as compared to the earlier experiments were traversed by the waves in passing from sender to receiver; it appears that the purpose was not telegraphy, however, but rather a further confirmation of Maxwell's theory.

In 1896, Prof. Popoff of Kronshtadt, Russia, erected an apparatus for the purpose of observing lightning, and in so doing produced the nearest approach to a usable wireless telegraph receiver that had been built up to that time. Modifying the Branly coherer and combining with it a relay, recorder and tapping mechanism he secured a receiver which would mark upon a tape the time of each distant lightning flash. In addition, his apparatus would automatically prepare itself to record the next flash, by tapping the coherer gently and so breaking apart the particles which had been brought together in responding to the lightning discharge just received. Further, his arrangement included an elevated conductor for the purpose of collecting the energy of electromagnetic waves due to lightning, and a ground connection. It is interesting that an essential duplicate of this receiver, as used twenty years ago is now utilized by one of the large power houses in New York to indicate the approach of thunderstorms and so to give warning that preparation must be made to meet an increased lightning load throughout the city.

The very next year, 1896, Guglielmo Marconi demonstrated in England the first real radio telegraph system which had ever been produced. By combining the Morse key with a more powerful form of Hertz transmitter, by perfecting the coherer, of Branly, Lodge and Popoff, and by adding various new devices for protecting the instruments and preventing false operation, the pioneer invention was created. Although the various elements in rather crude form had been at hand for years, it required Marconi to correlate them so as to give the world an operable radiotelegraph. In the 1896 experimental messages were transmitted one and three quarters



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Incandescent Lamps and Incandescence Since 1860

(Continued from page 574.)

shown by the large number of very important contributions she has derived in the last 35 years, and the increasing number of patents she has taken out in this country in recent years, now crowding them applied for by any other foreign nation. Her sons is the gas engine, the gasoline motor; the crude oil engine (Diesel motor); the automobile; the Weisbach lamp; the tungsten lamp; the X-Ray machine; the utilization of blast furnace gas for operation of gas engines; the superheating of steam in locomotive practice; the synthesis of indigo; the contact method of making sulphuric acid, the Goldschmidt thermal process, and the fusible and radical innovations in dye making, drugs, and chemicals.

An interesting consideration of the changing character of our population may be made by comparing the names of inventors prominent in the earlier periods of the country's history with those which are found frequently scattered through the later additions of the Official Gazette. Fulton, Watt, Morse, Babbage, Richards, Fox, Campbell, Ames, Fairbanks, Howe, Colt, McCormick, etc., testify to the complete Anglo-Saxon predominance of former times, while such names as Retzius, Meigs, Phipps, Tesla, Christensen, Doherty, Frisch, Gallager, Conner, Monnot, Krebs, Mears, Friedman, Sauvage, and Lindenthal, which are abundantly sprinkled among the names listed in recent Official Gazettes, offer proof of the levelling that is going on in all departments of American life.

Converting Night Into Day

(Continued from page 574.)

during the late seventies. We have already referred to the so-called "incandescence-arc" lamps, which mark the off-shooting of the incandescent lamp from its parent stem, the arc. Numerous attempts, some of them involving much ingenuity, were made to produce a successful lamp of the "incandescence-arc" type, and much money was sunk in valueless patents, as Dröge's classic tome, "Electrical Illumination," containing records of all these early attempts, abundantly testifies. One lamp of this sort was De Moleyn's. It comprised a glass globe with plugged openings for connection to a vacuum pump; into the upper part of the globe a tube containing finely powdered carbon was sealed; a movable copper wire ran through this tube, and protruded through the orifice at its lower end (inside of the globe), this orifice being exactly large enough to let the carbon dust trickle through slowly, forming an "incandescence-arc" between the copper wire and a platinum spiral that came up through the bottom of the globe.

J. W. Starr of Cincinnati, Ohio (a protégé of George Peabody, the philanthropist), tackled in grim earnest the job of inventing a practical incandescent electric lamp, and his efforts resulted in the so-called Starr-Kling lamp, patented in 1894, when the inventor was only twenty-three years old. Two years later—in the very year, by a singular coincidence, that Edison was born—the ill-starred Starr had worked and worried himself to death, had he lived to complete his experimenting, the successful incandescent lamp might conceivably have been brought forth some thirty years sooner than it was. Starr's lamp had a Torricellian vacuum, the vacuum chamber, like that in a bromine tube, being formed by the inversion of a glass tube containing mercury; the "filament" consisted of a stick of spirit carbon about one eighth inch square in cross-section. The lamp gave a good, bright light when very hot, but blackened rapidly, and was further handicapped by the lack of a cheap, practical system of electricity supply.

Incidentally, we are told that the first incandescent lamp was made in 1860, in the workshop of a blacksmith in the town of Danvers, Mass., and that it was made by a blacksmith named William

Wetmore. Here also the story in England by Henry and Frederick.

A period of comparative stagnation in electric-light development, relieved to be sure by Edison's invention of the storage-battery (1860), ensued for the next twenty-five years, but with the seventies the flood-tide of modern discovery sets in. In 1870, three years after Faraday's death, Z. T. Gramme received a patent on a really practical direct-current dynamo. In 1875 the Sprengel vacuum pump, which became almost immediately an important factor in solving the problem of successful incandescent lamp manufacture, was introduced. In the following year Lieut. Jabluchoff patented his famous "candle," consisting essentially of two vertical sticks of carbon separated by a thin fusible insulating barrier, across the top of which an electric arc played. The rated life of the various types of Jabluchoff candles, which worked on a voltage of about 42, varied from 1 hour and 20 minutes to 3 hours and 20 minutes. Thousands of these candles were sold, although comparatively few found their way to the United States, before they were overtaken by the more modern arc and incandescent lamps.

Meanwhile Charles F. Brush and Thomas A. Edison had applied themselves to the stupendous and hitherto unsolved problem of utilizing electricity for general lighting purposes. Brush exhibited his first arc lamp of the wonderfully simple and successful ring-clutch type in 1877, and in the next year produced that other indispensable feature of his system, the series arc dynamo, and started arc lighting campaigns all over the world. Four years later Brush arc lights, made in Cleveland, were in nightly operation in Shanghai and Tokyo.

The history of the arc seems incomplete without mentioning the early work of Elihu Thomson. He invented a generator, absolutely unique. In connection with it he developed the magnetic blow-out, which has been extensively employed ever since in controlled, lighting arc lamps and circuit breakers. He also invented an arc lamp and regulator. Indeed, the Thomson-Houston and Brush arc systems were active competitors.

In 1879 several inventors were working on the incandescent lamp problem, among them Sawyer and Man, who experimented extensively with filaments of carbonized paper; Lane-Fox, who used vegetable fibers; Swan, who in February of that year publicly exhibited a lamp with a filament of parchmentised tread; Weston who worked even at that early date with squirts and cut microscopically, and Edison, who tried out substances far too numerous to mention here, but including platinum, lamp-black, tar and paper. One might, perhaps, think that the failures of De Changy, De Moleyn, Starr, and others would have had a discouraging influence on these inventors in the late seventies, but they regarded them merely as light-houses, showing what to avoid. Edison's famous exhibition of his complete incandescent lighting system, when the laboratory grounds were illuminated by seven hundred lamps, took place late in December, 1879, and attracted great numbers of visitors from all over the country. This may be considered the crowning, as it was the closing, event in the progress of illumination during the eighth decade.

Development during the years 1880 to 1889 was rapid and important. Lamp covers were brought down, the ways of aiming and standardizing lamp parts were discovered. The price of arc light carbons was gradually reduced from \$240 per thousand to about \$10 per thousand. The art of "pasturing" carbon filaments to the lead wire was discovered; previously, the filaments had to be attached by expensive mechanical devices, such as sty bolts, nuts, washers, sleeves, and clamps.

The three-wire system of direct-current distribution was first put into commercial operation in 1888 at Sanbury, Pa. Who invented it is almost impossible to determine. Edison, and his associates, were part of his commercial system of incandescent lighting, and so did Edward Weston, long before, in the days when he first

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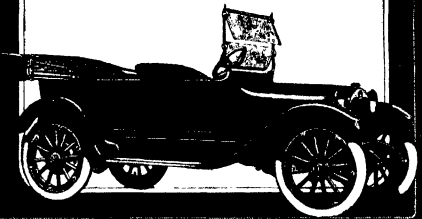
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used the dynamo in electroplating on a large scale. In 1866 Mr. George Westinghouse installed the first regular alternating-current central station in America at Buffalo, N. Y., and during the entire ten years under consideration the central station industry was rapidly extending its roots and branches. By 1890 electric lamps—incandescent and arc—had made their way into every civilized country.

The nineties, too, were prolific of discoveries. In 1891 the cellulose or "squirrel" process of making carbon filaments was commercially introduced. Two years later the cellulose filament generally supplanted the bamboo. In 1895 came the "chemical exhaust" for incandescent lamps, which improved their average quality, at the same time reducing their cost, and was largely responsible for the reduction in price of carbon lamps in 1896 from 82½ cents to 20 cents each. Meanwhile the process of "treating" filaments in hydrocarbon vapor, rendering them more uniform and improving their radiating properties, had been introduced, although that, too, had been discovered very early by Edward Weston.

As experts and facilities for research multiplied, improvements, first of minor importance, but more recently of a revolutionary nature, were evolved. The substitution of molded bulbs for "free-blown" bulbs, about 1892, and the invention of the turn-down lamp by Phelps in 1898, belong, relatively speaking, in the category of minor improvements. The first indication to the world that the metal-filament lamp might eventually supersede the carbon came about 1898, when Dr. Welsbach produced his first osmium filament lamp. Curiously enough, tungsten had been tried for filaments as early as 1890 by Lodge and Tibbels, but unsuccessfully, as these workers did not realize the importance of having the metal extremely pure.

The mercury arc lamp was originated by Arous in 1892 and later developed to a point of greater commercial practicality by Cooper Hewitt.

The invention of the inclosed arc lamp in a practical form was announced at an electrical convention in 1894, when I. B. Marks described the first inclosed arc lamp embodying the points that made it, for a period of about ten years, the favorite unit for high candle-power lighting in America.

In 1899 the Bremer flame arc was announced, and in the following year Bremer exhibited at the Paris Exposition a model having four impregnated carbons, so arranged that the light produced was reflected downward. The modern "yellow flame," with carbons impregnated with calcium compounds, is an outgrowth of Bremer's lamp. Flame carbons giving light of various colors have also been developed, such as those containing salts of strontium, giving a pink light, or those of barium, which give a white light. The best-known of all the luminous arcs, however, is Stieglitz's invention, the "Magnetite," the electrodes of which are composed of metals and metallic oxides, without any carbon "body." It is essentially a direct-current lamp.

The discovery of ductile tantalum came from a German laboratory in 1901, and the first experimentally successful tantalum lamp was constructed a year or so later, although tantalum lamps were not in a condition to be placed on the market for several years more.

Monsieur, in 1905, the "metallized" carbon lamp, in connection with which notable work was done by J. W. Howell in one of the laboratories of the largest American electrical manufacturer, made its appearance and served as a sort of stepping-stone to the lamps of still higher efficiency that were about to make their appearance.

In 1907 came the pressed-filament tungsten lamp, for which we are indebted in a great measure to two European inventors, Just and Hanaman. This lamp, under the hands of such men as Dr. W. D. Coolidge, Dr. A. Farn and a host of other experts, has gradually evolved into the strong, durable, cheap down-wire lamp of to-day.

The very newest line of development,

due in the first place, largely to Langmuir and Grange, working under the direction of Dr. W. R. Whitaker in the Research Laboratory of the General Electric Company, has given us non-vacuum incandescent lamps with efficiency deemed utterly impossible a few years ago. Some of these big lamps, the bulbs of which are filled with inert gases, actually take less than half a watt per candle. They are giving the arc lamps, particularly of the old open and inclosed types, a hard race just at present.

Although there have been wonderful accomplishments in arc and incandescent lighting during the past century, yet we all share more or less the attitude of Mr. Edison, who, in the course of a conversation with the writer, remarked: "I don't like to go into things connected with ancient history, or the dead past—what I am interested in is the future; in what is going to happen to-morrow." And assuredly there is much to be done. Scientists find that the most efficient arc and incandescent lamps of to-day waste something like 85 per cent of their incident energy in other forms than light—from an efficiency standpoint they are outshine by the common frofly. So the curtain of mystery still veils the lamps of our descendants.

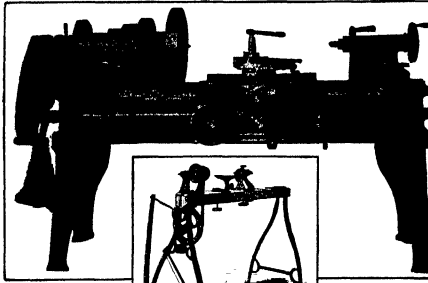
Some Personal Recollections

(Continued from page 875.)

In an instant I saw it all, and I drew with a stick on the sand the diagrams which were illustrated in my fundamental patents of May, 1889, and which I myself understood perfectly.

It is extremely difficult for me to put this experience before the reader in its true light and significance for it is so altogether extraordinary. When an idea presents itself to me, as a rule, crude and imperfect, I birth, growth and development are phases normal and natural. It was different with my invention. In the very moment I became conscious of it, I saw it fully developed and perfected. Then again, a theory, however plausible, must usually be confirmed by experiment. Not so the one I had formulated. It was being daily demonstrated every dynamo and motor was absolute proof of its soundness. The effect on me was indescribable. My imaginings were equivalent to realities. I had carried out what I had undertaken and pictured myself achieving wealth and fame. But more than all this was to me the revelation that I was an inventor. This was the one thing I wanted to be. Archimedes was my ideal. I admired the works of artists, but to me mine were only shadows and semblances. The inventor, I thought, gives to the world creations which are palpable, which live and work.

The telephone installation was now completed and in the spring of 1892 an offer was made to me to go to Paris, which I accepted eagerly. Here I met a number of Americans whom I befriended and to whom I talked of my invention, and one of them, Mr. D. Cunningham, proposed to form a company for exploitation. This might have been done had not my duties called me to Strasbourg. Also it was in this city that I constructed my first motor. I had brought some material from Paris, and a disk of iron with bearings was made for me in a mechanical shop close to the railroad station in which I was installing the light and power plant. I was a great success, and I endeavored to secure capital, but was unsuccessful in this attempt and returned to Paris early in 1894. Here, too, I made several ineffectual efforts, and finally resolved to go to America, where I arrived in the summer of 1894. By a previous understanding I entered the Edison Machine Works, where I undertook the design of dynamos and motors. For nine months my regular hours were from 10:30 A. M. till 5 A. M. the next day. At this time I was getting



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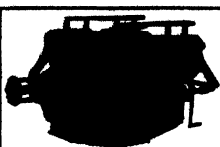
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famous for Murex and the dye was called Tyrian Purple. Cloth dyed with Tyrian Purple was extremely expensive. According to one writer of the first century, a pound of twice-dyed Tyrian Purple could not be purchased for less than 1,000 denarii or approximately \$170 in American money.

The first period in the evolution of the dye industry witnessed chiefly the development of the art of applying natural dyes of animal and vegetable origin to different fibers. The ancients made woven fabrics of wool, silk, linen, and cotton with a considerable degree of perfection. On those they endeavored to imitate the beauty of nature with the coloring matter of certain herbs, roots, stems of plants, bark of trees, seed, berries, nuts, lichens, blood of shell-fish, etc. Their methods of dyeing involved practically no understanding of chemistry. A dyer was an artisan and not a chemist. Much dye was wasted in the dyeing processes and it was practically impossible for even the most skilled dyer to exactly duplicate a color. The same dye gave several different results on a similar fiber.

Throughout Europe the industry developed rapidly, contributing in many cases to the social well-being and economic progress of the people. Color continued to be a recognized mark of class distinction. The Flemish people became adept in the art of applying dyes and are credited with developing it in England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Natural dyes were extensively prepared and used. The cultivation of madder and indigo was an important business down to the latter part of the nineteenth century when alizarin and indigo were synthesized and introduced on the market in competition with the natural products. In 1868 France produced over eight million dollars worth of madder. Eight years later the production ceased. Natural indigo was not quite so easily disposed of. Its production, however, reached its maximum in the year 1896-1897, when there were 940,000 hectares (1,281,440 acres) under cultivation. The yearly consumption of indigo was about twelve million pounds. Since 1900, synthetic indigo has practically displaced the natural product.

The second period in the development of the dye industry began with Woulfe's discovery of picric acid in 1771. This was a glimpse into a new world of thought and activity and consequently we should not be surprised to find that further discoveries of great importance did not immediately follow. Woulfe's discovery for the production of picric acid, by the oxidation of indigo with nitric acid, was too expensive to be used commercially and picric acid was not satisfactorily produced until many years later, when it was discovered that it could be obtained cheaply by the nitration of phenol, a coal tar product. Woulfe's discovery, however, stimulated other chemists to work on indigo in an attempt to find out its composition—the most important of the early work being that of Chevreul in 1810; that of Erdmann and Laurent in 1841; and that of Erdmann in 1842. As a result of this pioneer work, leucine was obtained from indigo. This discovery pointed to the possible relation between the indigo molecule and that of leucine and was an important contributing factor in all the later synthesis of indigo. The impetus to investigation of the nature of dyes had been given and, as a natural consequence, the activity in the dye industry shifted from the art of extracting and applying natural dyes to the study of the scientific principles involved in the production and application of synthetic dyes. The synthesis of dyes was a great triumph over nature and opened up an attractive field of research.

In praising the men who actually synthesized dyes, we must not overlook the work of the pioneers—those chemists who made the discoveries possible. By careful analysis of natural substances, they led the way to the unraveling of Nature's secrets in building them up and thus introduced to their successors a world of extremely fascinating and highly profitable work.

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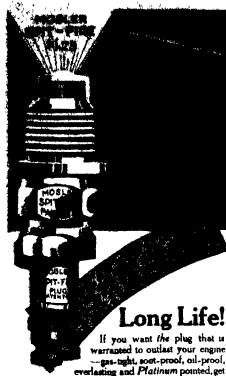
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sent over 50 per cent of the dye in common use. Finally, the Vat dyes have been discovered during the past fifteen years and extremely fast, brilliant colors can now be produced.

The greatest and most important part of this activity has been confined to Germany where the dye industry seemed to find conditions most favorable for its unrestricted development. Kekulé's theory of valence was easily assimilated by the German chemists and immediately they calmed their doubts and substituted exact methods of research for mere philosophical speculation. Pure science was selected as the foundation upon which to build the dye industry. Time has shown this to have been wise.

The German chemists' faith in the ultimate success of the application of theoretical chemistry to practical problems and their absolute certainty inspired the confidence of capital to venture the support of the promising infant industry without the assurance of immediate returns on its investment. Of course, it must not be supposed that either extraordinary foresight or generosity was responsible for the eager willingness of German capital to lend a protecting arm to this new industry. Careful analysis of the situation reveals the fact that it was international business rivalry which prompted the investments and patently supported the project, calmly awaiting the fruition of its potential promises. Natural dyes were chiefly in the control of England and France. Germany saw a chance to displace their dyes by better products, whose properties could be guaranteed to be always the same, and thus win over the business. Theory and practice were solidly allied together to win success, even at heavy initial costs, and a systematic and thorough organization of work resulted. To organized co-operative research, Germany owes much of her success in the dye industry. The research laboratory has been an indispensable unit in her factory equipment. It has been the nucleus and its importance has been thoroughly recognized. Eminent chemists have directed its work and caused its influence to be favorably felt and genuinely appreciated. Masses of information needed in the development of an industry so complex and diversified have been compiled with the least possible expenditure of energy and money and made available for the use of the productive part of the factory. The soundness and value of such a systematic scientific foundation has been unquestionably demonstrated.

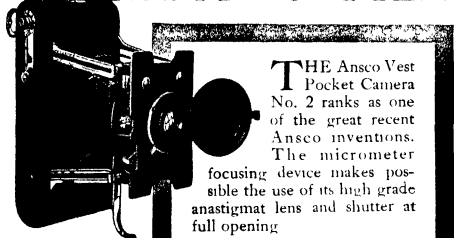
Not only has the German manufacturer of dyes been successful in enlisting an army of thoroughly trained chemists and technologists to solve his problems, but he has also learnt how to use labor so as to get its greatest efficiency and at the same time engender in it a spirit of contentment. The splendid way that employees are treated by the large German dye manufacturers speaks volumes for the friendly spirit of co-operation between labor and capital and ultimately is a large contributing factor to the success of the industry.

Here in America we might take note of the factors involved in the German success in the development of the dye industry before undertaking to transplant it to our soil, realizing that "rule-of-thumb" methods can never be productive of genuine permanent results in this field and that to satisfactorily meet the competition of the German organization we must establish the industry on a thoroughly scientific basis. We should expect keen competition when the war is over, but in spite of this an American dye industry should survive if organized on the principles which have led to the German supremacy in the tinctorial world.

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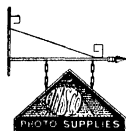
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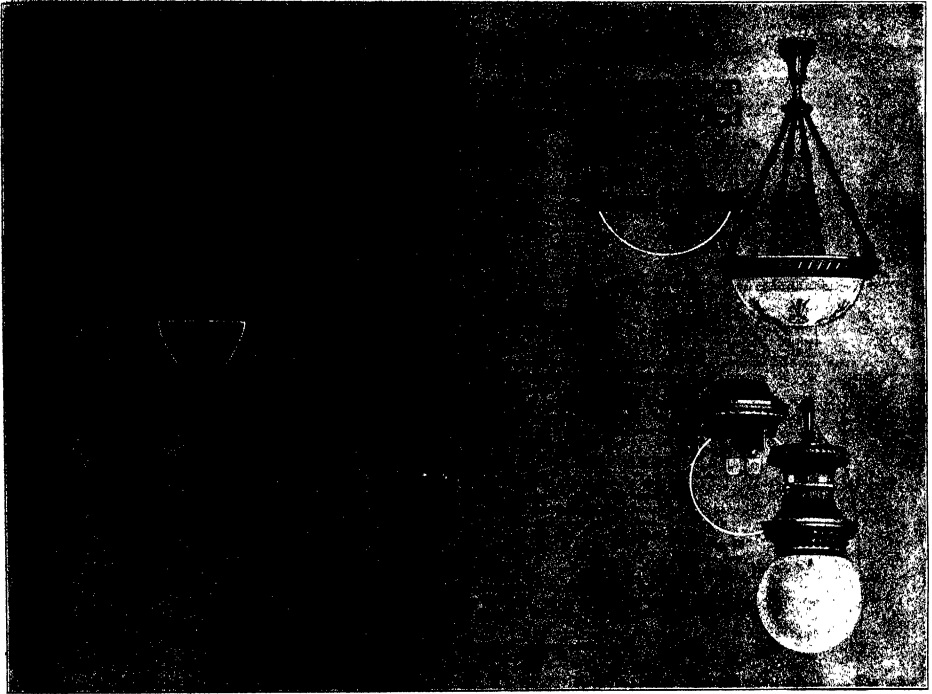
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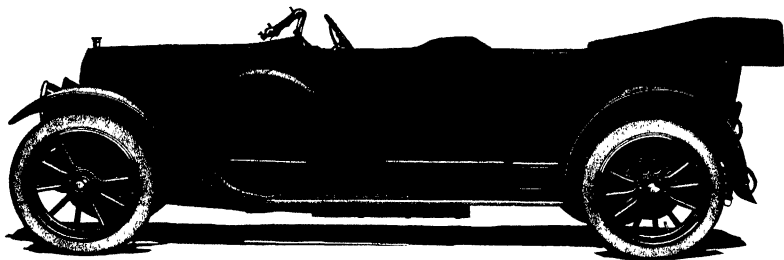
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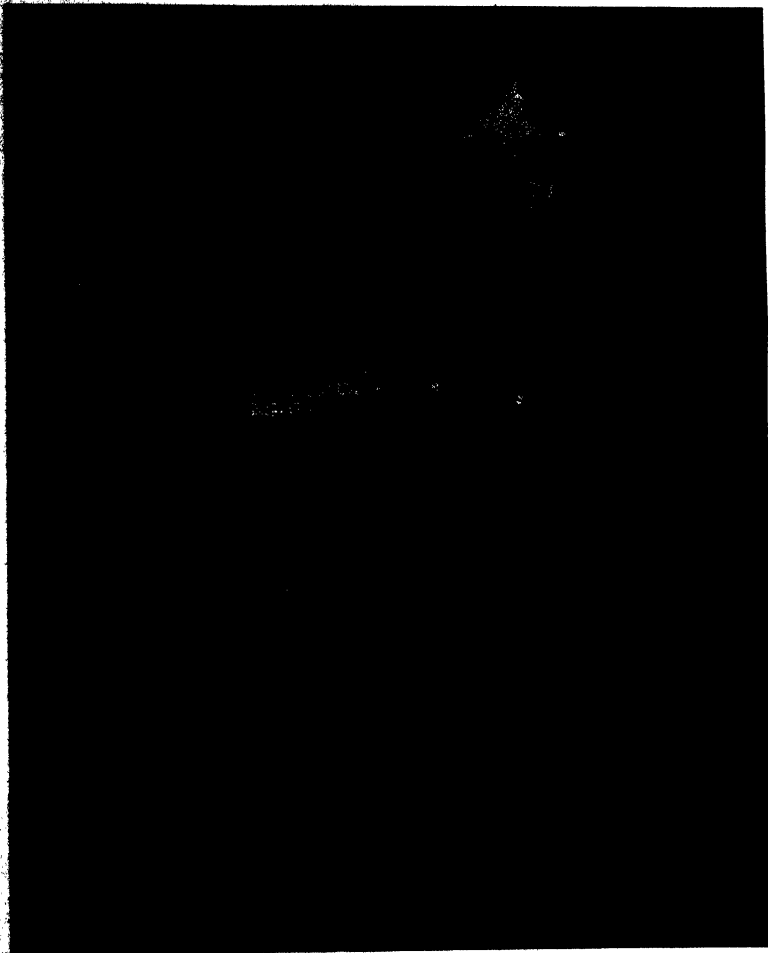
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 entific knowledge and industrial achievement.

Some Thoughts On the War

At a time when the war is assuming more gigantic proportions, it seems almost idle to speak of peace. Nevertheless, the problem naturally presents itself, how and when could the conclusion of peace be considered as a possibility. One of the most discouraging features of this world war is the fact that when this war broke out the nations of Europe fought, not to adjust any profound principle of right or wrong, not to adjust some grievance, not surely for the love of fighting, but in obedience, it would seem, to some perverse fate. There surely had been no well defined and commonly accepted issue, the reasons given were as varied as the nations engaged. In case some victor had appeared from a neighboring planet, it would be easy to imagine his utter amazement at the sight of the warring nations killing each other, destroying each other's cities and homes and engaged in mutual murder and devastation; but his amazement at this would have been nothing as compared with his state of mind when he discovered the inability of the combatants themselves to explain just why they were fighting.

The war broke out suddenly without any preliminaries; there had been no act of aggression, no hard words had passed, and as between most of the warring nations there had been even no diplomatic disagreements. In short, the war came out of a clear sky, without meaning without principle, with no just cause, and with no wrong to adjust. It is this lack of justifiable cause for war that renders the hope of peace so remote. There is no primary wrong to adjust, there is nothing to arbitrate. So upon what grounds could peace be effected?

The present offers a proper time to consider what the ten months of horror have achieved. The record shows a vast preponderance of advantage in favor of the Teuton Allies. Germany holds the greater part of Belgium, a fair portion of France, a large part of Poland. The Fatherland is thus far intact and may prove to be impregnable. In case, with the increasing strength of the Allies, and in view of the settled policy of Germany, which has been to neutralize all nations into avowed or unavowed hostility, the tide should turn (as it surely must) what can the result be? Will there follow a higher and better order of things? What will the Europe of tomorrow be like? The flower of manhood in Europe is being destroyed by the thousands and tens of thousands, the land is being laid waste, whole people are being driven into hunger, the destruction of material wealth is going on at an unprecedented rate. The national debt of the warring nations is reaching untold sums. The bills must be paid, not only by the present, but by future generations. Will not the burden be too great for the people to bear? The future of Europe seems dark indeed. Although the material destruction that has already taken place is figured coldly in the newspapers in millions and bil-

lions of dollars, and has involved the complete wiping out of some of the most beautiful cities of Europe, this may prove to be but the beginning; for there is growing evidence that the war is to be a protracted one.

This material loss, enormous and ever increasing, is not the only or even the saddest burden of the war. Equally appalling is the moral cataclysm which has taken place—the loss of faith in human nature, the breakdown in the sacredness of treaties and covenants, the race hatred that has been engendered, the disturbing of ideals, and the setback to the advancement of civilization. How changed would be the conditions if the war were being waged for high principles from which some lesson of right or wrong might be learned. It might then be hoped that some basis might be reached for the establishment of a permanent peace. It seems, however, that this cannot now be done except through the sad and awful expedient of the complete exhaustion and subjection of one or the other of the warring nations. Will the nations of the future, the new nations that must be born out of the ashes of the present terrible straggle, hold to a simpler creed and a higher diplomacy, substituting the new diplomacy of truth for that of deception? Will they have higher ideals of human faith and responsibility? Shall we witness the birth of a new era, in which will be found a greater belief in, a higher regard for and a more human sympathy with one's neighbor, even though he be of foreign blood? Perhaps, when the great bitterness of the struggle is over and the waste and futility and lack of it all are understood, some such readjustment of the world's ideals may follow.

When the German Fleet Comes Out

THE forlorn hope has no part in the scheme of war. He who has hurried his men in masses against seemingly impregnable positions, may rest assured that his generals have believed that the chances of success were good. As on the land, so on the sea. We may rest assured that Von Tirpitz will never send out the German main fleet for a trial of strength with the British except under conditions which afford a reasonable promise of success.

As matters stand to-day, the German first fighting line includes probably seventeen dreadnoughts; against this force Great Britain could oppose to-day, including ships commissioned since the war began, thirty-eight dreadnoughts. In point of numbers of ships, this means a superiority of over two to one; but if we take into consideration the heavier batteries and higher speed of the later British ships, the actual fighting superiority is about three to one.

As to the future, it is certain that the longer the war lasts the greater will be the British advantage; for under the accelerated rate of construction, she is adding to her main fleet at the rate of over one dreadnought per month.

In the German main fleet, then, destined to spend the long years of this war condemned to hopeless inactivity within its own harbors and roadsteads? We doubt it. On the contrary, we believe that, when the roadstead plans of the German Admiralty are also for execution, the German fleet will issue forth in full force for a great trial of strength along those strategic and tactical lines which, under the present naval conditions in the North Sea, alone can offer her any chance of victory.

The proposed scheme of German naval operations prior to the war was to reduce the British battleship strength by ceaseless destroyer and submarine attacks and when this process of attrition had reached the desired point to issue forth for a line-of-battle engagement. So far as the German destroyers are concerned, the results have been practically nil; the submarine, on the other hand, in the early stages of the war and before the British had learned by experience how to meet this form of attack, scored some very notable successes. For several months, however, at least in the North Sea and around the British Islands, submarine activity against the fighting fleet has produced no recorded results. Failing against their legitimate prey, the German submarines turned savagely upon the unarmed merchant ships of the Teuton.

We offer it as a plausible, if not a probable theory, that the German tactics, when the great sea fight comes off, were foreshadowed in the operations of the German battle-cruiser fleet a few months ago in the North Sea. We believe that the raiding of undefended towns on the east coast of England was not so much an exhibition of what has been termed German "cruisefoolness" as it was the preliminary stage of a German strategy, which was designed to draw the British fleet into action and lead it, in a stern chase into waters where flotillas of German submarines awaited its coming. This theory would explain two very remarkable facts which certainly seem to require explanation, connected with that running battle across the North Sea. The first of these was the complete abandonment, by the powerful German

armored battle-cruisers, of the advantage of their superior speed, when they were driven away from land. The second was the fact that after the "Princess Royal" and "Blücher" were shot at by a shot in her engine room, and the ship so far as the ship engaged, were driven away from the German to two British ships, the German, with an advantage of twenty-eight armor-plating tons against only sixteen on the two British destroyers, failed to close in and attempt to sink the destroyers with its overwhelming superiority of guns.

For it should be noted that the 28-inch battle-cruisers, "Dorsetshire," "Seydlitz," and "Moltke," "Princess Royal" and "Tiger" had pulled out far ahead of the slower "Blücher," "New Zealand," and "Indomitable." When the "Lion" was disabled, therefore, these German battle-cruisers were able to oppose eight 12-inch, 10-inch and twenty 50-caliber 11-inch armor-plating guns to the sixteen 13.5-inch armor-plating guns carried by the two British ships. If the German had immediately closed in to nine or ten thousand yards, their guns would have been able to penetrate the 16-inch belt armor of the British ships, and with a superiority of twenty-eight guns to sixteen, and anything like equal shooting, the result would have been a foregone conclusion.

Why did not the German admirals take such a tempting opportunity? Certainly not from fear of the British fleet—that has never been a German characteristic. We are inclined to believe that, in these German battle-cruisers were able to oppose eight 12-inch, 10-inch and twenty 50-caliber 11-inch armor-plating guns to the sixteen 13.5-inch armor-plating guns carried by the two British ships. If the German had immediately closed in to nine or ten thousand yards, their guns would have been able to penetrate the 16-inch belt armor of the British ships, and with a superiority of twenty-eight guns to sixteen, and anything like equal shooting, the result would have been a foregone conclusion.

It is possible and, to our minds, rather probable, that the German Admiralty, realizing the hopelessness of any attempt to gain equal strength with the British in capital ships, is devoting the whole of the country's shipbuilding strength to the construction of submarines of the greatest size, speed, range of action, and torpedo-carrying capacity. At the opening of the war, Germany probably did not have over twenty-five submarines in commission. If, early in the war, she ceased the construction of capital ships and devoted her whole energy to the construction of a vast submarine fleet, it is possible that she may have over a hundred of these craft to-day in commission, and this in spite of her many losses. It is conceivable she may have another hundred or even more under construction. Undoubtedly as fast as they are completed and the crews can be found, the new boats are put into commission. It cannot be denied that the work of hunting down and sinking the merchant ships of the enemy affords the German submarine fleet every opportunity to become proficient in maneuvering and torpedo practice.

Now, if this be the German plan, it can be seen at once that the military value, in the way of training the crews and the shakedown of the new boats into thoroughly serviceable condition, which is involved in this far-ranging series of operations directed against merchant ships, is of far more value to Germany than the mere loss by the enemy of 2 or 3 or even 5 per cent of his merchant fleet.

When Germany feels that her submarine fleet is sufficiently numerous and is personnel fully efficient for the prosecution of her long-delayed offensive, she may look for a general calling in of the raiders to the home ports, and a sudden cessation of the sinking of merchant ships. Whenever that occurs, it will be reasonable to watch for the exit of the whole German fleet in full strength to seek and get in contact with the enemy. Contact once secured, we may expect a repetition on a grand scale of the tactics employed in the recent battle-cruiser engagement. There will, conceivably, be a pretended flight of the German fleet from superior forces and an attempt to lead Admiral Jellicoe and the fighting forces under his command into a veritable shot of submarines.

Should the German navy prove successful, and the British destroyers fail to locate the submarines in a timely warning, it is conceivable that within a short time after it ran into the snare, 80 per cent of the British fleet would be out of action. Admiral Jellicoe and his staff, however, are perfectly familiar with all the possibilities above suggested; and it is conceivable that, in spite of his enormous superiority in strength, he might refuse to follow the German lead in the recent battle-cruiser engagement. There will, conceivably, be a pretended flight of the German fleet from superior forces and an attempt to lead Admiral Jellicoe and the fighting forces under his command into a veritable shot of submarines.

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Science

At Paris, June 15.—Under the auspices of the *Paris Truck Association of Scientists* in collaboration with the *American Museum of Natural History* and other institutions, is now in its second year. A second annual symposium of five thousand dollars toward its expenses has been made by the *Porte Bleue* government.

Acoustical Measurements of Ocean Waves are to be made by *Boyle, Trenchard* and *Lea*, with the aid of funds provided by the *Naval Academy of Sciences*. More definite information than has heretofore been available regarding the shape and dimensions of waves is a desideratum for ship-building, harbor construction, and coast protection.

An Institution for Ethnological Research modeled largely after the *Bureau of American Ethnology* in Washington, has recently been founded in Leipzig with the aid of funds furnished in part by the government and in part by *Prof. Hans Meyer*. According to the description of the new institution published in *Petersburg's Mitteilungen*, it represents the realization of a plan projected years ago by the celebrated traveler and ethnologist *Adolph Bastien*.

The Most Remarkable Photograph of a Meteor Trail that has yet been taken, so far as we know, is reproduced in *L'Aerophile* for March, 1915. The meteor in question was seen from many points in South Africa about 5 P. M. on June 3, 1912—i. e., in broad daylight, and the trail that it left behind it remained visible until some time after sunset, becoming more and more prominent as the daylight faded. The photograph in question shows the trail as an immense serpentine ribbon in the western sky, was taken at Tempe, Orange Free State, about an hour after the passage of the meteor. This remarkable meteor is discussed in Circular No. 1 of the *Transvaal Observatory*.

The Temperature of Fine Needles in Winter.—In the *American Journal of Botany* Mr. John H. Eklund describes the results of measurements of the internal temperature of pine leaves in winter, obtained by means of ingenious thermo-electric apparatus. He found that these leaves, under winter conditions, maintain temperatures from 2 to 10 degrees (centigrade) higher than the surrounding air, owing to the absorption of radiant energy. The average of 950 readings taken in February between the hours of 8 A. M. and 3 P. M. was a little more than 3 degrees above the air temperature. This difference, says the author, is sufficient to be considered an important factor in photosynthesis.

Lighting Conductor Containing Radium.—Mention is made in a recent number of the *German Journal Prometheus* of a lightning-conductor which, it is claimed, gives much more effective protection than the usual rod. The inventor took an ordinary lightning-rod and equipped it below the point with a disk that was overlaid by electrolysis with about 2 milligrammes of bromide of radium, so put on that it was waterproof. The experiments made showed that the preparation of radium ionized the air, making it conductive, for a wide circuit around the point of the lightning-rod. This led, naturally, to a decided fall of potential in the atmosphere electricity, and to equalization between the various strata of air lying in layers one over another. The change of atmospheric electricity in these strata flowed toward the point through the air, which was still a good conductor even at a considerable distance from the point of the conducting-rod, and was carried from the point to the ground. In addition to the increase of radius of action of the lightning-rod, the ionizing of the air by a preparation of radium seems to cause the carrying off of stronger currents of atmospheric electricity.

Electric Wire and Cable Terminology.—No task is more difficult (and few are more important) than that of setting in order the vocabulary which has grown up spontaneously in connection with a rapidly developing art or science. The standardization of electro-technical terms has already made good progress, owing to the efforts of various electrical engineering societies and international committees. The latest contribution to this task takes the form of a circular of the United States Bureau of Standards on electric wire and cable terminology. Misunderstandings between manufacturers and purchasers of wire and cable have frequently occurred in consequence of the divergent use of terms, as pointed out by the standards committee of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers recently gathered information as to existing usage with a view to securing greater uniformity. The reports were turned over to the Bureau of Standards, which continued the inquiry and prepared the definitions now published. The Bureau had special difficulty in reaching agreement upon the words "stranded" and "stranded" in the definitions adopted, a strand being one of the component parts of a stranded conductor, and not being either a single wire or a combination of wires. In the latter case, each wire of the combination is itself a strand of the composite strand, the principal strand being the "strand" being that it is a separate strand of wire, and not a part of a composite strand.

Automobile

The Kaiser's Brother a Patentee.—Heinrich Prinz von Preussen of Klot, Germany, assignor of one half to a Berlin company, has secured patent No. 1,095,498 for an appliance for cleaning windshields on motor vehicles including wipers either on one or both sides of the glass which, by a quick stroke of the driver, may be moved over the glass to remove dust and water.

A Garage in an Office Building.—One of the latest improvements in office buildings, in the thickly populated eastern cities, is the installation of an automobile garage in the basement for tenants who prefer to come to the office in their motor cars. The first of these buildings is now in course of construction at the corner of Van Hout and Hunter's Point Avenues, Long Island City, N. Y., directly opposite the Long Island railroad station, and adjoining the Bleecker Tunnel. The garage facilities are to be included in the rent, at a very small increase over the usual rate.

Screwdriver and Hammer.—No instrument in the whole line used by motorists is so frequently misused as the screwdriver. It seems second nature for a mechanic who happens to have one handy, and who needs something to drive a nail, or tack, or to straighten out a bulge, and adjoining the Bleecker Tunnel. The garage facilities are to be included in the rent, at a very small increase over the usual rate.

Automobile Racing at Night.—A test was made at the Indiana State Fair Grounds recently of a system of illumination in order to demonstrate the practicability of automobile racing at night on a mile course. The test proved a complete success. Lights of the type used in contracting and railroad work for emergency operations at night were placed at intervals about the track in the center of the roadway. The lights were of the acetylene, and developed a light of from twelve to fifteen thousand candlepower. The test demonstrated that this form of illumination makes it as easy to follow the racing at night as in broad daylight.

Assembling American Cars in England.—Realizing that American automobile manufacturers have far outstripped British makers, particularly in the field of the low-priced car, British manufacturers are seriously considering assembling cars in Great Britain from imported American parts, and selling them as British cars. Last year one of the best-known designers of small cars in Great Britain placed a large contract for American gasoline motors and other parts in this country, to be used in the construction of the Morris motor cars. The export statistics for March show no less than 3,500 of these motors were shipped to Great Britain in that one month.

Grooved Concrete Tracks for Trucks.—Heavily loaded motor trucks have shown themselves so destructive of highways that in some of the States laws have been passed forbidding their operation beyond limited speeds and weights. A test is being carried out at present on a short stretch of road by way between Pittsburg, Kansas, and Fort Scott, Kansas. Trucks and cars desiring to use this road can do so upon paying a small toll. The road is fitted with cement or concrete tracks, 12 inches wide and concave so that the wheels of an automobile will stay in them. It is a single track line, with switches at certain points, to allow machines to pass each other. If this road is successful it will be extended to Kansas City.

An Auto Club with a "First Aid" Squadron.—A new plan of general assistance has been inaugurated by the St. Louis Automobile Club, which deserves the widest publicity and imitation. This club sends each Sunday, during the summer months, five expert mechanics on motor cycles into the highways and by-ways surrounding the city, within a radius of fifteen miles. The first of these members of the "flying first aid squadron" finds a car that is stalled or broken down expert assistance is rendered. This service is free to all motorists, whether members of the club or not. It is proposed to extend the service to cover Saturday afternoons and evenings, when thousands of automobiles are seen on the roads around the city.

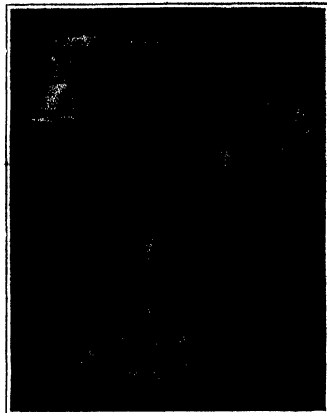
Tubular Bulb for Car Lamps.—A distinct improvement in the shape of bulbs for electric headlights has just been brought out by a Connecticut firm. The new bulbs are tubular in form, instead of being round, with the result that a much more effective light is produced. When a round bulb is inserted in the base of the headlight, rays from the filament have to pass through two and three thicknesses of the glass, on their way to and from the reflector. The tubular bulb, being but of slightly larger diameter than its base sends the reflected rays straight ahead without any further interference by the bulging bulb in the center. The tubular bulb has many other advantages, which may on occasion prove highly important. It can be withdrawn through the rear of the reflector, making it possible to use front lenses which are screwed on tight, instead of being hinged to the lamp.

Astronomy

Standard Tests for Small Telescopes.—In a recent number of the *Comptes rendus* M. G. Biquard, after reviewing the present heterogeneous and often indefinite methods of testing small telescopes, proposes a testing device suitable for use as a universal standard. This consists of a collection of rectangular diagrams (shown in the article), each of which is a group of straight vertical and parallel lines, spaced at intervals of the same length as the lines. The thickness of lines and spaces increases progressively from group to group. A sheet of paper printed with these diagrams is set up at a distance of 10 meters from the telescope. At this distance the width of one line and the adjacent white space in the first group subtends an angle of 10 seconds, and in each of the other groups the width of a similar pair corresponds to a definite angle ranging up to 58 seconds. The values of these angles are shown by large figures. Thus in testing the telescope, the finest group in which the ruling is distinguishable indicates the extreme separating power of the instrument. Various other tests, can be carried out, such as comparing the quality of different parts of the objective by the use of suitable diaphragms. While no novel principle is involved in this simple device, its general adoption would make the tests of small optical instruments uniform and definite.

Atmospheric Conditions Favorable for Astronomical Observations.—This important subject is more complicated than is generally supposed, according to Prof. W. Campbell, director of the Lick Observatory, who goes into the question very thoroughly in the *Publications* of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific. The location of observatories on mountains and plateaus for the sake of securing clear skies and pure air is a comparatively modern development. Great efforts were made to induce James Lick to locate his observatory in the Sierra Nevada Mountains, but after a long search of not less than 10,000 feet, but other and probably wiser counsel persuaded him to select Mount Hamilton (4,200 feet). Some very extensive tests of sites have been made prior to locating observing stations, notably on behalf of Harvard Observatory, by Bailey and Pickering on the west coast of South America, by Bailey in South Africa, and by Pickering in Mexico, Southern California, Arizona, and the West Indies. The tropical island has had several recent advocates, a prominent one being Prof. W. H. Pickering, who has written in the most enthusiastic terms of the "seeing" conditions at Mandeville, Jamaica, at an altitude of 2,100 feet. The best "seeing" at Harvard Observatory ranges from 0.2 to 0.5 on the scale of 10 for perfection, while at Mandeville it is 8.8. The steadiness and definition of stellar images within 30 degrees of the horizon is as good at the latter station as that within 30 degrees of the zenith at the former. For solar observations one of the most favorable locations in the world appears to be the floor of the Kashmir valley, India, at 5,200 feet above sea-level. Several considerations besides actual "seeing" enter into the question of the best location for an observatory. Thus a favorable circumstance at Mount Hamilton is that nights are generally entirely clear or entirely cloudy.

Belgian Astronomers and the War.—The *Gazette astronomique*, published by the Society of Astronomy of Antwerp, was obliged to suspend publication after the events of October, 1914. Thanks to the financial aid of English friends, it has been previously re-established in England, and the first number under the new conditions (No. 9, 1914) was issued in April of this year. Its continuance will depend upon the amount of support it receives, and it will, in any case, appear at irregular intervals. A considerable part of the contents will be in English. An absolutely interesting feature of the number just issued is the information given therein concerning the experiences of Belgian astronomers during and after the German invasion, including a graphic account of the occupation of the Royal Observatory, at Uccle, by German meteorologists. On August 20th the observatory—which in ordinary times is the headquarters of the national meteorological service as well as the national astronomical center—was made a "field weather station" of the German army, similar to those established by the Germans at Liège and Namur, and later at points on the Belgian coast. Four German meteorologists, guarded by a company of soldiers, moved in, bag and baggage, and at once began making regular observations, not only of surface conditions, but also of the upper atmosphere, with the aid of pilot balloons, including electrically lighted balloons for the night observations. The results were telegraphed to the Deutsche Wetteramt at Hamburg. About the middle of November the observatory was made the "field weather center," or headquarters of the whole system of field weather stations maintained by the German forces. Meanwhile several Belgian astronomers, who had remained at the observatory, were allowed to continue their astronomical work, including the service, and this arrangement is still in force. The regular meteorological work of the observatory, on the other hand, which included the publication of the valuable daily weather maps, is discontinued.



One of the big cylinders—bore, 16 inches; stroke, 20 inches.

Largest Commercial Gasoline Engine Ever Built

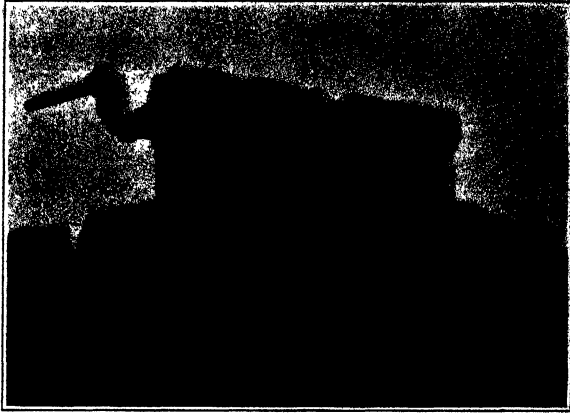
IN view of the recent developments of the gasoline engine in eight-cylinder units, unusual interest attaches to an engine which has just been completed on the Pacific coast. Although designed for marine work, it shows to a remarkable degree the influence of automobile practice in its general appearance. With a total weight of approximately 120,000 pounds, it is unquestionably the largest commercial gasoline engine ever constructed, and its operation is being watched with considerable interest by automobile as well as marine engineers. In these days of 10-horse and semi-10-horse engines it is noteworthy that an engine of the electric ignition type should be built in so large a unit, for although higher-powered gasoline engines for racing purposes are not uncommon, heavy, slow-speed engines for commercial service have rarely been built in sizes over 250 horse-power. This 600 horse-power unit is the climax of a gradual development of the heavy gasoline engine which has taken place on the Pacific coast.

The engine measures 46 feet over the thrust bearings and, as previously stated, weighs about 60 tons. As shown in the photograph, the eight cylinders are cast separately and are mounted in line on a plate which is supported from the bed by vertical columns. The cylinders are exceptionally long, measuring nearly six feet. The lower half of each is cast away on two sides to form cross head guides. It has a bore of 16 inches and a 20-inch stroke. Each cylinder casting weighs 1,700 pounds.

The valves are disposed on either side of the cylinders forming the familiar "T" head and are operated from separate cam shafts under the cylinder plate. Fuel is supplied to the engine through two carburetors in conjunction with two heated intake manifolds, the latter being so constructed that they are heated by the exhaust of the engine. It is claimed that this prevents condensation of the mixture between the carburetor and cylinder and gives a very flexible engine. When running light the speed may be reduced to 38 or 40 revolutions per minute. The normal speed of the engine is 225 revolutions per minute.

This machine has been installed in a double-ended ferryboat utilized for the transportation of trains across an arm of San Francisco Bay. This vessel is 230 feet long and 58 feet wide, carrying three tracks on the main deck. The engine is set in the center of the vessel and is connected through clutches to propellers on either end.

Notwithstanding the high cost of fuel for operating an engine of this size, a considerable saving over steam has been effected, by reason of the intermittent service. The trips made are not long, and between runs the engine is of course stopped, thus eliminating all fuel expense while the boat is not in actual use. Starting is accomplished by means of compressed air.



An eight-cylinder 600 horse-power gasoline engine; weight, 120,000 pounds.

Inspecting Steam Railroads With a Gasoline Car

THE automobile has very nearly supplanted the horse-drawn vehicle, the jitney-bus is becoming a formidable rival of the street car, and now even the steam railroad is being invaded by the motor vehicle. The accompanying photographs illustrate a new motor-driven car adapted for railroad inspection.

The handling of the car is exactly like that of an automobile. It is capable of all speeds from four miles to fifty miles an hour. In general construction, appearance and finish it is strictly a railway car and not an automobile, although in some respects the general design resembles the same. The car is mounted on steel wheels with turned treads and easy spring suspension, which overcomes the fatigue generally resulting from long trips in other cars used for this purpose. There are eight seats, each independent and swiveled so that they can be swung in any direction, facilitating conversation or inspection of the track.

A 30 horse-power motor is used, which drives through a clutch of single plate design and a three-speed transmission to a jack shaft by means of bevel gears. On the jack shaft the drive is by chain to each of the rear wheels. No differential is required in work of this

kind, and by means of a double bevel gear arrangement, all speeds can be obtained in either direction, and the car operated equally well either way. The car weighs 4,000 pounds and is 12 feet 8 inches long and 5 feet 8 inches wide when built for standard gage track.

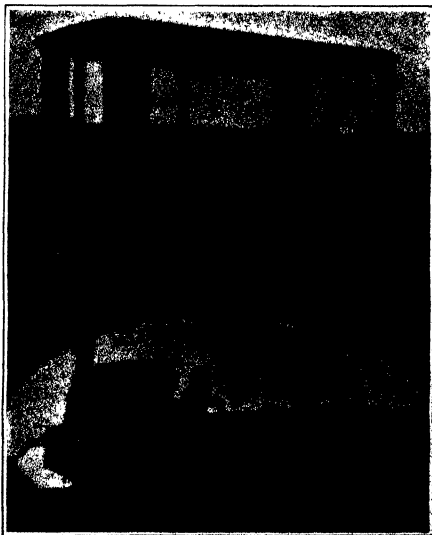
The utility and economy of this type of car can be appreciated when it is considered that such trips are usually made by special train, or at least in a special car attached to a regular train. Under such circumstances the officials are not free to stop at any or all points where they might desire and so are kept from getting into close touch with the different problems on their route. The No. 35 Motorcar permits them to run between trains and to stop at bridges for inspection or to consult with the section gang, or to talk with the farmer about some stock which he has lost through a broken-down fence. The tendency of the present day on the part of the railroad officials is to get as closely as possible into personal touch with all those who have to do with the road in any way, either as passengers or employees, or as property owners along the way.

Italy and the Copyright Proclamation

FOLLOWING the provision of the Act of Congress of March 4th, 1908, respecting copyrights and satisfactory official assurance having been given that in Italy the law permits to citizens of the United States similar rights to those accorded in Section 1 of the Act of March 4th, 1900, President Wilson by proclamation dated May 1st, 1915, has declared that the subjects of Italy are entitled to all the benefits of Section 1 (a) of the said Act, including "copyright controlling the parts of instruments serving to reproduce mechanically the musical work," in the case of all musical compositions by Italian composers which have been published since May 1st, 1915, and have been duly registered for copyright in the United States.

Sixtieth Exhibition of the Royal Photographic Society

THE sixtieth annual exhibition of the Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain will be held in August and September, next. This is the most representative exhibition in the world, and for a number of years America has taken a most gratifying part in it. Last year the work of American scientific men was conspicuously noticeable, and it is hoped the representation this year can be made fully as excellent. This work should consist of prints showing the use of photography in scientific work, and its application to such branches as spectroscopy, astronomy, radiography, biology and the like. Mr. C. E. K. Mees of Rochester, N. Y., who superintended the collection and forwarding of the American exhibit last year, has again undertaken the work, and asks that contributions be sent to him as early as possible. The photographs should be mounted, but not framed, and should be sent in not later than July 1st.



Gasoline-driven railroad inspection car.

"The Globe," at the Pan-Pacific Exposition.

Exterior view, showing the train, composed of electric lights, that leave San Francisco for St. Louis every 30 minutes, and illuminate the names of the principal cities on route. Each of the arches contains an illuminated, realistic model of an interesting scene along the line.

The Largest Spherical Relief Map in the World

TO the thousands who visit the Palace of Transportation at the Panama-Pacific International Exposition a giant globe in the northwest corner of the building is an unending source of attraction.

The globe is the exhibit of the Denver & Rio Grande and affiliated railroads. It is 32 feet in diameter and 44 feet in height. The base, which is cut off, rests upon an imposing pedestal with arched entrances admitting sightseers to the interior of the sphere.

The exterior of the great globe is embellished with a colored topographical map of North America, on which the various routes of the railway system are shown and which presents in detail the various topographical features of the continent.

Apart from its size, since perhaps it is the largest spherical relief map in the world, the feature of the exhibit which first attracts the eye is the unique electrical effect which indicates the progress of trains over the routes. The representation is effective. A progressive stream of light indicates that a train is passing through the principal cities and towns along the line, and as each of these is reached the name of the city is flashed electrically, attracting the attention of the spectator to that particular point. Much work was involved in the creation of the electrical effects. For the train effect alone it was necessary to run 1,500 wires from the "track" on which the train is represented as running, to a circular drum in the interior. On the top of the drum is an arm which constantly turns in a circle, making and breaking the contact which produces the train effect. On each complete revolution of the arm a train makes a complete trip from San Francisco to St. Louis. In addition to the illumination of the names of towns, the name of each railroad is flashed in red above its portion of the route while the train is traversing it and disappears when the next road is reached. The connections are arranged to show a departure from San Francisco every twenty-two minutes, and consequently there are several trains on the line at the same time between the Pacific coast and the Mississippi River.

The interior of the globe is as effective as the exterior. The principal feature of the interior and of an annex to the rear is found in a series of illuminated dioramas with the foreground built to resemble nature. The dioramas, of which there are twenty-four, portray the principal places of interest along the route. A winding passageway permits the visitor to behold upon the right and left the different diorama scenes in the order in which they are viewed in a journey over the railroad. The attractive features of the cities and the natural show places are depicted; canyons, waterfalls, gorges, far-away mountain vistas are reproduced in scenes partly painted and partly modeled, and under the colored lights, give the effect that one receives when standing from a mountain top at some distant perspective when a section of the world scene laid out in miniature. A statistician estimates that three million billion feet of scenery is reproduced. Agricultural scenes also are presented and the effects of sunrise and sunset, storms and night scenes are realistically produced by electricity.

The interior of the dome, which is remarkable for the fact that despite its size it is a section of a perfect sphere, gives an effective illusion representing the

heavens at night, with twinkling stars and forms resembling the constellations, which add greatly to the realism of the scene. The stars are operated from an electrical room below by means of a revolving cylinder which by making and breaking the contacts produces the twinkling effects. Although the domed vault of the interior of the sphere in which the constellations are set is but 45 feet in height, it is difficult indeed for

Electrical devices under the globe that control the movements of the train, the twinkling of the stars, running water and other startling effects.

Interior of "The Globe," showing three illuminated models of scenes along the route covered by the train of lights.

Note the sky effects in the dome, with realistic moon and stars. These are lighted and the stars are made to twinkle at the will of a concealed operator.

the visitor to approximate the actual distance of the faintly flashing lights and brightly twinkling stars.

Safe Transportation of Small-arms Ammunition

WE have shown in a previous issue that a single submarine torpedo because of its enormous charge of explosive was quite sufficient to sink the "Lastminute" in the short period of time which elapsed between the blow of the torpedo and the disappearance of the ship. The German government has suggested that the rapid disappearance of the ship was due, in part at least, to the explosion of the cargo of ammunition which it carried. To a military man, or indeed to anyone with a fair knowledge of explosives, the suggestion is ridiculous, for the ammunition in the hold of the ship consisted of unloaded shells, and of small-arms ammunition packed in cases which cannot be exploded by any known means.

Some years ago the Winchester Repeating Arms Company, in order to prove that small-arms ammunition could be transported with perfect safety, undertook a series of severe tests to show that such ammunition packed in the ordinary cases was incapable of being exploded either by shock or flame, and we publish herewith a series of photographs of the ammunition as it appeared after passing through the test.

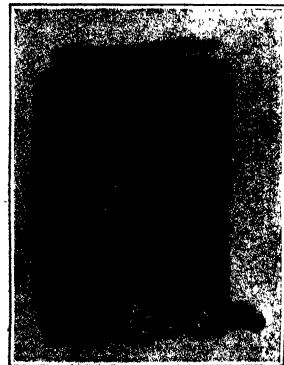
Subsequently, Gen. George Ulmer, Supervising Inspector General of the Steamboat Inspection Service, Department of Commerce and Labor, authorized Col. R. W. Dunn, Chief Inspector, to carry out at the factory of the Winchester Repeating Arms Company an additional series of tests, more severe than those made by the company itself, with a view to determining the safety or otherwise of the transportation by rail or steamer of small-arms ammunition. The tests were duly made, and in his report to the department Col. Dunn said: "In connection with similar tests made previously, it is believed that these results justify the conclusion that small-arms ammunition, while in transit either by rail or steamship, is not accompanied by the explosive and fire risk that would accompany a shipment of the same amount of explosive material in the kegs, boxes and other shipping containers used for such material. The freedom of small-arms ammunition from these risks is due to the necessary subdivision of this explosive material into the very small, well-protected units furnished by the individual cartridges."

"It is the opinion of the writer that you would be justified in permitting the shipments of small-arms ammunition on passenger-carrying steamers, and that it would not even be necessary on those steamers to require ammunition of this kind to be loaded in the magazines provided for gunpowder and other explosives" (The italics are ours.)

Smokeless powder of the kind carried by the "Lastminute" is also burning. If a stick of it be held at one end and the other end be lighted with a match, the powder will burn slowly and without any explosive effect. Smokeless power of the nitrocellulose variety is simply colloidized gunpowder, and the colloidizing has the effect of making it slow-burning. The wave of explosion of gun-cotton, nitroglycerine, or any other of the high explosives, is instantaneous throughout the whole mass; that is to say, the whole of the energy of the explosive is developed instantaneously, and hence its enormous disrupting effect. It is impossible, however, to detonate any of the smokeless powders. The rate of combustion



A case of 1,000 0.30 U. S. Army cartridges, smokeless powder, regularly loaded and packed, dropped 25 feet onto an iron floor covered with oak planking, landing on end and corner. Photographed as it lay after the fall. This case was badly broken by the force of the fall, the top being split and one end of the dovetailing started, but none of the cartridges exploded.



A case of 500 "Lindber" smokeless powder shells, regularly loaded and packed, shot through with a four-gauge shotgun at a distance of 15 feet, the charge being 5 drachms of powder and 2 1/2 ounces of No. 7 shot. The picture shows the end opposite from that which the charge entered. As is seen, the shells in the pathway of the charge are burst and incandescent, but there was no general explosion of the contents of the case, and those not within the range of the charge were unharmed.

Severe tests by shock and fire to prove that small-arms ammunition will not explode.

© Spencer, Lyden, Brown & Son Globe, Newport Pacific and the Magazine.

of such powder can be accelerated by burning them in a closed chamber and permitting the pressure of the gases of combustion to accumulate, which is exactly what occurs in the modern smokeless powder rifle, in which the rate of burning is so determined that the last grain of the powder will be consumed and converted into gas at about the time that the projectile leaves the muzzle of the gun.

The nearest approach to an explosion of a large quantity of smokeless powder aboard ship would be the ignition of a magazine full of such powder. The increase of pressure, due to the confined gases, would increase the rapidity of the burning, and a degree of pressure would soon be reached at which the magazine would be torn open and the ship more or less wrecked.

In the case of small-arms ammunition, however, where the powder is separated into the small quantity contained in each cartridge, there is no possibility of such a burning in mass. This was proved in the experiments carried on by the Winchester Arms Company and subsequently repeated by Col. Dunn in tests of even greater severity.

In the company's test the cases of cartridges containing smokeless powder were dropped 25 feet onto an iron floor, and in the case of the test made by Col. Dunn for the Steamboat Inspection Service, the boxes were subjected to a fall of 50 feet. The particulars of the company's test are given beneath the respective photographs. In the shooting test made by Col. Dunn a case of 12-gauge Repeater loaded paper shot shells, loaded with 21 grains of infallible smokeless powder, were packed in a case, the cartridges horizontal and perpendicular to the path of the bullets. Three shots were fired. After the first and second shots, no smoke issued from the box, and apparently there was no ignition. The third shot was followed by a slight amount of smoke issuing from the bullet hole, and in a short time smoke issued from the top of the box. Only two of the cartridges were ignited.

In the Government burning test, Repeater smokeless powder loaded paper shells and Nublack black powder loaded paper shells were placed on an iron grating and a pile of wood saturated with kerosene was placed beneath the grating and set afire. In twelve minutes' time there was a popping of the cartridges, which exploded individually with a firecracker effect. Col. Dunn's report states: "There was nothing approaching a powder explosion."

The test indicates that larger quantities of the same kind of ammunition might be burned without causing any destructive explosion." As a result of Col. Dunn's report, the Superintendent Inspector General issued the following circular letter to the United States supervising and local inspectors, the chief officers of customs and others concerned:

"The tests of the handling of small-arms ammunition and the rough usage to which it may be subjected without risk of danger from fire or explosion, having been witnessed by representatives of this department, you are advised that the results of these tests justify, beyond doubt, the conclusion that small-arms ammunition may be transported without restriction on steamers carrying passengers, and that it need not be confined to the magazine of the vessel as heretofore required."

Strategic Moves of the War

By Our Military Expert

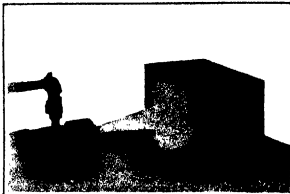
ITALY'S entrance into the war overshadowed all other recent events and speculation is plentiful as to the effect this will have, not only on the developments of the immediate future, but also on the final outcome of the war. Another area has been added to the ring of fire gradually closing about the Germans, and if the Balkan States should now see fit to follow the example of Italy, the circle would be nearly complete. If the Germans had only to consider the measures they must take to meet this new blow, so suddenly thrown into the fray against them, they would have problem enough to occupy them indefinitely, but they must also make arrangements for the immediate replacement of the supplies of all kinds they have been receiving from and through Italy. This does it now, closed to them, and with a formidable enemy to face, their supply of war materials must be appreciably increased at the same time that one of their sources of supply is cut off. A heart stouter than that of a German might quail before such an enormous task.

The Germans probably were not surprised by this decision of Italy, and no doubt they have made such preparations as they could, during the closing period of the negotiations at Rome, to meet the advance of the Italian army should war be Italy's final decision. To what extent they have been able to do this the events of the next few weeks will show. German system and organization, not only in military, but in civil affairs as well, are admirably perfect and capable of accomplishing marvellous in great emergencies; but there must be a limit beyond which they cannot go. Is the advent of Italy to be the additional burden that will start the Teuton plant to tottering and finally bring about his fall?

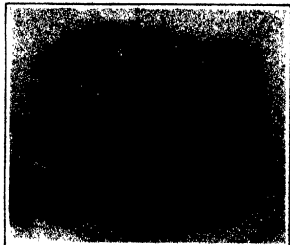
There had not been a time since the opening weeks of the war when the Teutons' star stood as high as just before Italy's declaration of war on Austria. While holding the Allies with fair success on the western front in France and Belgium, with some probability of the same conditions of stalemate being developed along the Ardennes, they were carrying everything before them in their spectacular and wonderfully successful drive



A case of 500 "Leader" smokeless powder shells, regularly loaded and packed, struck a blow by a 1,500-pound drop hammer allowed to fall two feet. The entire column of shells was crowded together about 2½ inches, shortening each shell nearly half an inch. As is seen, the shell was forced up through one end of the case, the top and bottom split off, and the shells compressed, but none of them exploded. This is the severest of severe tests of the effect of general shock to a case of shells or ammunition.



A case of 500 "Repeater" smokeless powder shells, regularly loaded and packed, subjected to fire and heat from a gas blowpipe. As is shown in the picture, the side of the case is burned through and badly charred. The expert conducting the test stood close enough to the burning case to rest his hand upon it.



This picture shows the case after the flame was turned off. When the blowpipe was turned off, the fire in the case went out after a little, illustrating that ammunition will not continue to burn by itself. As is shown by the appearance of the case and contents, there was no general explosion of the shells, the case rupturing intact, except that part of it destroyed by the flame.

Severe tests by shock and fire to prove that small-arms ammunition will not explode.

against the Russians in Galicia. This probably will rank as the greatest battle of the war to date, as measured by the number of men engaged and the results obtained. We may or may not believe the reports that have reached us of hundreds of thousands of Russian prisoners taken, and we may be certain that the German losses have been tremendous. In war these things

are to be accepted as facts, and we must not fail to quote Bismarck's words: "The victor writes the history of the war." The German victory may have been complete; but that does not mean that they are victors of a victorious campaign. As yet, victories are what count. Great did not mean that they won Washington to Richmond without losing any men and fighting many battles; yes, such a thing is a story and left him a case against the United States of the Confederacy. To date, the tide of battle has been ebbed and flowed, and the period of the war has not yet come when one side or the other can assume a not-to-be-related offensive that accumulates one victory after another and brings about an end of the war.

If Germany and Austria are to prove themselves by the temporary advantage gained over the Russians they must follow up their success by further offensive moves in such strength that victories will succeed one after another. Even without Italy to be reckoned with this would have been a stupendous task, but it becomes well-nigh impossible in face of the necessity of putting a powerful and well-equipped army on the Italian frontier. Neither Russians nor Teutons have been able to advance far into the territory of the other. When they cross the hostile frontier they find the railroads lead to their flanks; supplies, ammunition and reinforcements cannot be brought to the front and wounded cannot be sent to the rear with as much speed as when on friendly soil. Lines of communication are longer and in greater danger, and undefended flanks of the army are left hanging in the air, inviting attack. Germany, some months ago, was able to advance victoriously on Warsaw, still inadequate railroads in Poland and an over-stretched fighting line gave Russia, with increased railroad facilities, the advantage she needed to drive the invaders back. Russia recently fought her way to the crest of the Carpathian Mountains and paused to gather her strength for a further advance; but this was a slow process, and before it was completed the Germans and Austrians, taking advantage of the admirable system of railroads within their own borders, were able to concentrate a vast fighting force at the exposed portion of the Russian line, and proceeded to march through Galicia, rolling up part of the Russian army and compelling the abandonment of the Carpathian position.

Now the Germans, in their turn, are confronted by the same danger. Again success may be but the prelude to defeat. The force of the German blow appears to be about spent. Before the blow can be repeated new energy must be accumulated through the acquisition of reinforcements and large quantities of supplies and ammunition. Russia should be the first to recover. And we may hear of the advance of new Russian forces from the north against what appears to be the exposed portion of the German line. In no previous campaign have the Teutons had so large a stake to play for, and success in other theaters probably will be rewarded by them as of minor importance so long as there is doubt of their ability to hold the territory they have wrested from Russia.

The east is likely to continue to be the main theater of the war for some time to come. Viewed very broadly, there have been two main phases of the war to date. It seems to be well established that the plan of the Germans at the outset was to crush France before the more slowly moving Russia could mobilize her masses. They failed to do this. In the meantime the menace of the advancing Russians increased until, because of this and other important conditions, the best became the main field of operations. If the Germans are to win, their superior leadership is the main factor they possess with which to more than offset the superior numbers and other advantages of the Allies. No important did they deem this in the opening of the war, that they did not hesitate to go to the extreme of violating the neutrality of Belgium in order to get the route necessary for the employment of their armies in a way that would make that leadership effective. When the western drive became continuous, from the sea to Switzerland, and warfare there was reduced to siege operations, this opportunity for full exercise of superior leadership disappeared. In the east conditions are different. The distance is so great as to furnish ample room for strategic considerations of men, numbers of men, and their employment in accordance with the principles evolved by the German General Staff. The Germans claim to be superior in this class of leadership and point to the victories of Von Moellke, their great leader in two wars, to substantiate their claims.

The advent of Italy may compel the Germans, as to weaken their offensive in the east, to turn back to the west, and only recover the lost ground, but also complicate their victories advance through the Carpathian and on to Vienna; and the history of the war may repeat that Italy entered the contest at a critical moment and turned the tide for the Allies. And it may be noted that the German allies played a "Russian game" in which they sought to make the Russian army appear as the main factor in the war, and to make the Russian army appear as the main factor in the war, and to make the Russian army appear as the main factor in the war.

men with every available man and gun.

These facts, surely, should show whether the capture of Italy is to have a decisive effect on the final outcome, or whether the German allies will be able to say much that is less superfluous effort necessary to bring the balance to somewhere near what it was before Italy deserted.

When the above was written, the great Tivoli drive through Galicia had culminated in the capture, on June 20, of the great Galician fortress of Przemysl. So far as the evidence can be gathered, the victory was due to the preponderance of guns and ammunition possessed by the invaders. To somewhere near what it was before Italy deserted. The Polish official report of the capture of Przemysl definitely states that the Russian forces suffered from lack of ammunition; and, in the absence of any contradictory evidence, this must be accepted as the truth. How far into Galicia the Tivoli army can continue its advance, unaided, is a matter of pure conjecture. There is no evidence that Russia lacks in men, and if she can rush the needed supplies of material to the front, she may succeed in stemming the tide of invasion somewhere between Przemysl and Lemberg. In any case this great victory is bound to have a profound effect upon the whole situation; and if the Germans should be content to dig themselves in and hold the Russian lines on the present front, it is conceivable that they may be able to detach considerable forces to meet the crisis which has been developed by the entrance of Italy into the war.

The Germ of Typhus Fever

TYPHUS fever has since the Peloponnesian war at least, been traveling companion to Man; and its various names—dysentery, plague, cholera, typhoid—have well indicated the relationship. An adequate history of this infection would be the history of Europe since Charles V. to go no farther back. With its conquerors—smallpox, cholera, plague, typhoid—typhus has modified the course of most wars, has indeed abruptly ended some wars. The widespread Napoleonic epidemics served to disorganize typhus throughout Europe; and now a century after the like pandemic condition is liable to obtain. And only by the proved ability and vigilance of our coast quarantine authorities are we assured of being spared "visitation" of this pestilence.

This typhus is a fifth disease, transmitted by the louse's bite, and only that way. Brill's disease, of which more presently, is a mild form of typhus; and our American inhabitants, which our American physicians pickets was martyred in studying, is "the thing itself."

The typhus mortality is especially high among military surgeons—it has been 90 per cent; and indeed, up to May last about two hundred doctors and nurses have died in Serbia fighting this so indifferent ally to any and every foe—this slayer of non-combatant and soldier alike, far more destructive than any epidemic. The only effective means thus far has been to eradicate the louse; in the circumstances now obtaining in many parts of Europe, is a procedure as available as was sweeping the Aegæan seaboard. So that now, more than ever before in history, is the need of some such prophylactic against typhus as has been so successful against smallpox and typhoid, as has been successful in considerable degree against cholera and the plague. And, indeed, the blessed bomb would seem to be forthcoming at this, the pathological moment.

In the pathological laboratory of Mount Sinai Hospital, in New York city, Dr. Harry Plotz, a physician not yet twenty-five years old, isolated from the blood of Brill's disease suffers a rod-shaped (bacillary) vegetable parasite. Dr. William H. Welch has named the bacillus *typhi* *typhus*. This germ when first isolated is anaerobic (unable to exist in the presence of oxygen); but after a time it can be grown aerobically (in the presence of air). It is pleomorphic (occurring in various distinct forms), 0.9 to 1.93 microns long and in breadth one fifth to three sixteenths of a micron. It is not acid-fast, it has no capsule, and polar bodies can be demonstrated in it. At the time of this discovery the Balkan war was sending over plenty of "straight typhus material"; and Dr. O'Connell, the physician at the Port of New York, allowed Dr. Plotz to take blood from such patients; and these specimens yielded the bacillus got from the Brill's disease sufferer.

Experiments, first made by Dr. Plotz, were then made by Dr. Plotz and his colleagues, Dr. Peter K. Oltzky. They used the serum of eight cases of typhus fever; and antigens were made up from organisms obtained both from cases of Brill's disease and straight typhus. The antigen made from the Brill's disease bacillus binds the complement in the same manner as the antigen made from the bacillus isolated from the typhus case. And, conversely, antigen tests were made in thirty-six cases of typhus with identical negative results. Immunization tests were made of a group of five of the bacillus gave the same results. And, again, from a corresponding group of typhus patients, no growth in bacteriological media was obtained. The organisms obtained from Brill's disease were found to be able to take up soluble form of

typhus, the real, the virulent form being manifest in that epidemic now ravaging Serbia.

These findings Dr. Plotz reported in the *Journal of the American Medical Association* of May 10th, 1914, and on the evening of April 14th last, before the Pathological Society of New York and to the applause and most hearty congratulations of many eminent physicians and scientists. Dr. Plotz announced not only the discovery of the germ of typhus, but also that this discovery has resulted in the perfecting of a preventive serum. It is, of course, too early to be certain of its efficacy; however, many physicians going to Serbia to fight typhus have had themselves inoculated with it, thus erasing their faith in it.

The Current Supplement

WHAT new discoveries are possible in the actual state of science, which would be most desirable, are questions that are considered in the current issue of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT*, No. 2058, for June 12th, 1915, and the opinions of a large number of noted scientists are given. The substitution of electric for steam power on railroads is a subject that is being discussed with increasing frequency, and from the issue of new electrifications that are being made there appears no doubt but that this matter is sure to be of more vital importance, and in the not distant future, than possibly over-concentrative railroads have been acknowledged. In this issue is an illustrated description of the electrical equipment of a difficult section of the Norfolk & Western road that has just been put into operation and is successfully handling heavy tonnage on mountain grades and expediting traffic generally. Another fully illustrated article of general interest is the story of the night illumination of the Pan-Pacific Exposition, which is a triumph of the electrical illuminating engineer, and a marvellous demonstration of modern lighting methods. Electrometallurgy gives an interesting summary of electric methods of extracting various metals and of purifying them. The groupings have attracted so much attention of late, both on account of its applications to the aeroplane, and its use in directing the deadly under water torpedo, that many are desirous of learning how it works. Most descriptions of the action of the groupings are so technical that they are quite difficult to understand, especially as the action is a subtle one. Prof. Newkirk of the University of Minnesota gives us the best and simplest explanation that has been published, and illustrates it by excellent sketches. Tides in the Earth's Crust is a valuable contribution for the geologist that will be appreciated by students of science. There is an interesting article on the Thine System of the United States, as well as a variety of other useful and readable matter.

A Submarine Sunk by a Zeppelin

By C. Dienstbach

THE first pitched battle has recently been fought between ships of the sea and of the air, resulting in the annihilation of a British submarine by a Zeppelin bomb. This fact seems so striking that an attempt to analyze the lesson taught by this experience, isolated as it is, may be worth making. It is well known that British submarines are specially armed with anti-aircraft guns, which disappear in a recess when the vessel dives, but which are of fairly heavy caliber (among their class) and capable of firing at a steep angle.

While the English undersea craft generally have not yet shown much activity very far from repair shops, their employment as anti-aircraft patrols would seem a very fitting task. Their speed is of course hopelessly inferior to a Zeppelin's, but so is that of the fastest cruiser relatively. But, as in the famous story of the race between the hare and the hound, the submarines might suddenly emerge into consciousness just at the goal of the race. The Zeppelin must indeed have been caught exactly like the hare, for voluntarily it would hardly have accepted a fight at such tremendous odds. A submarine flotilla's numerous high angle guns are not so very much smaller than those of a battleship yet the target offered by the single submarine is so hopelessly tiny that the Zeppelin's escape after striking one of her foes with a bomb appears nothing short of marvellous, if we recall the difficulty of dropping bombs with precision and the accuracy of high angle fire so far experienced. More luck must have played the principal part in the encounter. There would remain just this explanation, that the Zeppelin's speed (with the wind) took advantage of the Zeppelin's speed in the confined space directly overhead that is not yet swept efficiently by high angle fire, and that the several bombs mentioned in the report were dropped in quick succession as to offset any miscalculation of speed and height by their "scattering." Nevertheless, if a tiny submarine was squarely hit by a bomb, the same might much more likely happen to a coal dreadnought (and that bomb likely would be a coal dreadnought), which is hardly better defended against the air.

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence column. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld when so desired.]

Compulsory Licenses and Working Clause

To the Editor of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*

Samuel S. Dale, in his letter published in your issue of April 24th, does little to impair the argument of Commissioner of Patents Ewing against compulsory license and compulsory working of patents.

Mr. Dale adopts a curious course of reasoning.

"The British working clause of 1907," he declares, "caused an immediate development of manufacturing that had previously been confined in foreign countries." "But this is not the model," Mr. Dale hastens to assure us, "with which we ought to follow." "Advocates of a working clause," he declares, "are not arguing the adoption of the provisions of the British patent system." What then are they advocating? Mr. Dale replies: "They are advocating the adoption of an effective working clause in the United States law." But what the terms of this shall be, in what way it shall improve upon the British law and specifically just what it is, Mr. Dale does not state.

There is always a sure, quick and infallible test to apply to enthusiasts with legislative proposals, and that is to compel them to phrase in specific language just the law they want. If their ideas have merit, they readily stand the test. If they lack merit, the process of trying to satisfy the test is always educative to the community and sometimes especially educative to the enthusiasts. Perhaps, if Mr. Dale will acquaint himself with the literature which has already accumulated upon this subject and read all the hearings which have been held during the past few years by the House Patent Committee, he would see the answer not only to all the questions which he now raises, but to many other questions which much more industrious students of the problem have raised.

Mr. Dale's quotation from the recent speech of the president of the British Board of Trade is strangely misdescribed by Mr. Dale as "showing that the British working clause will work in the future." In fact, the passage quoted is from the statement of the British government regarding its policy in respect of German patents which, like other German patents coming within the control of the British authorities upon the outbreak of the war, have been laid hold of by the government to abide the termination of hostilities. Mr. Dale's, naïve assumption that what Great Britain is now doing to the property of the enemies, with whom she is at war can afford a wholesome precedent for what the United States should do with the property of foreigners with whom we are not at war is, perhaps, the strangest delusion that the whole compulsory license delusion has yet produced.

What relation Mr. Dale bears to the textile industry, for which he presumes to speak, is not disclosed in his letter. To the credit of this industry it should be said that instead of seeking relief in the xill of the wisp of compulsory license or compulsory working of patents, it is concentrating its attention upon tariff protection against "dumping" which is barely alluded to by Mr. Dale as one of the "other factors" involved in this problem. The hearings before the House Patent Committee last winter at which representatives of the textile industries appeared, and the recent report of the Secretary of Commerce on the distress situation, seem to indicate that the more responsible leaders of opinion upon this subject are laboring under no such mischievous delusions as opposes Mr. Dale.

New York, N. Y.

The Superheated Steam Unit

To the Editor of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*

In the issue of March 27th, 1915 of the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, I think a mistake has been made on page 280. See third column, last No. 5. The sentence which begins in the twelfth second line from the top is as follows:

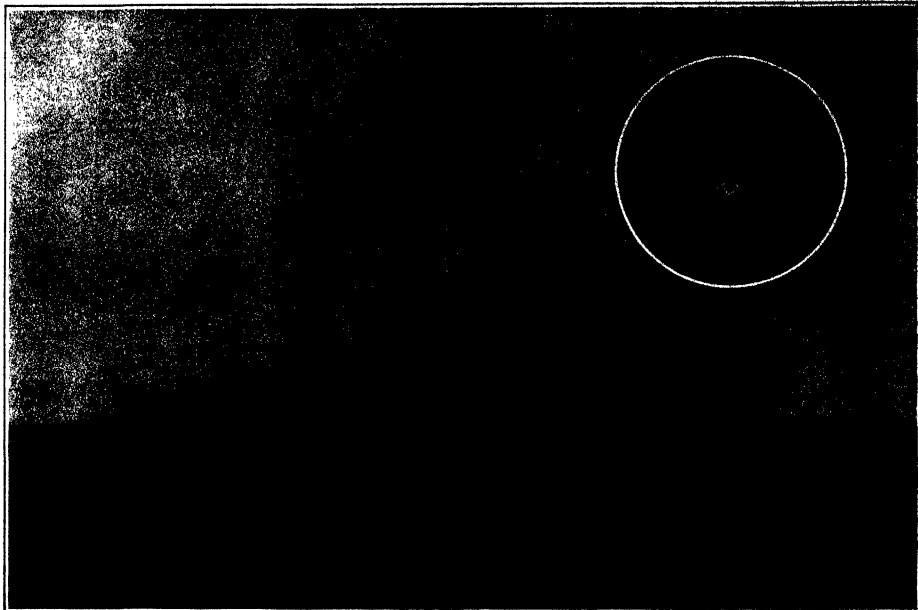
"The double superheat feature appears also in this locomotive, and as tested by the exposition judges it gave 870 pounds of coal and 1,022 pounds of steam per brake-horse-power on a superheat of 610 deg. Fahr."

This statement might be very misleading to the uninitiated. Mr. Miller's article is both interesting and instructive, but it seems certain to me that the words "coal" and "steam" have been transposed. I have accepted the information with this assumption.

Jersey City, N. J.

A. L. THURSTON, M. E., F. E.

The "Reconfort." Perry's Arctic ship, has been acquired by the U. S. Bureau of Fisheries and is to be used in connection with the work of that bureau in Alaskan waters. She was built expressly for Arctic service in 1906.



Displacement, 32,000 tons. Speed, 23 knots. Guns: Thirteen 15-inch, sixteen 4.7-inch. Belt, 9½-inch.
Dreadnought "Gallio Cesare." Five ships in this class.

The Italian Navy

The First Navy to Set Afloat Ships Combining High Speed With Heavy Guns

ALTHOUGH the Italian navy ranks as sixth in power among the leading navies of the world, it is absolutely first class in quality and its personnel is believed to be thoroughly efficient. Italian naval constructors have a reputation for originality and skill. Over a quarter of a century ago they launched two remarkable ships which were undoubtedly the forerunners of the modern battle-cruiser. They were known as the "Italia" and "Leopardo." They had the then unprecedented displacement of 14,400 tons and the then unrivaled speed for heavy-gunned ships of over eighteen knots. Each carried four 17-inch 100-ton breech-loading guns, and the bases of the smokestacks and the main battery were protected by armor of from 16 to 19 inches in thickness. A quarter of a century later it was that distinguished Italian naval officer, Caimberli, who made the earliest, or one of the earliest, plans for a dreadnought battleship of large displacement, carrying an armament exclusively of big guns.

Commencing with the most important class of ships the dreadnought, we find that Italy completed, in 1912, her first dreadnought, the "Dante Alighieri," a ship of 18,500 tons, designed for a speed of 23 knots and carrying a main battery of twelve 12-inch 46-caliber guns and a torpedo battery of twenty 4.7-inch. The main battery is mounted in four three-gun turrets, all on the center line. The armor protection in this, as in all Italian dreadnoughts, is rather light, consisting of a 9½-inch belt and a 9- to 9½-inch protection for the main batteries.

In 1914 the three dreadnoughts, "Gallio Cesare," "Gallio Cesare" and "Leonardo da Vinci" were added to the fleet. These

ships, of a speed of 23 knots and of 22,000 tons displacement, are remarkable as being the first dreadnoughts to mount more than a dozen heavy guns, the main armament consisting of thirteen 46-caliber 12-inch guns, all mounted on the center line, as follows: Forward is a three-gun turret, astern of which and firing above its roof is a two-gun turret. Amidships between the two smokestacks is a three-gun turret, and aft are respectively, a two-gun turret and three-gun turret, the former firing above the roof of the latter. The belt and main gun position armor is, respectively, 9½ inches and 9½ inches in thickness.

Italy is also generally credited with having completed two other ships of this class, the "Gale Dullio" and the "Andrea Doria." If the two last-named ships are completed, and it is probable that they are, Italy possesses a homogeneous squadron of six dreadnoughts, combining great offensive power with high speed. Well handled and properly fought, they should be capable of

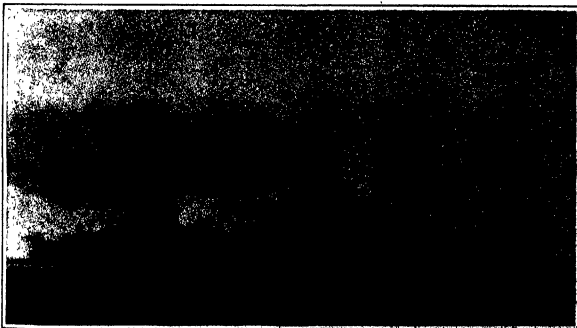
overwhelming the four Austrian dreadnoughts of the "Viribus Unitis" class.

Italy has laid down and is doubtless now pushing along to completion with all her available force a class of four 25-knot battleships of the "Queen Elizabeth" class. The first of these, the "Christopher Columbus," gives her name to the class. They are to be of 30,000 tons and 26 knots speed, and the battery will consist of eight 15-inch and sixteen 6-inch guns. Particulars as to the armor protection have not been made public.

The Italian navy differs from any other in respect of its pre-dreadnought battleships; for the limited class, rather light armor protection, and comparatively light gun-fire of these ships would seem to place them more in the class of the armored cruisers than of the pre-dreadnought battleships. Most important of these are the four ships of the "San Giorgio" and "Pia" classes, vessels of about 10,000 tons and 23 to 24 knots, protected with 8 inches of armor on the belt and main gun

positions, and carrying four 10-inch and eight 7.5-inch guns, all mounted in two-gun turrets. These four ships were completed in 1909 and 1910. They could hardly stand up against the three semi-dreadnoughts of the "Ferdinand" class in the Austrian navy, which carry four 12-inch and eight 9.4-inch guns, but they would be a good match for the three ships of the "Eart" class, which mount four 9.4-inch and twelve 7.5-inch guns.

Next in point of age in the Italian navy are the three armored cruisers (or battleships, if you will) of the "Vittorio Emanuele" class of 18,000 tons and 21 knots speed, mounting two 12-inch and four 6-inch guns.



Displacement, 18,500 tons. Speed, 23 knots. Guns: Twelve 12-inch, twenty 4.7-inch. Belt, 10-inch.
Dreadnought "Dante Alighieri."

in another gun, the ships being protected by a 10-inch belt, with 8 inches on the main gun positions. These ships were completed in 1907-1908. Preceding these and completed in 1904, were the "Galeazzo Briosi" and the "Regina Margherita," of 13,500 tons and 20 knots, mounting four 12-inch and eight 6-inch guns, protected by a 6-inch belt and 8 inches on the main gun positions.

In 1901 the Italian built five armored cruisers of a type which found its way into other navies besides their own. They are readily distinguishable by their possession of a single military mast placed amidships and centrally between the two smokestacks. The first of these, the "St. Bon" and the "Pilliberto," completed in 1891, are of 8,800 tons and 24 knots, and they mount four 10-inch in turrets, eight 6-inch in a central battery, and eight 4.7-inch behind shields. They are protected by a belt of 9½-inch nickel steel, with the same thickness on the barbettes. The other three, "Garibaldi," "Varese" and "Francesco Ferruccio," of 7,400 tons, carry one 10-inch and two 8-inch guns, and have 6 inches of armor on the belt and bow decks.

Of older armored ships built between 1867 and 1891, Italy has three battleships of the "Re Umberto" class, of 13,200 tons, mounting four old 12.5-inch, six old-type 6-inch, and sixteen 4.7-inch guns. They are good only for coast defense or the bombardment of coast fortifications, such as is being done by the other armored ships of the Allies at the Dardanelles.

The "Carlo Alberto" and "Vittorio Pisani," completed some sixteen years ago, are armored cruisers of 6,500 tons, mounting twelve 6-inch and six 4.7-inch guns. Their present speed is about 18 knots.

Of fast scouts, Italy possesses four of about 3,500 tons and 28 knots speed, carrying a main armament of six 4.7-inch guns. She has eight or ten light cruisers varying in displacement from 2,200 tons to 3,800 tons, and in speed from 18 to 22 knots. Her navy includes also half a dozen gunboats of from 20 to 23 knots speed.

The destroyer fleet of the Italian is first-class in quality and it is believed to be very capably handled. Built and building, it includes about fifty vessels varying in size from 300 to 1,600 tons, and in speed from 28 to 32 knots. The 1,500-ton vessels are under construction, as are also three of 1,000 tons and ten of 770 tons. Of mine layers, Italy possesses three vessels of 800 tons and 20 knots speed.

The Italian submarine fleet includes about a score of vessels completed and, as far as is known, about a dozen under construction. The "Argo" class of about 800 tons displacement are credited with a surface speed of 18 knots and an under-water speed of 14 knots.

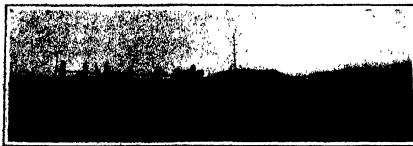
The total strength of the Italian navy in officers and men is about 38,000.

Classification of Technical Literature

DELEGATES from about twenty national technical and scientific societies met in the United Engineering Society Building, New York, on May 21st, 1915, to perfect a permanent organization for the purpose of preparing a classification of the literature of applied science which might be accepted and adopted by organizations generally.

There was a generally expressed opinion that such a classification, if properly prepared, might well serve as a basis for the filing of clippings, for cards in a card index, and for printed indexes; and that the publishers of technical periodicals might be induced to print against each important article the symbol of the appropriate class in this system, so that by clipping these articles a file might be easily made which would combine in one system these clippings, together with trade catalogues, maps, drawings, blue prints, photographs, pamphlets and letters classified by the same system.

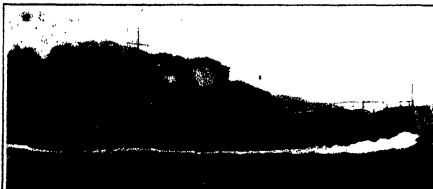
Dr. W. F. Cutler, the Secretary of the



Displacement, 400 tons. Speed, 18 surface knots, 9 submerged knots. Torpedo tubes, 2. Submarine "G. Pullino."



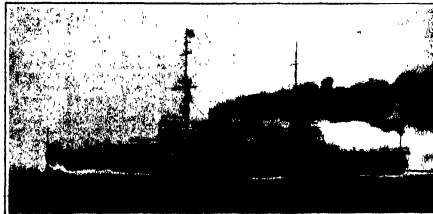
Displacement, 700 tons. Speed on trial, 36 knots. Guns One 4.7-inch, four 3-inch. Torpedo tubes, 2. Destroyer "Audace."



Displacement, 11,000 tons. Speed, 22½ knots. Guns Four 10-inch, eight 7.5-inch. Belt, 4-inch. Pre-dreadnought "Flia."



Displacement, 10,000 tons. Speed, 24 knots. Guns Four 10-inch, eight 7.5-inch. Belt, 5-inch. Pre-dreadnought "San Marco."



Displacement, 12,500 tons. Speed, 20 knots. Guns Four 12-inch, four 8-inch, twelve 6-inch. Belt, 8-inch. Pre-dreadnought "Benedetto Brin."



Displacement, 11,000 tons. Speed, 23½ knots. Guns Four 10-inch, eight 7.5-inch. Belt, 8-inch. Pre-dreadnought "Amalia."

Engineering Societies' Library, read a paper on "The Classification of Applied Science," in which he stated that no one of the existing classifications was complete and satisfactory enough to be worthy of general adoption. He outlined a plan whereby a central office could collate all the existing classifications, and with the help of specialists in the various national societies interested, might compile a general system which might meet with general acceptance and adoption.

Permanent organization was effected, and it was agreed that a special invitation to participate by the appointment of a delegate be sent to other national societies which might be interested in the general plan.

The name adopted for this organization is "Joint Committee on Classification of Technical Literature," and the temporary address of the secretary Mr. W. F. Cutler, is 20 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York City.

Prizes for Discoveries Relating to Alcohol

THE Russian Ministry of Finance is offering a series of prizes for inventions relating to the use of alcohol, and covering a varied field of investigation. The various prize offers are as follows: Three prizes of 30,000, 15,000, and 5,000 rubles for a satisfactory method of denaturing alcohol. Three prizes of 60,000, 30,000 and 10,000 rubles for a new product derived from alcohol. Three prizes of 50,000, 20,000, and 5,000 rubles for a new method of applying alcohol to the preparation of a product in which it, or its derivatives, constitute a part. Three prizes of 20,000, 15,000, and 5,000 rubles for new methods for the application of alcohol in an industry in which the spirit, or its derivatives, serve as a transitory dissolving agent, or an extracting or precipitating substance. Four prizes of 75,000, 50,000, 30,000, and 20,000 rubles for an apparatus for utilizing alcohol for feeding internal combustion engines. Four prizes of 75,000, 50,000, 30,000, and 20,000 rubles for improvements in apparatus relating to utilizing alcohol, or its derivatives, as fuel. Four prizes of 50,000, 30,000, 15,000, and 5,000 rubles for apparatus for applying alcohol to lighting purposes. The declarations relating to these competitions must be filed not later than January 1st, 1916, with the Department of Unassessed Taxes and Spirit Monopoly (Glavnoye Oppravlennye Neshchadich Shlorov 1 Casenod Produkt Pitol, Petrograd). It may be noted that a ruble is equivalent to about 51 cents of our money.

A New Burglar-proof Safe

A RECENT report from the American Consul at Nuremberg, Germany, announces that the famous Krupp Works at Essen have discovered a burglar-proof safe which will "put all the burglars to shame." The discovery consists in the production of a steel which will withstand the attacks of the oxyacetylene flame, and that it will be impossible to burn a hole through the safe with the acetylene flame either in the time at his disposal or the amount of acetylene and oxygen which the burglar could carry to his line of operations.

At a melting test it required one and one quarter hours of burning and used up 170 gallons of acetylene and 534 gallons of oxygen to burn a hole 10 1/16 inches in diameter and 1 1/16 inches deep into the plate. Such an operation did not burn an opening which would allow the hand to be inserted.

In order to produce a hole large enough to admit the hand, the operation requires six hours of time and 2,400 gallons of acetylene and 2,934 gallons of oxygen. This would require 980 pounds of raw material for the burglar's operation besides requiring almost the whole night to burn through a plate 2 inches thick.

The steel from which the safe is constructed is so hard that it cannot be bored and tapped and all screws and rivets must be made and cast with the plate.

The Westinghouse Electro-pneumatic Air Brake on the Pennsylvania Railroad

By Herbert T. Wade

THE Pennsylvania Railroad has adopted as standard equipment for all its new passenger trains the Westinghouse electrically controlled air brake, and the cars now in service are being supplied with it as fast as circumstances and funds available for such betterment allow. This important step is being undertaken only after an elaborate series of tests under actual service conditions carried on for several months with a complete train of twelve new passenger cars and a modern steam locomotive. These tests demonstrated conclusively that with the new equipment it was possible to secure much quicker and more effective stopping, both in case of emergency and under ordinary conditions, as slowing down for a station or reducing speed on a down-grade with a corresponding increase of safety and economy in handling traffic. Not only were the advantages of the new arrangement demonstrated, but there was accumulated a mass of data dealing with the general questions of the theory and use of air brakes, derived from systematic study, in which the train equipped with special measuring and recording instruments of high precision, was virtually a scientific laboratory for the engineers and other experts of the Westinghouse Air Brake Company and the Pennsylvania Railroad.

Though various trials of improvements in air brakes and air brake equipment have taken place from time to time, not since the Galton-Westinghouse tests in England in 1878 had such extensive and scientific brake investigation been made. When it is stated that the number of those brake tests aggregated 691, and that they extended from February 10th to the end of May, 1913, their extent and character may be appreciated, as well as the amount of data accumulated for subsequent consideration in connection with almost every phase of the air brake problem. These results were then discussed by the engineers of the railroad and in their recommendation the decision to install the improved equipment was made, and this work is now in progress.

That improved air brake equipment is desirable in the interest of safety and more efficient operation is evident by a consideration of the change in conditions attending the development of the air brake. In the year 1880 with a train weight of 280 tons running at a speed of 60 miles per hour, the energy to be dissipated was about 33,000 foot-tons and the stopping distance with the application of the brakes was 1,000 feet. In the year 1913, with a train weight of 1,200 tons, running at this speed of 60 miles per hour the energy dissipated was 111,000 foot-tons, almost four times greater than that of the train first mentioned. Now, if the second train was equipped with a brake of the same class as that of the former, the stopping distance would be 1,700 feet and its collision energy when it passed the 1,000-foot mark where the first train would have stopped would still be 16,000 foot-tons, one and one-half times as much as the 1880 train had when the brake was applied, with still 700 feet to run. With the latest improvement in the air brake such a train can now be equipped with the new brake apparatus so that it can be stopped in 800 feet at which point with the old brake it would have been running at 43 miles per hour and with a collision energy of 57,000 foot-tons, or still about twice that contained in the train of 1880 at the beginning of the stop. In fact, the energy that must be dissipated by the air brake on a modern train with modern speeds of travel has increased eighty-fold since the original invention of the air brake. Looking at the matter in another way the problem may be stated as follows: To bring the speed of a train of

twelve cars up to 30 miles an hour a distance of from 8 to 12 miles is required 300 such an acceleration, and the production of an amount of energy which must be dissipated in a few seconds in order to stop the train within a distance of approximately 2,000 feet.

The important advantage, that now figure in the Pennsylvania equipment, was secured by improvements both in the effectiveness of the brake as a whole, as well as in detail. By the brake is meant not only the triple valve fundamental to the Westinghouse air brake, but the entire mechanical organization and assembly of the various elements. Improvements were made in the efficiency of the braking system as a whole, and also in the automatic and manual control of the brake operated, this function, naturally, being rendered more difficult by the increasing lengths of trains. But before any such innovation could be made on a large scale it was necessary that it should receive a complete and thorough test under actual working conditions. This was done on the Pennsylvania Railroad, employing a train of twelve steel passenger cars and a modern locomotive, weighing nearly 1,000 tons and about 1,000 feet in length, on a special section of track on the West Jersey and Seashore division of the Pennsylvania sys-

tem, and electric control, whereby the application of the new type of a brake system, at any time, in fact, does not have to wait an appreciable amount of time for the difference in pressure to be noticed, but the valves are opened or closed by local electric magnets.

The electric magnets are connected to the electric control system by a battery circuit in such manner that when operated electrically the electric operation of the brakes is actuated by a reduction in main pipe pressure as when operated pneumatically. The electric effect is the same as the pneumatic effect, and the electric valves operate the pneumatic valves in similar fashion, only the response is made immediately—the electro-magnetic valves respond to the electric signal. The release magnets are controlled by the brake valve handle in either release or holding position, and with an electro-pneumatic emergency application the emergency magnets on all cars simultaneously and instantaneously energize and open their respective emergency night valves, which, in turn, cause the quick action parts of each universal valve to operate and produce an emergency application of the brakes. If the hose bursts or a conductor's valve, familiarly seen in a passenger car, is opened, the first universal valve to be affected by the resulting drop in brake pipe pressure will operate pneumatically and close its emergency switch so that the emergency magnet circuit throughout the train is energized and an electric emergency application on all brakes obtained.

The new system, which at first examination is quite complicated, both by its arrangement of electric connections and the arrangement of valves and magnets, secures more rapid application of the air brakes more quickly, also giving increased emergency stopping power, and enables the use of a higher pressure which may be held without dissipation toward the end of a stop, while at the same time a more efficient design and better installation of foundation brake rigging has been adopted so that both the application and release of the brakes is more positive and reliable in all its operations.

The new system, as stated, employs two shoes per wheel which is known as the "double brake" and it is arranged to operate so that the time of obtaining the maximum emergency brake cylinder pressure on the train as a whole, according to the official tests, was shortened from eight seconds with the best previous equipment to 3.3 seconds with the improved apparatus; and when the electric control, which was a further feature of the new system, was used, this could be diminished to 2.95 seconds. The electric system is controlled from the engineer's valve without extra levers or switches, the electrical mechanism being connected with the simple control valve, the circuits being arranged within. The system also works automatically in case of any failure along the line, and thus remains a simultaneous application of just as great retarding force with the elimination of all violent slack action and shock.

With the universal control a train of twelve steel cars and locomotive with the electro-pneumatic brake, 100 per cent braking power, close brake rigging, unbalanced brake shoes, can be stopped:

From 60 miles per hour in 300 feet equivalent to an average retarding force of 300 pounds per ton.

From 60 miles per hour in 1,000 feet equivalent to an average retarding force of 100 pounds per ton.

From 60 miles per hour in 2,000 feet equivalent to an average retarding force of 50 pounds per ton.

From 60 miles per hour in 3,000 feet equivalent to an average retarding force of 33 pounds per ton.

It would seem, therefore, that here we have an important step toward increase of safety and that increased speeds may be used with greater safety. While greater safety of travel and more economy under good conditions of operation are the two most important results.



Schematic representation of electro-pneumatic air brake installed on a passenger car.

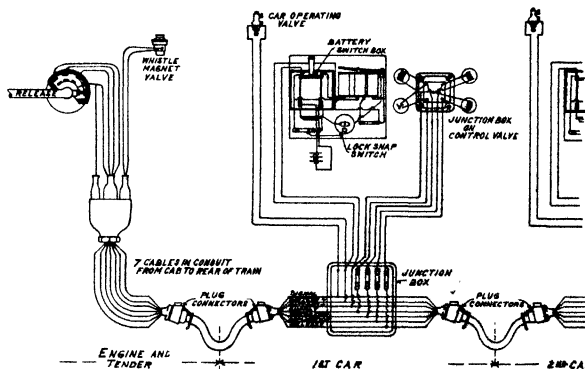


Diagram of wiring and connections for electric control of air brake.

ten, near Absecon. The locomotive and cars are fitted with the new mechanism, which, in its most improved form, aside from the principle of operation concerned, involved also the use of two shoes per wheel as higher retarding forces could be developed than were possible with a shoe on only one side of the wheel, on account of the limits of excessive piston travel, of brake shoe wear and distortion producing variable results of unequalled strains in brake, and of journal troubles.

In the improvement and perfection of the air brake many elements successively have been added until to-day the mechanism, while increasingly effective, is of considerable complexity. For example, with long trains with the older systems there would be delay in the application of brakes at the rear; and there would be unevenness and shock in stopping. Due to the delay incident in the mechanical operation of the system the stopping distance at high speeds and with heavy loads and long trains could not hitherto be reduced as was desired in the interest of safe and effective operation. The new system secures immediate action at each triple valve by substituting therefor a universal control valve, where not only are all the essential features of the air control included, but also there is incorpo-

Fig. 1.—Respirator capable of being used with absorbing chemicals.

Fig. 2.—Two views of a French type of snail muzzle.

Fig. 3.—Italian respirator provided with exit valve for exhaled air.

The Use of Poisonous Gases in Warfare

How Gases Are Generated and How Men May Protect Themselves From Them

By John B. C. Kershaw, F. I. C.

THE earliest use of deleterious gases in siege warfare is recorded in the history of the Peloponnesian war from 431 to 404 B. C. During this struggle between the Athenians and Spartans and their respective allies, the cities of Plataea and Ithaca were besieged. Wood saturated with pitch and sulphur was set on fire and burnt under the walls of these cities, in order to generate choking and poisonous fumes, which would stupefy the defenders and render the task of the attacking forces less difficult. Another form of the same method of attack used about this date was to fill a cauldron with molten pitch, sulphur, and burning charcoal, and to blow the fumes with the aid of a primitive form of bellows and air-blast, over the defenders' lines.

Greek fire, about which much was heard in the wars of the middle ages, was a liquid, the composition of which is now unknown, that was squirted through the air, and was used for setting fire to the buildings of places attacked. It was employed chiefly in sea-fights in order to set fire to the ships of the enemy, and it was used by the Byzantine Greeks at the sieges of Constantinople in the years 1261 and 1412.

Turning now to the application by the Germans of poisonous gases to trench warfare, we have the following official description of the character and appearance of the gases, and of their effects:

Sir John French, in his report, dated May 3rd, asserts that "the gases employed have been ejected from pipes laid in the trenches, and also produced by the explosion of shells especially manufactured for the purpose. The German troops, who attacked under cover of these gases were provided with specially designed respirators, which were issued in sealed pattern covers. This all points to long and methodical preparation on a large scale.

"The effect of this poison is not merely disabling or even painlessly fatal, as suggested in the German press. Those of its victims who do not succumb on the field, and who can be brought into the hospital suffer acutely, and in a large proportion of cases, die a painful and lingering death.

"Those who survive are in little better case, as the injury to their lungs appears to be of a permanent character, and reduces them to a condition which points to their being trouble for life. These effects were he well-known to the German scientists who devised this spy weapon, and to the military authorities, who have anticipated the use."

The following description, given by a British officer and published in the daily papers, shows the effects of the poison gases upon the men who survived them, and their condition on being brought to the hospital:

"When we got to the hospital we had no difficulty in finding out at which end the men were, as the noise of the men coughing to get breath was sufficient to reveal it. We were met by a doctor belonging to our division, who took the men to the ward. There were about twenty of the worst cases in the ward, on mattresses, and a few of a milder condition grouped up against

the walls. Their faces, arms, and hands were of a shiny grey-black color, with mouths open and lead-glassed eyes, all awaying slightly backward and forward trying to get their breath. It was the most appalling sight, all these poor black faces struggling, struggling for life."

Dr. J. R. Haldane, F.R.S., who was sent out to France to investigate the effects of these gases, and to report upon the best methods of protection, states that:

"The symptoms and the other facts, so far ascertained, point to the use by the German troops of chlorine or bromine for purposes of asphyxiation. There are also facts pointing to the use in German shells of other irritant substances, though in some cases at least, these agents are not of the same brutally barbarous character as the gas used in the attack on the Canadians. The effects are not those of any of the ordinary products of combustion of explosives. On this point the symptoms described left not the slightest doubt in my mind."

A deposition by Capt. Bertram of the Eighth Can-

gas, the sulphurous acid gas was probably made in the trenches in the simple expedient of throwing sulphur into open brazier containing charcoal or coke fires, while the chlorine was very probably brought to the trenches compressed under 5 atmospheres (or 70 pounds) into liquid form, in large steel cylinders similar to those used for compressed oxygen and hydrogen gases. The electrolytic method of decomposing common salt and producing caustic alkali is widely developed in Germany, and the chlorine liberated by this process has been, in the past, somewhat of a drug on the German chemical market. Quite possibly large stocks of chlorine gas in liquid form have been accumulated in Germany in recent years in view of this war, but the German military authorities in any case will have ample reserves of their latest form of ammunition ready to their hand, in the salt deposits of Stassfurt and elsewhere. Having brought a sufficient number of the cylinders of compressed chlorine to the trenches, it is merely necessary to insert a delivery pipe through the outer wall or parapet of the trench, to connect this to the cylinder, and then to wait for a favoring wind before turning on the gas tap, and allowing the gas to escape from the cylinder under its own pressure.

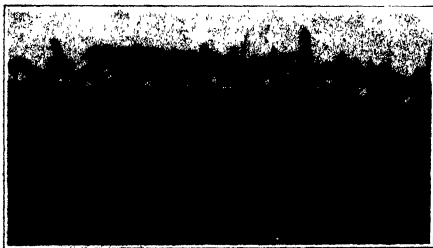
Since the liquefaction pressure of chlorine is so low, a very large number of gas cylinders would be required to transport a large volume of gas to the trenches where it was to be employed, but this would not prove an insuperable obstacle to an army well provided with motor transport.

Considering now the means of defence against sulphurous acid and chlorine gas, one must note first that neither gas is poisonous in the sense that carbon monoxide gas is poisonous, that is neither gas forms a poisonous compound with the corpuscles of the blood. The gases are poisonous in the sense that they produce death by asphyxiation or by producing irritation and inflammation of the bronchial tubes and lung tissues, and if these gases are well diluted with air before they are inhaled, their permanent poisonous effect is greatly reduced.

Turning now to the practical question of the means of defence against poisonous gases, these may be divided into two broad classes, according as they depend upon chemical or mechanical principles of removing the gases from the air.

The first form of respirator, supplied to the British troops in Flanders, belonged to the former class, and was based upon a pattern supplied by the Admiralty. Over a million of these respirators (made by voluntary labor), consisting of a covering for the mouth and nose of stockinette lined with cotton-wool, were sent out toward the end of April. These respirators, however, have not proved efficacious in warding off the evil effects of the gases when these latter have reached the trenches in a fairly condensed form. Dr. Haldane has been sent out again to Flanders to experiment with various forms of larger respirators and head coverings of helmet shape, in which cotton wool or cotton waste

(Continued on page 506.)



British soldiers prepared to weather a gas attack.

dian Battalion states that: "On Thursday, April 22nd, he was in a support trench, about 600 yards from the German line, when he saw first of all, a white smoke rising from the German trenches to a height of about 3 feet. Then in front of the white smoke appeared a greenish cloud, which drifted along the ground to our trench, not rising more than about 7 feet from the ground, when it reached our first trench. Many in these trenches were obliged to leave, and a number of them were killed by the effects of the gas."

The last description indicates that the gases used in this attack were a mixture of sulphurous acid and chlorine. The former is a dense white gas and the latter is green—both gases are heavier than air and would therefore creep along the ground—and they can be generated cheaply, in large quantities in the trenches, by comparatively simple means. Both gases are asphyxiating when breathed even in a dilute state—and when inhaled without much air dilution they would produce the effects upon the lungs that have been already described. As regards the methods of generating these

A Study in Instinct

The Leaf Roller and Its Writhings

By Harold Bastin

WHAT is instinct? We do not know. Yet we frequently make use of the word, usually to express our recognition of the fact that many animals are governed in their behavior by inward promptings which are not the outcome of intelligence. An animal follows a course of instinctive action because it must—not because it has deliberately chosen that course with the object of attaining some definite end. This point calls for strong and frequent emphasis by serious students of psychology, since many popular writers on natural history falsely endow their beasts and birds with a complete set of human faculties and emotions, thus mystifying the general public. Naturally, it is not always easy in a given case to determine exactly where instinct ends and intelligence begins, but our difficulties in this respect can only be increased by a careless use of terms and a misrepresentation of ascertained fact.

The easiest way to grasp the significance of the word *instinct*, as employed in the scientific sense, is to examine critically an actual case in point. Cases of pure instinct occur most commonly among insects, and for our present purpose we may consider briefly the activities of certain small weevils which are grouped by naturalists in the families *Rhynchitidae* and *Aleocharidae*.

These insects are known popularly as "leaf-rollers," because the females, at the period of egg-laying, prepare leaves in an elaborate manner to serve as food and dwelling-places for their young. Both families are represented in the American continent, but in Europe the species are much more numerous, and one (*Rhynchites bacchus*) ranks as a "pest," because it sometimes mutilates vine leaves in such numbers as seriously to hamper the growth of the plants.

These weevils cut and roll their leaves in characteristic ways, according to the species, and frequent different kinds of

plants. The subject of this article (*Rhynchites betule*) occurs most commonly on the birch. Let us suppose that we have before us one of these insects, and that she is about to commence work upon a leaf. In the first place she does much prospecting, moving delib-

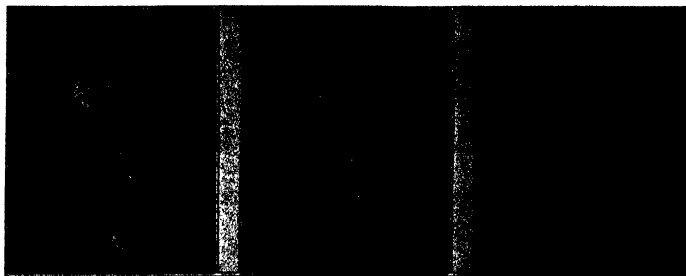
erately about, both upon the upper and under surfaces of the leaf. If satisfied with her investigations, she at length makes her way to a point at the edge of the leaf, not far from the stalk, and standing upon the upper surface, cuts the substance with her jaws in a long curve from the edge to the midrib. She then ascends the leaf for a short distance, and from the other side of the midrib makes another curving cut to the opposite edge.

In favorable circumstances, the two cuts are made in from ten to fifteen minutes. Then comes a lengthy pause, presumably that the leaf may wilt and thus drawing the second half of the leaf round the first, with the result that she herself is soon inclosed in the folds. At about this stage she makes several incisions in the leaf substance and lays an egg in each. Thereafter she comes forth, tightens the roll, and fastens the overlap with her jaws. Then she makes a small, separate roll of the leaf tip, and bends it inward so as to close the end of the main roll. Then, finally, she ascends the leaf, and partly cuts through the midrib at the point where her first curve meets it. This she appears to do in order to promote the particular state of decay in the leaf which will render it fit food for the grubs. The

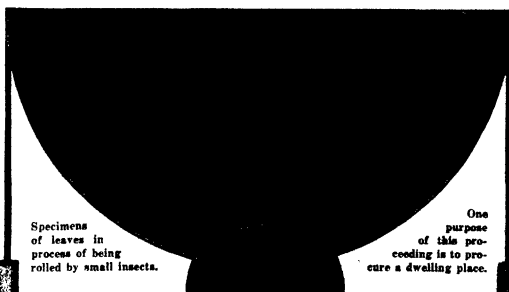
above is the briefest possible description of what this insect does—not once, but many times in the course of her adult life. If we examine her work in detail, take measurements, and consider the well-ordered sequence of her various actions, our first impulse is to exclaim: "What amazing cleverness and skill!" Yet when we trace the life-cycle of the insect, we are forced to admit that such praise is unwarranted. The eggs, which hatch in the rolled-up leaf, produce blind and legless maggots. These feed upon the decaying leaf tissue around them, and when full grown allow

somehow, now

When the leaf has become sufficiently pliable the weevil goes to its under surface, and standing close to the edge where her original cut begins, commences to roll the severed portion round an ideal axis by means of her legs. Having reached the midrib, she alters her tactics somewhat, now



Final successive stages of the leaf rolling, consisting of tightening and closing the leaf. In the second view the weevil is engaged in tying down the overlap, and in the last view she has tucked in the leaf tip, and is about to partially sever the midrib, as described in the text.



Specimens of leaves in process of being rolled by small insects.

One purpose of this proceeding is to procure a dwelling place.



The central figure is the leaf-rolling weevil (*R. betule*), much magnified. In the lower illustrations, that at the left shows the leaf-rolling weevil on the upper side of a birch leaf, which she has just finished cutting. The other three views show successive stages in the work of rolling the leaf. It will be observed that she works from the outer side of the leaf. The eggs are laid when the last stage here shown is reached.

A study in instinct.

RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

These columns are open to all patents. The notices are inserted by special arrangement with the inventors. Terms on application to the Advertising Department of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

Facilitating to Apppear.

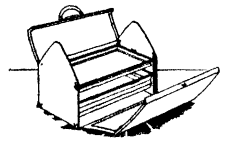
RESPIRANT CONNECTING DEVICE.—J. P. WILSON, 800 W. 8th St., Los Angeles, Cal. Re- without means provided for connecting two members or articles, such as for attaching suspender parts to trousers, or for use in or with par- ment supports, or trousers, or other articles of wear involving the folding connection of two outside or members, or the attaching of one article to another, whereby the connecting means will be under tension.

RHOE REEL.—L. F. RHOE, General De- liverer, Pomona, Cal. The inventor provides a section reel, including a pair of telescoping members having a coil spring interposed be- tween them, one of the members being adapted to engage the ground in waiting and telescope within the other against the action of the spring, said members being so formed as to prevent displacement one from the other.

HAT PATTERNS.—L. K. WATSON, 47 Cleburn Ave., New York, N. Y. This in- vention refers to hat patterns for hat struc- tures for ladies' wear, and more particularly to hats made in various designs for such pat- terns, and the invention further comprehends an improved pattern and more particularly the same as well as generally an improved method of constructing hats for such patterns.

BATHING CAP.—RICH WILLIAMS, 114 W. 34th St., New York, N. Y. The invention pro- vides a cap having ornaments attached there- to; provides a cap with ornaments impervious to water; provides a cap constructed from elas- tic material adapted to conform to the shape of the head of the wearer, and provide a decorated cap, the invention being particularly in position by being adhered to the structure without perforating the same.

DEPRESSOR VALVE.—J. C. COEN, 122 W. Bu- ilt St., Louisville, Ky. The invention relates to improvements in valves and more particu- larly to one designed more especially for use while traveling and where it is desired to have



DEPRESSOR VALVE.

a sufficient quantity of clothing and accessories conveniently and compactly arranged to render the same readily available and without the usual inconvenience experienced in the use of the ordinary style of value or handle.

MEANS FOR ATTACHING COLLARS AND OTHER NECKWEAR TO SHIRTS.—R. JOSEPH and B. DAVISON. Address the for- mer, 66 Andale Terrace, E. Orange, N. J. This invention constitutes a tangible element car- ried by the neck band of a shirt and an in- tegral element carried by the collar or neckwear for convenient attachment and removal of the collar at the back of the neck band thus pro- viding space for the free sliding of the tie, as well as avoiding the use of buttons.

BATHING CAP.—H. P. RUDOLPH, 207 Sumner Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y. This invention provides a cap which may be placed in wear- ing position and removed therefrom without disarranging the hair; provides a retaining de- vice for a cap which may be installed without adjusting the arrangement of the hair, and re- duces the cost and simplifies the construction of the cap.

Facilitating to Arise.

PROJECTILE FOR DESTROYING AIR- SHIPS.—BALLOON AND AIRSHIP. AD- VANCE—B. A. PRATERMAN, PATRIOT and M. M. COOPER. Address, Dayton, Ohio, 221 High, New York, London, W. C. England. The invention is characterized by constructing the projectile with one or more passages for air from the airship gun bag and outside air to pass along to form explosive mixture in the bag or later outer envelopes of the airship and in the projectile, by adapting the projectile for automatically igniting the explosive mixture to destroy the airship, by providing the projectile with means for forcing a blast of air into the bag of the airship, by adapting the projectile of the explosive mixture, and by adapting the projectile with means for limiting its pen- etration into the bag of the airship.

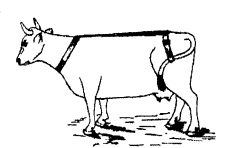
Not Intended to Pass.

BOG CAP.—W. M. LEWIS, L. B. 26, Oakridge, Va. The invention relates to a device to provide a container having cells adapted to, separately receive separately wrapped eggs; and to provide cells in which eggs may be fully protected against breakage by the or- stony shocks or pressure to which they are

subjected to transit, particularly in shipping by parcel post.

COTTON HULLER.—J. C. COMAN, 10 West- end, Cal. An object of this invention is to pro- vide a device by means of which the cotton may be thoroughly cleaned of the hulls, the force of insects, such as flies, mosquitoes, gnats, etc. It is well known that cows swish their tails continually, either to brush off insects, or from

COW TAIL HOLDER.—E. QUICK, 1718 10th St., Colo. The main object of the invention is to secure the tail of a cow that the animal may not swish its tail in an effort to rid itself of insects, such as flies, mosquitoes, gnats, etc. It is well known that cows swish their tails continually, either to brush off insects, or from

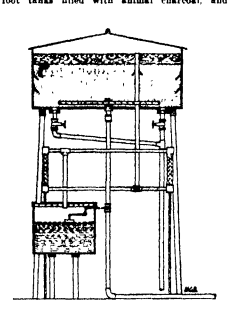


COW TAIL HOLDER.

a nervous habit, and this tends to brush for- eign matter, such as dirt, dust, and the like into the tail, and this is particularly when the tail is filled with the dirt of the yard or pasture. The invention prevents such milk contamination.

Of General Interest.

A FILTERING APPARATUS.—Dr. A. H. BARNES, Newark, Conn. The accompanying drawing shows a filter of very inexpensive con- struction and one that can be maintained at little cost. It is adapted to be located in the city instead of at the source of supply. It consists of an iron reservoir about twelve feet deep and filled with sand to about two feet from the top. Water is turned in at the bot- tom under city pressure and forces its way up through the sand until it overflows a stand- ing pipe. Thence it is led through several eight foot tanks filled with animal charcoal, and



FILTERING APPARATUS.

passes through an aerator located above a second reservoir. When this reservoir is filled the supply to the filter is automatically turned off by a float. The filter does not need to be cleaned until about eight of the ten feet of sand has become vitiated from the bottom up. Experience has shown that most of the organic matter is oxidized in the sand, so that 10 per cent of the quantity that would accumulate on the surface of an ordinary filter is to be found in this. With this system only the water for draining purposes is filtered. That which is used for watering the lawn, for instance, is not robbed of its fertilizing material. See advertisement on page 598 of this issue.

PRODUCTION OF WET CARBONIZED PEAT BRICKS.—N. TAYLOR, 6 Broad St., New London, E. Hartford, and T. ROY, Station Hotel, Dunfermline, Scotland. The inven- tion relates to the production of peat which has been heated to a temperature between 150 degrees and 200 deg. Cent. under pressure as proposed by Blunberg. The process allows of affecting a material saving in the cost of pro- duction by means of such material relatively to the cost of production according to processes previously proposed thereto.

EDUCATIONAL CHAIR.—C. E. BURCH, care of Haskell Institute, Lawrence, Kan. This in- vention relates to chairs adapted for use in the teaching of arithmetic, and more particularly the main objects thereof is to provide a device of such form as to facilitate certain funda- mental drills and to make them interesting and effective, and also, by making them competitive.

POLISHING MITE.—W. H. WARREN, care of Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pa. The in- vention provides an article with a tubular brush, affording a number of surfaces, adapted for special employment; provides a wall-like

container for said brush, foldable to facilitate personal carriage or the packing within a suit- able of trunk, and provides a device having means for carrying a toilet equipment.

PARCEL POST PROTECTOR FOR MAIL, BACKS.—HAROLD HAZELTON, 1719 10th St., Brooklyn, N. Y. The invention has reference more particularly to a protector designed to fit in a mail sack in order to reinforce the letter for the purpose of preventing injury to articles placed in the sack during the handling and shipment, and more especially as applied to parcel post transmission.

PANTHER BOX COVERS.—F. D. VAN VALKENBURGH, Delacorte Bldg., New Or- leans, La. The present invention has reference to a novel fastener for box covers, and is de- signed more particularly for use in connection with shipping cases having reversible covers, and intended to be returned to the shipper. The invention is applicable to any improved form of case.

WATCH CASE AND MOVEMENT PRO- TECTOR.—E. A. ROSS, 100 Bedford, New York. One of the principal objects of the invention is to provide a pouch or a shield formed of insu- lating material and adapted to receive a watch whereby to prevent the conduction of electrical current through the watch and to protect the watch from dust and dirt.

SANITARY MUDA CUP.—D. F. CURTIS Ad- dress The Vortex Mfg. Co., 1000 Bldg., 412 42nd Avenue, St. Chicago, Ill. This invention provides a cup for use in dispensing beverages, as, for instance, in soda fountains and like places, wherein a holder is provided for per- sonal use and a particular form of cup for use with the holder, each cup being designed to be discarded after one using.

SPRAYER.—MELVILLE McCULLY, Kelly, Pa. The invention refers to a sprayer, and more particularly to a device for spray- ing insecticides or other liquids. A spray is provided which utilizes the water pressure in



SPRAYER.

an ordinary garden hose or one of a similar nature in spraying the liquid without need- ing in the mixture of the water with the liq- uid. The accompanying drawing shows an elevated view of the sprayer partly in section.

Hardware and Tools.

DOOR LATCH.—F. E. HARRISON, Man- chester, Iowa. This invention relates to means for holding doors in closed position relative to any sliding doors such as are used on terra- ces and the like. The latch is used as a lock for the door in conjunction with a wire jaw and padlock and may operate from the out- side or from the inside of the door in its normal use.

COMPOUND TOOL.—N. E. DREW, Little Rock, Ark. This invention relates to compoun- ded tools and the object thereof is to provide a tool embodying various implements in con- junction with the setting up and repair of wire.



COMPOUND TOOL.

hence, the inventor's object in particular being to provide an improved character in combin- ing novel and improved means for such draw- ing down wire staples in such a manner as to permit of their subsequent use.

Heating and Lighting.

KILN.—N. P. HENRY, Address W. B. Gray, 1221 St. 22nd St., Louisville, Ky. This invention provides a kind of the circular sta- tionary type, for use in burning sewer pipes, tiles, conduits and other products from clay and, wherein a novel arrangement of flues, passages and supporting floors is provided, so arranged as to direct the heat effect on the ware, throughout the interior of the kiln, to insure uniform burning of the ware.

Household Utilities.

FAIR ATTACHMENT FOR ROCKING CHAIR.—W. L. KILPATRICK, 1001 10th St., New York, N. Y. The invention provides a fan attachment for rocking chairs, cradles and simi- lar articles of furniture, and is arranged to produce a continuous current of air directed toward the occupant as long as the rocking chair or similar article is rocked.

JAR COVER.—JACOB DELL, 221 St. An- thony Ave., St. Paul, Minn. This invention re- lates to a temporary cover, attachable to jars and like vessels, such as better and preserve jars, jelly glasses and the like, whereby to protect the contents of the jar from dust and flies. The cover has provision for adjusting its

size to suit jars of varying diameter, within the capacity of the cover.

Machines and Mechanical Devices.

STRAW HOLDER.—E. O. GOSNOLD, 2945 Cedar St., Everett, Wash. The particular ob- ject hereof is to provide a machine in which a supply of drinking straws may be held and au- tomatically dispensed one at a time in order to prevent contamination of many straws upon the removal of a single straw in the holders at present employed for this purpose.

TRIMMING MACHINE FOR BURLS.—M. P. ANTONIO, care of Standard Oil Co., 100 Broadway, New York, N. Y. The inventor pro- vides a new and improved machine for trim- ming burl, trimming both ends of a roll of old cloth or other material, and arranged to per- mit convenient adjustment of the knives or cutters for trimming rolls of different length.

Prime Movers and Their Accessories.

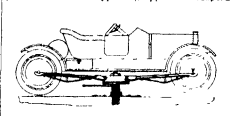
PARKING G.—McGOWAN, 311 Cuyahoga Minn. In the present part of the invention the object is the provision of a new and improved parking for use on platforms and other devices and ar- ranged to prevent backing of the auto, and to prevent the parking from one end of the cylinder to the other end thereof.

Pertaining to Recreation.

BILLIARD CUP TIP FASTENER.—L. CHARLES, 146 Bradford St., Boston, E. I. In the present part of the invention there is refer- ence to a novel means for fastening the tip to the cue, the object being the provision of means for the secure holding of the tip in the provision of its ready removal and renewal whenever de- sired.

Pertaining to Vehicles.

AUTOMOBILE JACK.—I. W. FRYMAN, Bay Shore, N. Y. This invention provides means for lifting and supporting a vehicle, and is in- vented in one operation provides means for rotating the vehicle about a self-contained center and provides a rotary supporting apparatus adapted



AT AUTOMOBILE JACK.

for removal from its service position. The en- gaging lever is given a side view of the Jack and showing in section the internal mechanism, the same being supported in lifted posi- tion thereon.

AND LIFT.—H. SPENCER, 1044 10th St., Bronx, New York, N. Y. The invention has reference more particularly to a cart arranged with a load top which top is provided with an adjustable joint supplied with a hood and means at the joint to facilitate the discharge of the ashes from the barrel and to prevent the falling of the barrel into the fire.

VARIABLE SPEED GEARING FOR MOTOR CYCLES.—A. C. BLACK, Phoenix, B. C. Canada. The invention has special re- ference to motor cycles having but one speed and means for changing the speed of the engine on hills or bad roads. The drive parts and controlling means obtain the high and low speeds or permit the engine to run free while the motor cycle is at a state of rest.

Designs.

DESIGN FOR A PLATE OR SIMILAR AR- TICLE.—L. B. C. LARSEN, care of Kehler & Hirsch, Co. St. Paul, Minn. In this in- vention the design the plate is of circular form and has a central hole. Its outer edge is a wreath within which are two concentric rings of dots and a central hole.

NOTE.—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN for ten cents each. Please state the name of the inventor, title of the invention, and date of this paper.

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A Study in Instinct

(Continued from page 591.)

Themselves a fall to the ground, where they wriggle into the soil and change to pupae. In this state they pass the winter and not until the following summer do the adult beetles emerge and creep up the birch stems. We perceive, therefore, that the weevils of any season, when first they appear, must be complete strangers to their environment, and that they possibly have witnessed the rolling-up of leaves by individuals of the preceding generation. Thus, it is plain that instinct plays no part in the subsequent procedure of the insects. The whole elaborate process of cutting and rolling, conducted with so much precision and apparent skill, must be the outcome of pure instinct.

Most of the attempts that have been made to expound the nature of instinct are founded upon one or the other of two theories. The first, often called the "theory of inherited instinct," assumes that the actions that man has performed instinctively were originally done by his ancestors, the latter faculty having since fallen into disuse. But this theory obviously demands that the habits acquired by the animals of one generation, by the exercise of their intelligence, should be handed down through succeeding generations. In our opinion, we are asked to assume that acquired characteristics are transmissible. The force of this criticism is crushing, since the great majority of biologists nowadays believe, on what appears to be ample and conclusive evidence, that such is not the case.

The second theory of instinct is more plausible. Its supporters urge that the buds of an instinctive action must be looked for in the simple reflexes that are inseparable from living protoplasm. All animals respond in definite ways to the stimuli which they encounter; and it is believed that the slight individual variations in these responses are subject to natural selection. In a word, an instinctive action must probably be regarded as a co-ordinated series of reflex acts, the first reflex in the chain being evoked by the appropriate stimulus, and thereafter serving, part by part, as the stimulus for the next. Moreover, instinctive actions, each a chain of reflexes, may themselves be linked up, as it were, to form an elaborate system of behavior such as is evinced by the leaf-rolling weevil referred to above. Obviously, a given instinct, if once established by natural selection, will be maintained in efficiency by the same agency, exactly as the colors or other physical properties of the organism are continually maintained at the level necessary to insure the perpetuity of the species. A *Rhynchites* weevil defective in instinct—to the extent, let us say, of being unable to project its curves accurately—would almost certainly fail to make adequate provision for the needs of its offspring, which would thus be doomed to perish in infancy.

The Use of Poisons Gases in Warfare

(Continued from page 595.)

cocked with chemical solutions can be employed. The present writer has had some experience of working in chemical works in atmosphere containing chlorine and sulphurous acid gases, and has found that when the air is not too heavily saturated with these gases, considerable relief in breathing can be obtained by a "gag" of linen or flannel held tightly to the mouth. The air is drawn into the lungs through this "gag" and is exhaled by the nose without losing the grip of the teeth on the "gag," and it is possible to stay in an atmosphere lightly charged with chlorine or sulphurous acid for some minutes, with the aid of this simple form of respiration.

In more heavily charged atmospheres, one requires a much thicker gag of flannel, to be of any service, and the men engaged in the manufacture of bleaching powder (hypo-chlorite of lime) wear masks of damp flannel several inches in thickness, held tightly over their mouths, in order to enable them to breathe and work in the

PAIN

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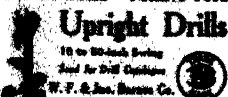
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the change in density when the chemical
is made. A form of respirator which is
capable of holding cotton-wool or cotton-
wool, soaked with chemicals, is shown in
Fig. 3. This form, it will be noticed, cov-
ers the nose and has an exit-valve for the
exhaled air. It is patented by E. Spa-
cchini of Milan, Italy, and has been sold in
England for some time. Fig. 1 shows an-
other form of respirator capable of being
used with absorbing chemicals. The
metal cover in this case is made of alumi-
num.

In cases of gassing by chlorine, the in-
halation of ammonia gas will be found to
give great relief, since it combines with the
gas that has entered the bronchial tubes
and lungs, and removes the difficulty in
breathing. The suggestion that ammonia
might be used in front of the trenches for
combating with and condensing the whole
of the noxious gases used in these attacks
by the Germans is, therefore, impracticable,
since the gas is very volatile and quickly
disperses, also if used in condensed form
in front of the trenches its effects upon
the human breathing system would be
nearly as severe as those of the chlorine
and sulphurous acid gas.

The only feasible method of meeting
these gas attacks, apart from the use of
respirators charged with absorbing chemi-
cals, such as bicarbonate of soda and simi-
lar alkaline salts, would appear to be that
of creating a counter air current, which
would either roll the gases back, or would
lift the clouds of poisonous vapor as it
drifted clear over the trenches of the
Allies. It might be possible with the aid
of the army engineers to adapt the engines
and propellers of aeroplanes for this work,
or to arrange for gasoline operated air
pumps to be stationed at certain points in
the lines most subject to these gas attacks.

These attacks, it must be noted, are only
delivered when a light breeze from the
north and northeast favors the German
design. In a strong wind the gases would
be dispersed and carried over the Allied
lines of trenches too quickly to effect much
harm. A slight counter air current ought
to suffice, therefore, to deflect the direction
of the gas cloud as it slowly drifts over
the ground between the two lines of
trenches, and even if only certain selected
portions of the allied trenches could be
kept free from the gases in this way, they
would serve to act as a rendezvous for
the men engaged in the defense.

These anti-gas fans and pumps of course
would have to be well hidden and protect-
ed from German observation, otherwise
they would soon be located and smashed
by the enemies' fire. Placed in small
"dug outs" at the rear of the first line
trenches, and close by un-
derground ducts or flexible hose-pipe, they
should, however, prove of great service in
repelling attacks of poisonous vapor.

Preventing the Corrugation of Street Car Rails

TRouble has been experienced for
many years in the corrugation of the
main rails on street car roadbeds, particu-
larly over long, straight stretches. The
car wheels wear the rails unequally so
that they become wavy and undulating on
the surface. This results in continuous
bumping of the car, and on account of the
noise given the well-known "roaring rattle."

Many experiments have been carried
out in the hope of preventing this unequal
wearing of the rails, as such prevention
would not only increase the speed and
lower the traffic noise, but would also save
millions of dollars in renewal expense for
rails, axles, and wheels. It is estimated
that a modern city would save at least
\$20,000 a year if the corrugation could be
prevented.

The most successful experiment so far
has been to install differential similar to
those used in motorcars. The wheels when
used with a differential wear down one
eighth inch less in diameter over a dis-
tance of 1,500 miles. Such a change, it is
hoped, will obviate a great deal of the
noise and will let us come partly into our
dream of noiseless locomotion and will ad-
vance us one step ahead of "our semi-
civilized trails."

FORD CAR MAINTENANCE

Results of an investigation among Ford owners.
Common problems discussed.

"To what can I trace faulty valve action?"

Answer. Due almost invariably to car-
bon deposit. Ford owners who use Gargoyle
Mobiloil "E" are remarkably free from this
trouble unless the valves are out of adjust-
ment.

"What causes power irregularities?"

Answer. Faulty carburetor adjustment
is of course a common cause. But a frequent
cause, too, is incorrect lubricating oil. The
body of Gargoyle Mobiloil "E" correctly seals
the Ford Piston clearance, conserving the
full force of the gas explosion for the turning
of the rear wheels.

"Why does my motor pre-ignite?"

Answer. In the great majority of cases, this
trouble is due to hard carbon deposit on the cylinder
heads. The carbon grows red hot from the continued
heat of explosion. It then fires the gas charge
prematurely.

Pre-ignition trouble is rare among the motorists
who use Gargoyle Mobiloil "E". Of course, no petro-
leum-base oil will burn without leaving carbon.

But the slight carbon of Gargoyle Mobiloil "E" is a light,
dry soot. It expels naturally through the engine exhaust.

"Why do my spark plugs foul?"

Answer. This trouble is caused by (1) faulty
carburetion; (2) too high an oil level; (3) incorrect
lubricating oil. If you are troubled with fouled spark
plugs first see that your oil level is correct and your
carburetor properly adjusted. Then look to your
lubricating oil.

If the body is too light it works in excess quantities
past your piston rings into the combustion chambers.
In burning it leaves carbon on the spark plugs.

If too heavy it will fail to reach all freon points.

As the body of Gargoyle Mobiloil "E" is scientifically-correct
for the Ford piston clearance, fouled spark plugs are infrequent
among Ford owners who use this oil.



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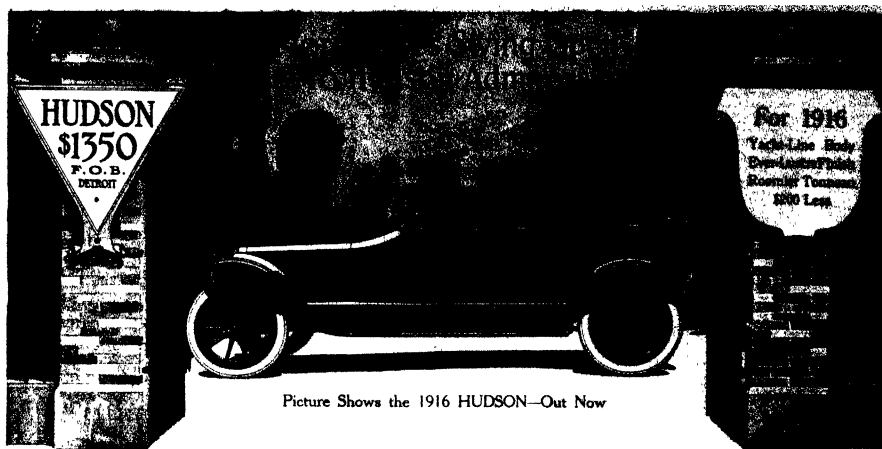
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Picture Shows the 1916 HUDSON—Out Now

More Reasons for 1916 Hudson

To all the HUDSON attractions we now add these:

**Yacht-Line Body
Ever-Lustre Finish
A Roomier Tonneau
More Luxury
A \$1350 Price**

That price means another \$200 reduction, the second in twenty months. Both have resulted from multiplied output, due to the car's popularity. Now at \$1350 we are swinging open in the widest way the gates to HUDSON class.

Some Other Things You've Wanted

We do not, and we cannot, offer you a better chassis. Nobody wants or expects it. Howard E. Coffin did his best in designing this. Our engineering corps has done its best in refining it. This final Six embodies all that seems to us desirable.

In twenty months, 15,000 men have bought this new-type HUDSON. They've applied every possible test. And not one, we believe, has ever seen, or wants to see, a better car than this.

But there are things you do want, which all cars lacked, and we've brought them out this year.

Yacht-Line Body

This is the fruition of all aims since foredoors were inserted. Then came straight lines, then streamlines, but all those lines were broken. In this Yacht-Line Body we reach perfection in graceful, sweeping lines. Even the door lines are unbroken. The body and door tops form a level line, and that line is leather-bound.

We have widened the rear seat so three big folks don't crowd it.

We have built a roomier tonneau. And the room is doubled when only five are riding. The two extra seats completely disappear.

We upholster with enameled leather this year, the costly finish of the high-priced car. Thus we bring you all the comfort, all the luxury possible to give.

For safety's sake, and for extra wear, all wheels have non-skid tires.

Finish That Stays New

And now we bring out a much-wanted innovation—our Ever-Lustre finish, exclusive to HUDSON cars. It has required an immense factory addition, equipped with ovens to hold hundreds of bodies.

Now each under-coat of finish goes on under pressure, is forced into every pore. Then each is baked on to give it wondrous hardness. The result is a finish which keeps its newness and lustre. It resists weather and washing, rubbing and mud. It combats as never before the main cause of depreciation.

A Trebled Output

But our best announcement is a trebled output. There will be over-demand for a while now, as with every new-model HUDSON. But the long waits of last year will not be repeated. And men who want HUDSONS will not be forced to take some second choice.

We are building of this new model 100 cars daily—a record fine-car output. You can get one—perhaps at once—if you see your dealer now. These new cars are now everywhere on show.

7-Passenger Phaeton or 3-Passenger Roadster, \$1350, F. O. B. Detroit
Also a new Cabriolet, \$1400, F. O. B. Detroit

Each HUDSON car brings with it the matchless HUDSON service. Ask our dealer to explain it. You will see how much it means.

HUDSON MOTOR CAR COMPANY, Detroit, Michigan

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



ITALY ON A WAR FOOTING

Vol. CXII. No. 25
June 19, 1915

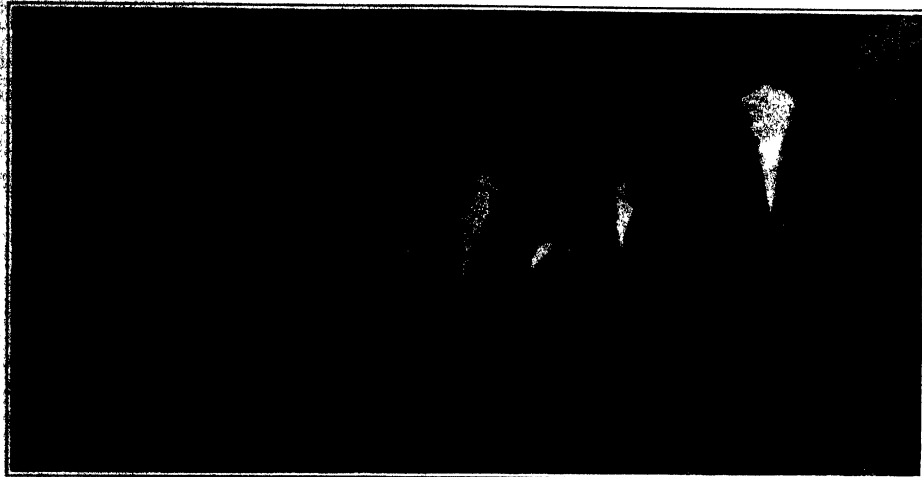
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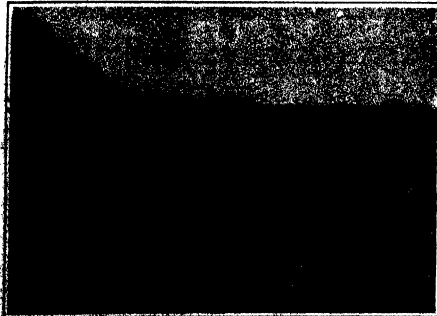


Running Railroads by Water Power

By Thomas F. Logan

In connection with the Denver & Rio Grande system, note the second photograph. It is a train of several ore heavy loaded cars here at the Santa Anaconda & Pacific Railroad at Mountain. The grade over which this train is going uphill is steeper than that on the Denver & Rio Grande, and the last several ore-car trucks are shown in the second photograph. The train is being hauled by the electric locomotive, the same one which is shown in the first photograph. West of the mountain the train is being hauled by the electric locomotive, the same one which is shown in the first photograph.

The Chicago Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad is now electrifying 450 miles of its road between Harlowton, Montana and Avery, Idaho. Its contract for power involves an annual payment of \$500,000. Remember, this is delivered power. The present cost of fuel over these 450 miles of line is \$1,750,000 per year and the railroad also pays \$100,000 a year for the use of the power. Now, 35 per cent of the railroad equipment is used in carrying that coal to its cooling stations. But this expense is not included in the above \$1,750,000. (Considering only that figure we have a prospective saving of \$1,250,000 per annum equivalent to \$2,000 per mile per annum. All of this electric power by the way is generated at water power sites which are located on private lands. It has been possible to prevent the development of these water sites under destructive laws and conservation policies. The story is different how



Recently has heavily loaded cars on the Butte, Anaconda, and Pacific Railroad
powered from a hydroelectric plant. No smoke, little waste power.

(Continued on page 616)

SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Founded 1845

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles and subjects of timely interest. If the photographs are sharp the articles short, and the facts authentic, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

The Recent Change in the Cabinet

THE recent resignation of the Secretary of State has brought to a head a movement which it is now evident had been in course of development for many months. Although the break between the President and the Secretary of State was the direct issue of a conflict of policy with reference to the "Lusitania" outrage, it is evident that the breach had been widening owing to differences of opinion with reference to the policy of State. These differences are fundamental and irreconcilable. The people of this country believe in peace and look upon war with the same horror as the Secretary of State, but they do not believe in proclaiming that there is peace when there is no peace. It may safely be stated that the infraction of the rights of American citizens and the taking of their lives wantonly and without excuse will not be tolerated.

The late Secretary of State is a gentleman of much sweetness of temper and gentleness of nature, but events have shown that he was entirely unqualified for the serious responsibilities of his important position. This was chiefly due, it seems to us, to an utter lack of appreciation of the greatness of this country and of its vast humanitarian and commercial responsibilities. It has been well known that during the two years of his office American merchants owning property in Mexico or South America, or having commercial relations with those countries have received but scant consideration in the Department of State. After interviews with the Secretary of State they have frequently come away from the Department with the feeling that, in addition to the lack of government protection, they were suffering personal disfavor because of the mere fact of their having established business enterprises in foreign countries. It is a notorious fact, and one which has brought the blush to the face of many Americans, that although during the strife which has occurred in our neighboring republics, American citizens and their lives and belongings have been subjected to outrage, the Department of State apparently did not regard those acts with the horror that their seriousness demanded. This country's future demands a different policy from the rural dispensation of the past two years. It has vast foreign interests, and its commercial relations abroad are of an intricate and delicate character. These relations must not be jeopardized by any weakness of policy of the State Department. The United States must discourage the belief that American lives can be sacrificed with impunity.

That this policy of "no protection" has been brought to an end is very evident from the recent message which has been sent to Germany protesting against the infraction of American rights.

The European war has been in progress for nearly a year, and at the very outset, the people of our land were rudely awakened to the fact that certain forces were in action which were strange and new to them, that human nature had not revealed the ideal state which the American people had supposed; that in spite of being remote from European strife and in supposed safety from European entanglements, we were likely to be dragged into complications which we could

not foresee. Efforts were made, therefore, to induce Congress to take some action—not to establish a large standing army or a great navy, but to strengthen both arms of the service so that the country could be placed in a condition at least of adequate defense. Such influences as were brought to bear, however, came to naught, and Congress adjourned without making any provision to improve the condition of the Army and its reserves. Indeed, it did so little to remedy the avowed and well-known deficiencies in the Navy, that an almost unconditional condition of affairs has followed, in which private citizens have formed themselves into associations and bodies of men, independent of the Government, to try to remedy the failure of the Government to provide for its military deficiencies. A number of influential associations have been formed whose policy is not only to educate the people in the facts regarding our military weakness (so well known abroad and in professional circles here), but also to organize young men voluntarily into groups and bodies of men, for military training. All this has been done without support or even recognition from the Government.

It was surmised before the war broke out, and has been proved during the ten months since, that our naval warfare has been greatly modified by the advent of the submarine. It became known that our own submarines were defective, that they were not sufficient in number, and that only a few were in a condition for actual service. Through some defect in one of these craft a number of our brave sailors lost their lives during a long peace duty. What sudden action has our Navy Department taken to remedy this well-recognized deficiency in this arm of the service? The recent Congress ordered the construction of several new submarines, but made no provision for the officers to man them. No provision has been made for building any battle-cruisers—an invaluable type of ship—as the war has proved.

The one thing that the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN would deplore above everything else would be that we should become entangled in the European or any other war. This would be against the spirit of our people and certainly against their interests. The lesson we have tried to teach through the columns of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN has been that of preparedness for defense and the protection of its citizens against injury and insult.

Ammunition and Finance in the Present War

A FEW months after the opening of the European war a leading general of the German army stated that the expenditure of ammunition had proved to be more than double the amount which the general staff estimated. Another statement was made before it had been demonstrated, as it has been lately on the western battle front, that the only possible way to break the apparent stalemate produced by trench warfare was to plow up the enemy's trenches by a concentration of high-explosive shell fire, the like of which had never been seen, and was certainly never contemplated by the general staff. Nevertheless, in spite of an expenditure of ammunition which today must be between two and three times as great as was estimated before the war by the Germans themselves, and in spite of the enormous battle front on which the Teutonic Allies are engaged, there are no indications that they are suffering from a scarcity of ammunition. This is to be explained by the fact that, for many years, the central powers have been laying up a huge reserve of ammunition for a conflict, the date and the extent of which had probably been determined and certainly had been invisibly provided for. Add to this the probability that, from the very commencement of the war, all the manufacturing plants which were capable of turning out munitions of war were kept working at full capacity to work at their maximum capacity, and the manifest superiority of the Teutonic Allies in the matter of ammunition supply is readily understood.

It becomes increasingly evident, as the war goes on, that the question of victory or defeat for either side will be determined on the German western battle front; and when the German western battle front is driven to the German line back upon the Rhine, the thing can be done only by blasting them out of their trenches, line beyond line, by a concentration of explosive shell and shrapnel fire so great, that even the German resources will be outmatched, not in one particular engagement or series of engagements, but day by day, week by week, and month by month, until the thing is done.

The tactics employed in this kind of warfare are fairly familiar to the general public from the published press reports. The batteries of the attack are massed along the given stretch of front to be attacked and the enemy trenches are subjected to a continuous rain of high-explosive and shrapnel shells, which literally plow the trenches out of existence, breaking down the parapets, filling up the trenches with debris, and exposing the troops to a devastating fire. When the wreckage is complete, the high-explosive shell fire gives way to a

rain of shrapnel, delivered back at the weakest trenches in such volume that it is impossible for men to advance through the hail of bullets in sufficient strength to deliver a strong counter-attack. The men of the attacking force move forward and capture the plowed-up trenches, digger themselves in and consolidating the newly-won position. This form of warfare necessitates, above all, an enormous supply of ammunition, and an output from the factories that shall be on such a scale as to enable the generals in the field to carry out the offensive without any anxiety as to their ammunition supply.

Now, ammunition, especially of the high-explosive and shrapnel shell type, is enormously expensive, and the drain upon the financial resources of the belligerents, if such a continuous attack is made and met, will be far in excess of anything that has occurred hitherto during the war. The question of ammunition supply becomes intimately associated with the question of financial resources.

In the unhappy event of our becoming embroiled with Germany, the United States, because of the enormous extent of its manufacturing resources and its vast wealth, would become the pivotal point around which the ultimate destiny of the war would revolve. Without touching a soldier or a ship, or firing a gun, the enrollment of the United States on the side of the Allies would make their ultimate triumph absolutely secure.

Up-to-Date Disinfection

THE newer disinfection—the destruction of disease germs in the homes of sufferers—has come about through knowledge gained the last half century as to how such infections as yellow fever, typhoid, malaria, measles, tuberculosis and the like are transmitted to mankind. As everybody now knows, yellow fever is transmitted only by *Stegomyia*, malaria only by *anopheles*; the body louse transmits typhus; such diseases are not "caught" by fomites (goods and fabrics that may happen to contain the germs), as was formerly supposed. Cholera and typhoid fever are not contracted through miasm; but solely by swallowing the essential germs of those diseases in food and drink thus contaminated. Diphtheria is probably not communicable through the air; but by direct contact with the sick, as in kissing; or by contact of one's nasal passages or throat with the diphtheria germs as contained in the handkerchiefs, dishes and the like used by patients. The safest place in the world as to diphtheria is the properly conducted, well-staffed ward of a diphtheria hospital. Hospital doctors, nurses, and others, careful in their ablutions, are in constant attendance the year round on diphtheria, scarlet fever and measles patients, without contracting those diseases or being in any fear of them. The safest place not to contract consumption is a well-managed tuberculosis sanatorium.

Nor are scarlet fever and measles transmitted through the "peeling" or the skin eruptions in those diseases. And measles is infectious any only during the first several days of the disease, generally before it is recognized, and from the time of the nasal discharges from the nose and throat of sufferers.

Facts of this kind have led to more rational public health measures. Certainly disinfection destroys germs or renders them innocuous; but most germs cannot in any event retain their vitality and their capacity for mischief for any length of time after leaving the patient's body. And, as a matter of fact, the best disinfectants ever invented are pure air and sunshine. A sick room well ventilated after the termination of a case; the bedding, carpets, rugs, and so on exposed to the blessed sunshine; plenty of soap and water for scrubbing up. These factors will, for most infectious diseases, be all the disinfection necessary.

Thus, in accordance with the modern conception of infection spread, the Metropolitan Board of Health, in 1913 abandoned fumigation (disinfection by gases generated from sulphur, formaldehyde and the like) after diphtheria cases; but removed the bedding to its disinfecting plant. Fumigation of the apartment was done only when the patient died and was removed to a hospital during the height of the disease, it being considered possible that in such cases fresh discharges containing living germs might be present in the sick room. Measles was similarly handled, except that the household goods were not removed for disinfection after death or recovery. In scarlet fever disinfection was done after recovery, death or removal; and the isolated bedding was disinfected. In June, 1914, however, the department continued disinfection, by reason of the practical absence of danger from patient's effects, after cases of diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, cerebrospinal meningitis and poliomyelitis. And with the beginning of the present year it was determined to discontinue fumigation altogether in all the boroughs of the Greater New York, except Brooklyn; and this in order to save resources to be made and for a demonstration that the continuance of the practice of disinfection with such a harm of any kind.

Science

The Crocker Land Expedition.—The work of this Arctic expedition is to terminate with the present season. The schooner "George B. Claghett," a vessel used by the Geographical Association in provisioning the mission stations throughout Labrador coast, has been chartered to bring the expedition home, and will leave Baffin Harbor for that purpose early in July. It is supposed that the expedition, which found Crocker Land to be non-existent, has been recently engaged in exploring and mapping the interior of Greenland.

The Importation of Foreign Birds.—According to a recent paper by Dr. T. B. Palmer, the Department of Agriculture issues about 800 permits annually for the importation of birds; the number of birds imported amounts to about half a million, and as many as 17,000 birds arrive in a single day. These include especially canaries, parrots, and game birds, but the total number of species imported is about 1,500. The department exercises great vigilance to prevent the importation of bird diseases, such as the "quail disease."

Thunder at Sea.—Baron von Humboldt was responsible for the statement that thunder is never heard on the high seas—i. e., at any great distance from land—though violent thunderstorms are often observed at sea and vessels are frequently struck by lightning. In the statement? Or, if thunder is sometimes heard, is its sound comparatively faint? These questions have been the subject of discussions from time to time at meetings of the Astronomical Society of France, and have recently been taken up anew by that society. It is suggested that the other notes prevailing on shipboard during a storm may be the reason why the thunder often passes unnoticed, but information on this subject from sailors will be welcomed by the French astronomers.

Cures for Ivy Poisoning.—The *American Botanist* publishes a letter from a Brookline, Mass., correspondent stating that fishermen along parts of the Massachusetts coast find a prompt cure for the effects of poison ivy and poison sumach in the fireweed (*Erechtia hieracifolia*). The poisoned parts are rubbed with the leaves of this plant, which must be fresh each time, bruised and crushed so that the sap moistens the skin freely. An editorial note mentions the fact that a large number of other plants have been recommended for ivy poisoning—notably touch-me-not and burdock—but that "it seems doubtful whether any of these herbs can do more than take the attention of the patient from his troubles and cure him by mental suggestion."

The Loss of the "Endeavour."—A note in the *Geographical Journal* records the probable loss of the fishery investigation vessel "Endeavour," belonging to the government of Australia, together with Mr. H. C. Dan-nivig, director of fisheries to the commonwealth government, his staff, and presumably some meteorologists and wireless operators from the Macquarie Island. The vessel had proceeded to this island in order to relieve the staff of the meteorological station, which was established by Mawson's Antarctic expedition and subsequently taken over by the Australian government. She left Macquarie December 3d on her return voyage, and has not since been heard of, in spite of a thorough search for her by government steamers. The "Endeavour" was built in 1908 for fishery research in the open ocean on the lines of the Michael Sars, and had done considerable valuable work of this character.

The Singular of "Sastrug."—No one can read any considerable amount of current literature relating to polar exploration without metaphorically stubbing his toe over one of those rugged ridges of snow which are known collectively as "sastrug." This exotic term has become fully naturalized in the English scientific vocabulary, yet strange to say it is rarely met with except in the plural, and when an author undertakes to singularize it the result is apt to be singular in more senses than one. Thus Capt. Scott in his diaries mentions "sastruga," and this extremely Latin word is defined in the glossary appended to "Scott's Last Expedition." The dictionaries are much at sea on the subject. The new Standard, for instance, gives two forms of the singular, "sastruga" and "sastrug," and does not mention the plural at all, though, as we have stated, the plural "sastrugs" is the form commonly met with in English. The history of this word is traced by C. F. Talman in a recent number of the *Monthly Weather Review*. The word is Russian, and the original form is "sastrug," which means literally a rough splinter or shaving due to planing wood against the grain, but has also a number of derived meanings. The more or less permanent snow ridges characteristic of the northern Siberian plains, where they show the direction of the prevailing winds and hence indicate to travelers the points of the compass, are called "sastrug," and this word, altered to "sastrug" in accordance with German rules of transliteration, was made familiar to the world at large through the writings of Baron von Wrangel. It came to English notice in 1844. Olafsen this form of the word, and was requested to make the singular "sastrug," though the Russian is "sastruga."

Aeronautics

The Navy Gets More Hydroplanes.—Two new hydroplanes were recently delivered to the Navy Department, three others are now under construction, and three further machines are to be contracted for this summer.

Lary Tongs Run for Parachute.—In a patent No. 17,805, Anton, Officer of the United States near Laidlaw, Australia-Hinger, shows a parachute whose rim is formed by a lary tongs with springs at the joints of the tongs for automatically expanding the same and the rim of the parachute when the latter is released from a container adapted to hold it when in a collapsed condition.

Noted Aviator Killed.—A report has been received that Albert Morison, the noted French aviator had been killed by his machine falling near Melun. Morison has been very prominent in aeronautical matters for some years, and was the inventor of a safety device, with which he won a prize in 1913 by flying his self-righting aeroplane without touching the control levers.

Aeroplane to Locate Seals.—The past sailing season in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which closed May 1, was a failure owing to the difficulty of finding and reaching the herds in the unusually heavy ice, and entailed a loss of about \$250,000 upon the owners of vessels. Next year it is proposed to engage two aviators to visit the east coast and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, respectively, just before the opening of the season and locate the herds. If successful, this plan will save a large amount of time now lost by sealers in searching for their prey, and should add correspondingly to the profits.

A Dirigible for the Navy.—It is announced that the Navy Department has ordered a dirigible aircraft from a Connecticut company, which is to be delivered within four months, and will cost \$45,000. This craft will be 175 feet long, 35 feet in height and will accommodate eight men. The speed will be 25 miles an hour. This craft cannot be seriously regarded as a fighting machine, but is probably intended merely for practice purposes and for training operators for possible future craft. The battle cruiser North Carolina, which has become superannuated, is to be remodelled to serve as an aviation ship, and will be sent to Pensacola, which is to be made a station and school for training aviators. As soon as it is finished the new airship will be sent to the same place and a floating hangar is to be provided to shelter it.

A New German Biplane.—Just before the hostilities the Otto Company, of Munich, which had been building machines of the engine-behind type, brought out a new tractor, which is believed to be now in use by the army. It generally follows standard lines, with a rectangular body, topped with a turtle back. The upper plane has a slight overhang, and both planes have a dead-end taper toward the tips, the leading edges sloping backward. The lower planes are attached to the body, and the upper to a center section carried on a steel tube structure. Two pairs of steel struts connect the upper and lower wings on each side. The tail plane consists of a semi-circular stabilizing plane, to which is hinged the divided elevator, and of a partly balanced rudder, hinged to the stern-post of the body. The engine is a 150 horse-power Rapp.

Big Foreign Orders.—Many numbers of big orders from foreign governments for aeroplanes and motors are circulating through the daily press, the value of the material contracted for being estimated at \$16,000,000. The latest report is that two orders, each for 1,000 aeroplane engines, are going a-begging because every manufacturer already has more orders for complete machines than he can handle. Speaking of these orders it is said that machines of the pusher type are preferred abroad, but our builders are not prepared to turn out this kind, having had no experience with them, however, it was a question of taking what they could get, so the foreign orders were placed for the tractor machine that prevail in this country. There is apparently difficulty in procuring engines of sufficiently great power, as the foreign buyers demand motors of from 130 to 160 horse-power, and these are not being produced in any considerable numbers as yet.

A Fund for Aero Defense.—In view of the extremely backward condition of aeronautics in the United States, both number of machines and qualified operators, the Aero Club of America proposes a national subscription, similar to those organized in France and Germany in 1912-1913 with a view to training aviators, procuring aeroplanes for the National Guard, Naval Militia and the Post Office Department, and to do whatever else appears necessary and possible to create an efficient aeronautical reserve, which at this time would seem most practical. It is pointed out that not only have we practically no aeroplanes, but that out of the 150 licensed aviators in the United States, probably not over half a dozen have made flights of over 50 miles across country, and none possess any knowledge of military requirements. The National Competition, commencing in July, which has already been noted, is hoped to stimulate interest and assist this movement. Contributions to the fund can be sent to the Aero Club of America, 297 Madison Avenue, New York.

Inventions

Another Dedicated Patent.—Robert M. Chapin of Washington, D. C., has dedicated to the public patent No. 1,137,844 for a process of preparing a concentrated animal dip from arsenous oxide especially designed for dipping or spraying of cattle or other animals with a view to ridding them of Texas fever ticks or other deleterious parasitic insects.

A Two-faced Doll.—Practically two dolls in one is supplied by Patent No. 1,138,412 to Mary E. Radick of White Plains, New York, who makes the doll head with two diametrically opposite faces, the expressions of the faces being different and the hair being so connected with the head that it can be moved to cover either face and expose the other.

Foldable Sewing Machine.—Sarah E. Ayers of Columbia, S. C., has secured patent No. 1,136,321, which discloses a cabinet with a compartment into which the needle-operating mechanism may be folded, also a folding table to support such mechanism for use and a drive mechanism which in use may underlie the table and when not in use will be hinged between the folding table and the cabinet.

Locking the Milk Bottle to the Door.—Louis Levitt and Isador Bendinman of New York city, provide in a patent No. 1,139,780 means for closing and clamping a milk bottle neck and a chain connected with the clasp and engaging under a door so that when the bottle is once secured it cannot be released until the door is opened. Something like this is needed when the milkman is ordered to leave milk at the door.

The Only Universal Standardization.—C. Francis Jenkins whose inventive activities in moving picture matters as well as in many other important fields of invention are well known, in a recent address in Washington city stated that the motion picture ribbon is the only unit that is standard in every country and that while railway gauges for example vary in different countries, and units of value, volume, length and weight differ, the motion picture film is the same the world over.

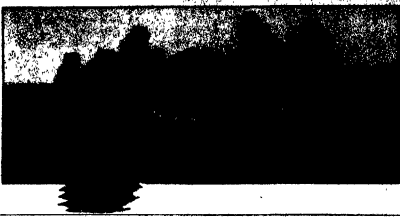
A Gaisman Safety Razor Improvement.—Henry J. Gaisman of New York city, who sprung into prominence some months ago as the inventor of the autographic kodak, bought by the Eastman Company for a large price, in a patent No. 1,139,115, presents a safety razor in which the flat blade which can be flexed in curved condition is used with a guard for its edge separate from the holder, with the blade and guard relatively adjustable, with means for holding the guard in graduated positions for purposes of shaving.

Moth Proof Bags.—In the spring season the packing of woolen garments demands attention. Moth proof bags are a convenience and the expense of the bags if used once and discarded suggests the possibility of devising a bag whose open end can be securely sealed by pushing in such a manner that when once open provision will be made for its repacking succeeding seasons. Essentially the bag should embody means for suspending the garment within it, and for hanging the bag and contents from a supporting hook.

Speaking Moving Picture Improvement.—In patent No. 1,137,000 Orlando E. Kellum of Los Angeles, Calif., connects the moving picture camera and the sound recorder by wires so they operate synchronously and places the telephone transmitter on the person of the actor, electric connections being provided between the transmitter and recorder and suitable contacts being provided, including stationary contacts and contacts on the person of the actor and adapted to engage the stationary ones when the actor is in the field of view of the camera.

Edison Colored Moving Pictures.—Thomas A. Edison in a patent No. 1,138,369 presents a method of producing the illusion of scenes in color in moving pictures. An image of all the elements of a scene of one fundamental color in that color is momentarily projected on the screen and thereafter successively projecting images which are superposed upon or registered with the first image on the retina of the beholder of those elements of the scene of different fundamental colors in their proper colors respectively. The successive projections are at such a rate that in accordance with persistence of vision, the preceding images will still be seen by the beholder until after the last image of the series has been projected upon the screen.

Developing Effect of a Patent System.—An American born son of an intelligent foreigner recently commented on the deadweight of his father's native land and attributed its failure to progress and take a prominent part in the world's affairs to its lack of a patent system. He asserted, and correctly, that no nation in recent time has made any substantial progress that did not foster invention by a reasonable patent system which would encourage invention and so develop the country's resources along lines of mechanical progress. If invention develops a nation, it likewise develops the individual, benefiting him not only indirectly by the pecuniary returns but directly in the personal broadening resulting from his inventive effort.

Placing mine to blow up chain of wrecked steamer
"Hesperus"Loading mine cases to destroy
a derelict.Blowing up a derelict with gas-driven
mines.

Hunting for Derelict Ships

The Difficult Work of Clearing the Seas

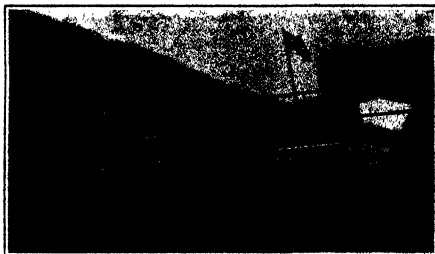
OF the numerous duties allotted to the United States Coast Guard cutter, one of the most interesting is that connected with the search for the derelict vessels left in the path of commerce by the periodic gales which sweep over the western ocean, and the salvage or destruction of these dangerous wanderers of the sea. The great majority of abandoned and drifting hulks come from the fleet of lumber-laden sailing ships plying our coastal waters or voyaging from southern ports to continental Europe. These craft, stripped of spars and sails by storms, or waterlogged and unmanageable from leaking sides, float with decks awash, often bottom up, prevented from sinking by their cargoes, and usually surrounded by attached floating wreckage which renders their approach in small boats difficult, and the placing of a working party on board extremely hazardous except under the most favorable conditions of wind and sea.

Bids upon the ocean, their dimensions shrink to invisibility upon the ocean charts by which the searching cutter tracks them; drifted from their reported positions by unrecorded winds and currents, low in the water and hidden by the passing waves, they enter the class of elusive objects not far behind the submarine boat of modern warfare. However, there is a well-organized campaign conducted against them, shared by all mariners and actively furthered by our Government. Here, as in so many other fields of maritime operation, radio-telegraphy plays an important part, and without it the chances of success in finding an object at sea are reduced to a minimum. Each of the hundreds of merchant steamers crowding and recrossing the ocean is a self-constituted observer and lookout for the discovery of these menaces to safety, and their positions when sighted are quickly and accurately flashed to the coastal stations, thus eliminating from the problem half of that destructive element, time, which formerly claimed its full allowance in delaying the start on the search, and by so much making it difficult or fruitless.

There are several approved methods of laying out the courses of the searching vessel once the vicinity of the reported position of the abandoned craft is reached. Allowance for its probable drift is computed for the time elapsed since the report of its position was sent out, and upon the correct results of this computation success or failure of the search largely depends. Human ingenuity must ever be on the alert in its predictions regarding those ever-changing elements, the winds and ocean currents, and their varying effects upon each other from day to day. The drift of a waterlogged vessel off our Atlantic coast may reach as high as seventy or eighty miles in a day of twenty-four hours, and it is within the range from this figure down to zero that the computations must be made. When it is considered that with the most prompt action a delay of two or three days may ensue before the vessel sent out on the search can reach the reported locality and that she then must take up a system of devious courses while her quarry drifts

merely on in a more or less direct course, some idea of the nature of the task can be formed.

When the reported position is reached the cutter may be set to describing upon the ocean waste one of several accepted geometrical figures. These comprise some



Revenue cutter "Miami" running before a gale on April 14th, 1914.

Note high sea on starboard quarter.

form of spiral, or related parallelograms or triangles. Adjacent lines are maintained a distance apart not exceeding twice the estimated distance of visibility of the object sought, and this naturally varies from time to time with the condition of the atmosphere. The men in charge must decide, under penalty of increasing the steering distance unnecessarily if their assumption is too small, or of missing the object finally if too great. For if it once be passed, the rule of search is such that there is little likelihood of the steamer's returning to the vicinity.

The search must necessarily be suspended at night-fall, but the steamer is kept as nearly as may be in the same position during the night, or if forced to steam

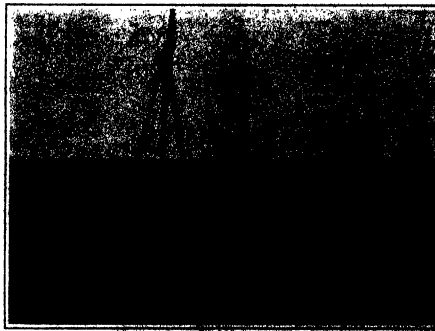
aboard by heavy sea conditions, she is retained at daylight to the point where the search left off. Current set at this stage of the operations is not so important, inasmuch as it is likely that the steamer and the vessel sought for are under similar influences of drift. Granting that all the conditions have been exactly predicted and allowances rightly made, there comes the welcome moment when some sharp-eyed observer on deck or at the masthead announces the sighting of the wanderer. A distinct change in the mental atmosphere on board the steamer is at once apparent, as the methodical operations of a perhaps long and weary search give way to the active preparations for dealing with the stranger. If there is any possibility of towing the outlaw into port, the first effort will be made in that direction. This plan has the added value of saving property, which is, of course, the first thought of an organization created for the purpose. But, the average derelict does not lend itself readily to the restraint of a towline, nor does it follow with good will in the wake of the towing steamer, but drags along now on one quarter, now on the other, occasionally coming up as far as abeam in a startling exhibition of sovereignty. For this reason, made to destroy the unwelcome intruder, and this is now generally done by the use of a standard gunboat wrecking mine.

Destroying a waterlogged hulk is, however, not always an easy operation. If the cargo is general merchandise or coal a single charge of explosive would quickly send it to the bottom; but when the hulk is tightly packed with lumber, which is itself buoyant, no ordinary hole in the vessel's hull will have any effect, and it may be necessary to blow the hull into pieces, using many heavy mines, in order to disintegrate and disperse this troublesome cargo. Then again, a ship may have gone down in some comparatively shallow passage with her masts standing, and possibly not showing above the surface. In this case it often requires considerable labor and ingenuity to blow out these obstructions and make navigation safe. In one of the illustrations a diver will be sent down to work on the hull.

Clearing Obstructions from Harbors

A GUNBOAT stationed off harbor can be a menace down when there are no other vessels. These obstructions are very hard and are not easily removed. The gunboat is sent down to the bottom and the diver is sent down to work on the hull.

The gunboat is sent down to the bottom and the diver is sent down to work on the hull. The gunboat is sent down to the bottom and the diver is sent down to work on the hull.



Derelict schooner "Warning Adams" of Philadelphia.

Carpe Southern Place. Found by cutter "Hesperus" and towed into Newport Harbor.

Photographing Speech

Some Recent Investigations by Dr. Marage

By Jacques Boyer

Dr. Marage is now to make his old adage "words are pictures." Thanks to his accurate devices, words will not by today of themselves any more; he has now succeeded in photographing the vibrations that constitute them.

For some time the doctor has directed his attention to the Pollak-Virag phonographic apparatus, which he mastered very skillfully, and to understand its functions we must first study the present work of Dr. Marage.

The Pollak-Virag telegraph (Fig. 1) is the most rapid of the known systems, for it can transmit 40,000 to 50,000 words per hour, while the Baudot sends 4,000 and the Morse only 400 in the same time. Before sending the signal which composes the dispatch a preliminary manipulation is necessary. By means of a special machine for writing (Fig. 2) holes are made in a narrow strip of paper, the different perforations of which correspond to the different letters of the alphabet. (In the transmitting key the perforated paper unrolls and, according to the dimension and position of the perfora-

tions, a mechanism, allows the passage of currents more or less prolonged at longer or shorter intervals. At the other end of the line there is a registering apparatus (Fig. 3), consisting of a mirror upon which a ray of light falls. Under the influence of the current sent by the transmitter the mirror is displaced by a horizontal-vertical movement and the beam of light makes an impression of various sorts on a sensitized paper which unrolls.

In order to avoid the secondary photographic operation the paper which has received the impression passes in unrolling into a first developing bath, then into a fixing solution. It is only necessary to read the message, as easy to decipher as a printed page, as the facsimile given above.

Now that we know the principle of the Pollak-Virag telegraph, let us study some details of each of its parts.

The perforating machine, completely independent of the telegraphic system, makes in the strip of paper, which is moved by a guiding device operated by an electromagnet, holes of unequal size, whose series corre-

spond to the text of the telegram. A letter in ordinary hand-writing includes really vertical and horizontal lines. Let us analyze, for example, the most simple letter of the alphabet, *l*. It is composed of a long vertical line, of a short vertical line which makes the curve, of a horizontal line joining them at the top, and a horizontal line at the bottom. In perforating the letter *l* will be represented by a large and a small hole, which will throw a strong current, then a weak one, into a telephone tracing vertical lines and then by two small holes which will send two weak currents into the telephone inscribing the horizontal lines. In view of the succession and overlapping of the current one upon the other, the angles are rounded off.

To each letter of the alphabet correspond definitely 2, 3, 4—up to 10 different sized holes. Once the hand is perforated the telegrapher inserts it into the transmitting apparatus. There an ordinary electric installation puts in motion the guiding device while by means of the connecting plug (*la pousse d'un intercepteur*) the telegrapher puts the receiving station into the cir-

Fig. 1—

The Pollak-Virag Telegraph, which has a speed of between 40,000 and 50,000 words an hour, while the Baudot sends 4,000 and the Morse only 400 in the same time.

Fig. 2—

The registering apparatus consists of a mirror upon which a ray of light falls. The mirror is electrically displaced and the beam of light from the mirror writes on a piece of sensitized paper.

Fig. 4—

Trailing piece of tape.

Fig. 5—

Irregular sinusoidalities of tones.

Fig. 6—Making a record of the human voice.

cult. In the last place the writing of the message works in the following way: Light from a point of the filament of an incandescent lamp passes through an aperture in a screen and falls upon a strip of photographic paper, reflected by a little mirror whose back face of iron rods upon three magnifying points.

The diaphragms of two receiving telephones being put in motion by the electric currents of the transmitting telephone, communicate to the mirror by means of two little stems (rigs), slight displacements at right angles to each other.

As a result of the rotation of the drum and the repeated movements of the luminous points from left to right on the sensitive paper, as well as of the advance of the latter, inclined lines are written on the photographic band as long as the mirror remains still. But when this mirror moves under the action of the vibrating diaphragms the luminous ray writes letters following these inclined lines. A window furnished with a glass plate, one to follow the displacements of the incandescent point, which appears as a sort of writing flame.

When the dispatch is entirely transmitted a knife cuts the strip, which has now only to pass through the photographic bath.

Mr. Dollak has overcome many difficulties to make this last part of his telegraph easily usable. In the first place, the duration of the exposure is very short. In other words, the time during which the luminous point is moving upon a surface equivalent to its own size does not exceed 3/1,000 of a second. In the second place, the photographic processes must go very rapidly, for the accumulation of sensitive paper in the developing and fixing tanks would be a difficulty, which would rob the system of most of its advantages. The inventor has succeeded in this delicate undertaking. He has invented a device which effects the development in five to six seconds, the fixing in six to seven seconds, and furnishes the messages ready to be delivered to their destinations. In truth, the surface of the gelatine comes out slightly damp, but by blotting paper it can be dried immediately, so that telegrams do not need any further manipulation before being given to the messengers. Besides this, the machine develops and fixes bands of small size as well as strips 25 meters long and 0.7 meter wide, containing about 10,000 words.

Thus, the Pollak-Virag telegraph shows great advance over its predecessors. Unfortunately, there is some shadow over the future of this system. Indeed, iron and ordinary cables could not be employed when great distances are involved. Such wires do not permit the passage of interrupted currents at the required frequency of 300 to 400 interruptions per second. The wires ought to be of bronze. However, in spite of this transformation of material, the Pollak-Virag device retains the economic advantage, for with two wires the permit the sending of as many words as a Hughes telegraph employing twenty wires; their substitution for the other systems will have to come in the future, without taking into consideration that with them half as many employees are sufficient to transmit the same amount as with the Hughes system.

Finally, these ingenious mechanisms devised by Mr. Pollak and his friend Virag have permitted Mr. Marage to photograph speech. The diagram and the photograph (Fig. 6) make it possible for us to understand the arrangements which he employs. The novelty introduced by the eminent French investigator consists in the suppression of the manipulator. He replaces it by a microphone put in communication with one of the two receiving telephones, the one which gives vertical oscillations. The telephone then transmits the vibrations of the words to the movable mirror and the luminous ray photographs itself on the paper. Each line of the inscription obtained corresponds to a quarter of a second.

Thus, one has all the elements necessary for appreciating the qualities of a voice. In fact, to know the duration of each letter is sufficient to count the number of lines inscribed in the vibrations. If there are three lines the tone lasted three-fourths of a second, if there are four lines the tone has been emitted four-fourths of a second, that is to say, one second for each line lasts one quarter of a second.

On the other hand, the regularity or irregularity of the vibrations affects the homogeneity or non-homogeneity of the sound.

At last, to appreciate the precision the number of vibrations corresponding to each of those is calculated. For that the number of vibrations traced upon a line is counted and multiplied by four, which gives the number of vibrations per second. As for the time elapsing between two consecutive tones the measure of the straight line separating each of them, and showing that there was no vibration in the interval, gives it immediately.

If a singer sings a note without interruption between the tone and if he possesses a voice of good quality, a regular trace will be obtained (Fig. 4), while if the vocal cords are badly used or tired, irregular sinuosities will appear upon the paper (Fig. 5).

We have submitted Mr. Boyer's account of Dr. Marage's experiments to Dr. Floyd S. Buckley, a well-known throat specialist and authority on the human voice. Dr. Buckley comments as follows: Oral speech is composed of vowel and consonant sounds. Vowel sounds are musical tones, that is, the vibrations or air waves follow one another at regular intervals. On the other hand, the consonant sounds are largely noise, the vibrations occurring at irregular intervals. It is thus clear that there must be marked differences in the composition of three two classes of sound. It is also a well-known fact that the various vowels and consonants differ from one another as to the elements of which they are composed. For example, it is the difference in the number and the relative intensities of the partial tones which enable us to distinguish one vowel sound from another. The ability to conceive ideas by means of vocal sound depends absolutely upon these fundamental differences of speech.

A photograph to be of any value must differentiate the various elements impressed upon the sensitive plate. A photograph of the face should enable us to distinguish the mouth from the nose, eye, chin, ear, etc.; otherwise it is of no value. In a similar manner a photograph of speech should enable us to distinguish the vowels from the consonants and the various vowel and consonant sounds from each other. A critical study of the two attached photographs of speech by Dr. Marage discloses no such differentiation.

For example, we have the same regularity of vibrations for the vowels "a," "e," "i," "o," "u," and "y." Some of the consonants show an increase in the intensity of the sound (indicated by the increase in the amplitude of the waves, especially the "p" and the "t"), but this is not necessarily a characteristic of consonant sounds. "k," "d," "g," "m," and "n" have absolutely nothing in the photograph to distinguish them from the vowels. The "v" sound is in "vowel," "d," "t," "g," "m," "n," "o," "u," "y," "e," and "i" in "Pierrot" apparently have exactly the same composition, viz., a fundamental and one overtone. The vowel "a" in "lute" and "i" in "amie" evidently consist only of a fundamental tone. Our study, therefore, shows that there is nothing in the photographs considered without the accompanying text—which would enable us to translate these facts into speech. It therefore is not a speech photograph.

The apparatus used by Prof. Hellock and myself in studying the voice, and described a few months ago in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, disclosed the presence of from four to eight partial tones in the carrying vocal sounds, each vowel having its own particular combination of partial tones. In one photograph the amplitude of the vibrations is greater than in the other. This simply shows greater intensity of the tone. That in which greater amplitude is manifest cannot show any degrees of the throat, as claimed by Dr. Conté, since the same tone and intensity of tone could be obtained by a perfectly healthy throat. It can, therefore, be of no service in diagnosing diseased conditions of the vocal mechanism.

Prof. Dayton C. Miller of Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, O., obtained some time ago by his extremely sensitive phonodisc photographs of spoken words as well as tones sung under varying conditions, and his photographs are, I judge, even more tell-tale than Dr. Marage's, for the sensibility of his apparatus seems greater. But although Prof. Miller has analyzed less than thousands of complex sound curves, he finds the greatest difficulty in analyzing these curves of a nature similar to those here given by Dr. Marage. So that it seems a little optimistic to conclude by these photographs will give to the amateur in mathematical analysis a simple means of determining the necessary corrections in speech and singing voice. There is no doubt that they are illuminating in a general way to anyone who has made a study of the optical analysis of sounds, but I doubt they can be made of very general and accurate use by the laity.

Up to the present Dr. Marage has not codified the rules which will permit by simple inspection of a vocal photograph to tell the words or the tones which it represents. He has not yet completely deciphered those hieroglyphics of a new type, but without doubt his device which discloses the least imperfections of speech will help teachers of singing and diction in their often arduous task. Thanks to original combinations of the Alvarus expert in acoustics, the Monnet-Bully or the Alvarus will easily correct the faults of their pupils, and certain Parisian practitioners—for example, Madame Dr. Conté—already employ it to study the voice of their patients.

The Current Supplement

A MOST interesting and timely article in the current issue of the *Scientific American* (September, No. 2000, for June 19th, 1915), is that which describes the shrapnel belt, of which so much is said in the newspapers, but of which the public has little definite information. This article gives a thorough and practical description and explanation of every part, with excellent illustrations. It is most valuable and readable, and will be followed by other articles describing the various processes of manufacture. The Chemical Industries of Germany cover most exhaustively an important economic subject that affects the daily range of industries and a multitude of people in many countries. For many years there have been people who have felt that some means might be devised by which all human senses could be pleasantly affected, or gratified, at the same time; and it has been generally accepted that music is the art that lends itself best as a foundation for such a plan. Naturally, the first impulse is to combine the sense of sight with that of sound, and efforts to give a color interpretation of music, along with the audible rendering, have been made on several occasions. The discussion in the article on "The Art of Middle Color" will be found an exceptionally able discussion of the theories and principles involved. The Science of Cyber is an interesting discussion of the general subject of the cryptogram, and is illustrated with explanations of several systems and methods of deciphering them. In the Earth Considered as a Hot Engine we have a scholarly contribution to the geological history of the world. Another interesting article tells about some of the mechanism employed in moving picture machines and scientifically describes an unusually ingenious improvement recently made. The use of rubber has become so universal and extensive that the question of supplies is becoming serious. In view of this, the article on the Artificial Production of Caoutchouc is one of commercial and scientific importance. The interesting article on Electrometallurgy is concluded, and there are other articles treating of color sensitive plates, star clusters, and other worth-while matter.

Remarkable Oil Fields in Texas

THE new oil field recently opened up near Throckm, in Williamson County, Texas, with such a remarkable production, is unlike any oil field in the United States according to a report just issued by Dr. J. A. Udden, geologist of the Bureau of Economic Geology and Technology of the University of Texas, after an extensive investigation.

The peculiarity of this field is the fact that the oil is held in an igneous rock found in the lower portion of clay known as Taylor marl. This igneous rock was probably poured out as a basaltic lava by a submarine volcano in the sea of an earlier age. It was buried under the heavy sediments in this sea and has since changed from a partly glassy black basalt to an impure serpentine which is green. This alteration was doubtless caused by partial decomposition of the basalt by trap rock. While this change was in progress oil probably filtered into the rock, coming from the surrounding marl and clay, which still contain many remains of once living animals, mostly of microscopic size.

From the outcroppings on the surface of this basalt it is surmised that the oil belt extends many miles to the south, then turning west, which belief is supported by the fact that oil has been located in great pools at various points along this belt.

A Metal Famine in Germany

THE London *Daily Telegraph* reports that the *Berliner Lokal-Anzeiger* appeals to the people for contributions of metal to the local mint. Silver is urgently needed owing to the failure of the Austrian supply and even lead is apparently at a premium. The public is urged to hand in plate, medals, silver ornaments, bottle-stoppers, and even lead soldiers. An office has been established in Berlin for receiving such contributions. The metal thus received is sent to the State foundry at Freiberg, Saxony, where it is cast into ingots and added to the mint treasury. Appeals have been made to the pupils of many schools to sacrifice their lead soldiers for this purpose, a fact which clearly points to the serious dearth of lead in Germany. The only metal not required is scrap iron.

Cann-hauling at Cansuwan.—A 30-ton net pot now in use was recently erected by the Government at Cansuwan establishment for unloading corn from vessels and delivering it direct into the mill. The elevator is of the balanced girder type and the grain is delivered from the head through a telescope shoot into a hopper on the quay edge, thence to an underground band conveyor which takes it direct into the mill, where it is distributed by a number of elevator shafts, and is stored in the silos of the mill as required. Such plans are of great interest to the Russian people for transferring them to their own use.

The Strategic Moves of the War

By Our Military Expert

FOR another week, despite the entrance of Italy into the great European conflict, the eastern theater of war has been the storm center. The avalanche of Teuton that has been sweeping over Galicia, crushing and grinding or driving ahead of it the stubborn Russian defense, appears to have gained, rather than lost, momentum in its advance. No barrier, whether river, field trench or permanent fortification, has been strong enough to do more than give it a temporary check. The larger part of the spoils Russia secured by many months of hard and persistent fighting, at the cost of hundreds of thousands of lives, has been wrested from her by the Germans in the short period of one month. A great fortified city that withstood a Russian siege for nearly seven months before falling was recaptured in as many days. Considering the magnitude of the forces engaged, the annals of war probably furnish no more brilliant campaign than this German drive through Galicia.

At the beginning of May the Russians were in possession of the Carpathian passes—the doorways into Hungary—and her further advance over the southern plains appeared to be comparatively easy. Her position at that time is shown on the accompanying map by the dotted line. The portion of this position along the Carpathian Mountain ran nearly east and west, while the portion to the north ran nearly north and south. This right angle bend in the line gave German leadership the best opportunity it has had so far to demonstrate whether it is worthy of the faith placed in it. A better place than Cracow, with its splendid railroad facilities, would be hard to find at which to concentrate the enormous force that was to make the drive. It was near to and directly in front of that part of the Russian north and south line which invited attack. Running to the east and connecting Cracow with Przemyśl were ample railroads for supplying the driving force during its advance. To the north was the Vistula River, affording a large measure of protection for the left flank of the advancing Germans. And, finally, the drive involved no great risk. If it succeeded the results would be decisive. If it failed, the German strategic situation would be none the worse for the effort. The chances were greatly in favor of success. No great was the opportunity that it scarcely could have been improved had the Germans deliberately led the Russians into the trap.

The advance began about May 3rd. By June 3rd, Gen. von Mackensen, with the assistance of his Austrian allies, had fought his way for 125 miles eastward of Cracow to the full line marked on the accompanying map. The Russians opposed him most stubbornly, but unsuccessfully on three successive strong but unequal lines formed by the Dniester, Wisłoka and San Rivers. The last of these positions was greatly strengthened by the fortress of Przemyśl, but this also was captured, not by slow siege operations, but by impetuous assaults extending over some days, which recall the spectacular taking of Antwerp earlier in the war. In the meantime, the extreme eastern wing of the Russian army in Bukovina was gaining victories against the Austrians on the Pruth and Dniester, in an effort to relieve the pressure on the Russian line in the Carpathians and farther to the north. But the Germans did not permit this to divert them from their main purpose, and the Russian east wing finally became involved in the general defeat and retreated north and east. A united and victorious German and Austrian army is now advancing on Lemberg from west and south.

Why this terrible disaster to the Allies? Aside from the faulty Russian alignment, it would appear that the Russians lost the initiative by the period of inaction that followed their successes up to the taking of the Carpathian passes. Not until the war is over will we know the Russian plan for the conquest of the Austrians, but a very probable conjecture is that the activity of the Russian east wing was the first move in a general advance which was to be taken up in succession by the center in the Carpathians and the right wing farther north. For a brief period there was some doubt as to whether would hold the initiative—the Russian drive in Bukovina at the extreme east of the line or the German drive in Galicia at the extreme west of the line. The more favorable strategic direction of the German drive was the main factor in leaving the initiative with the Germans.

But by must seek farther for the real reasons for the German victory, and some of the more important of these antedate the war and had their origin in the

conference room of the great German General Staff and the council chamber of the German War Lord. The developments of time and the magnitude of the war have given it characteristics quite new in warfare. The German imagination appears to have grown these, if not perfectly, at least better than that of the Allies. The Allies admit that ammunition shortage was one of the powerful causes of the Russian defeat, and it might be added that an abundance of ammunition for the German guns contributed largely to their victory. German foresight, organization, and enterprise have been sufficient to provide necessary ammunition without the assistance of the outside world so extensively drawn on by the Allies. The German also appears to have realized better than the other contending powers the important part heavy artillery would play in field operations and was prepared for this innovation. To deliver ammunition to the front in sufficient quantity to replace the enormous expenditure of the modern battlefield is a task no less difficult than that of making the ammunition in the first place, and is not possible without an elaborate system of railways, perfectly operated. Truly, this is a war of wits as well as of muscles.

So far the Italian invasion of Austrian territory has furnished us with nothing spectacular. This, certainly, is not due to lack of preparation by Italy, for she had ample time during the diplomatic negotiations preceding her entry into the war in which to complete all her arrangements for striking swiftly. Nor does it appear to be due to inactivity of the Italian army nor any

entrances. To haul the supplies for a modern army over wagon roads for more than a few miles from a railroad terminus, even when the roads are good and plentiful, is a task of such magnitude as to make the boldest commander hesitate. The further the army advances the more difficult it will be to forward food, ammunition and reinforcements, and when fighting begins the task is increased by the necessity of sending the wounded to the rear. In the passes and within the perimeter of the fortifications that must be relieved and large caliber guns must be supplied in huge numbers for this task. This means that vast quantities of bulky ammunition will make further demands on the transportation facilities which may well overtax the capacity of the available roads.

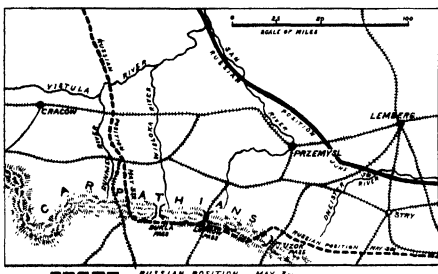
A reverse in such a region may easily become a disaster. A retreating army must pass through the same dangers by which it entered. At the critical time when it is most necessary to concentrate to check a victorious enemy, it may have to separate to save itself. The knowledge that escape from this region is possible only by way of a few narrow passes which may be barred might make an army fight with the courage of desperation, but it may easily have the contrary effect. The dangers of the situation will affect all ranks from commander down. The Russians in the Carpathians were in just such a situation a few weeks ago when the German drive from Cracow began to succeed and threatened to close the Carpathian passes behind them, while they were being attacked in front by the Austrian army. To save themselves they beat a hasty retreat along the parts of their army, became a rout.

Even with a united army, fighting through these rugged mountains would be a slow and costly procedure. All the modern weapons of warfare must be used here the same as on the gently undulating lowlands. The cavalry cannot be dispensed with, yet it will be next to impossible to support it. Artillery, from the numerous field guns to the fewer but ponderous siege guns, is indispensable, though the guns may be advanced but a mile or so each day. Tangled conditions which will win decisive victories are next to impossible in the face of an active enemy. It probably will be sledgehammer work, one day after another, success being merely the capture of one mountain fastness only to find the enemy removed to another nearby.

Italy's plan of campaign cannot be determined with certainty from news had up to now. She appears to be advancing in two directions: to the north toward the Tyrol on a front fifty to one hundred miles wide and to the east toward Trieste on a more narrow front. Whether or not she intends to advance in strength in both of these widely divergent directions may not be clear to the American reader for some weeks. To do so would mean either much greater strength on the part of Italy than Austria can bring against her, or a determination to take great chances. Certainly she has not yet been opposed by an considerable Austrian force and probably will not be until Austrian territory is in more serious danger than at the present time.

The contending armies in the west have indulged in another week of whipsawing back and forth, with the advantages on the side of the Allies. This wearing down process, if continued long enough in the Alps and penetrated by the Germans, might in time so reduce the defensive power of the German entrenched lines as to permit the Allies to break through and turn the Germans out of a considerable part of their long line, particularly in the north. More probably the Germans will take good care to strengthen their defenses and deliver counterattacks in time to offset in a measure the advantages gained by Joffre's nibbling policy on the western front.

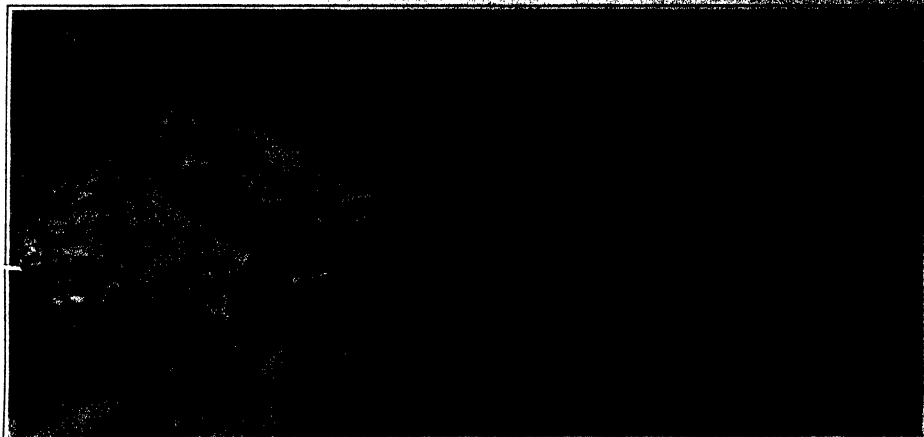
At the time this is written the German armies are in no great danger at any point and are having matters pretty much their own way in Russia and Galicia. With Russia short of men and other resources, which has not yet recovered from the disorganization of its recent disastrous defeats, the Teutons' best opportunity for some time yet appears to be to strike Russia a still more crushing blow, while holding their other opponents at bay with the smallest possible forces necessary for that purpose. At other times in this war the Russian army has shown wonderful recuperative powers, and the immediate hope of the Allies lies in her ability to do this again.



Driving the Russians out of Galicia.

serious opposition of the Austrian forces on the Italian frontier. Nature is the great ally of the Austrians in this theater of war and the Italians have encountered more opposition from her forces than from Austrian bullets. The Italian frontier was fixed by Austria to suit her own military ends. From Switzerland to the Adriatic Sea it follows the southern or Italian slopes of the numerous chains of the Alps. For many miles (in some places as much as three hundred) back of the frontier line on the Austrian side, one mountain chain succeeds another in a confused mass of precipitous heights and narrow valleys, with few good wagon roads and fewer railroads. Strategically, this frontier is greatly to Italy's disadvantage. It can be crossed only at the mountain passes which can be defended with comparatively weak force. Between the passes are wide stretches of country, practically impossible to troops operating in large numbers. In short, Italy is confronted with all the difficulties, strategical and tactical, incidental to mountain warfare. The portions of her army advancing through the various passes cannot co-operate with certainty and are in great danger of being beaten off in succession from the passes on the part of the neighborhood forces. In one of Napoleon's early campaigns in this same region he defeated a superior Austrian army when it was divided into two parts not in supporting distance of each other, by attacking each of the parts in succession. The Tyrol is thrust like a dart for a hundred miles or more into northern Italy, and Italian columns advancing through the passes on the edge of this dart must meet on hostile soil before they can work together as a team. This will be a difficult and hazardous operation in the face of a centrally located Austrian force, which can strike the Italian columns one after the other.

The problem of supplying the advancing Italian columns will be most difficult. Not all of the passes have railroads through them or even near to their Italian



Photograph by Paul Thompson.

Mountain artillery carried on the back.

THE Italian army is based upon a system of universal conscription, its military service being governed by a law passed in 1875. Under this law every man accepted for service served nine years in the Active Army and the Reserve, and for five years in the Mobile Militia, after which followed a period of nineteen years of service in the Territorial Militia. In 1907 to 1908 extensive modifications were made, and at the present time all able-bodied citizens are liable to nine years of service in the Active Army and Reserve (which includes two or three years with the colors), four years in the Mobile Militia, and six years in the Territorial Militia.

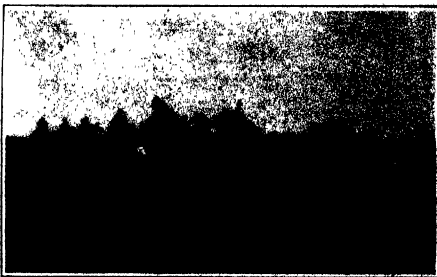
In the year 1901 the war strength of the Italian Army was estimated as follows: Officers, 30,718; Active Army and Reserve, 734,401; Mobile Militia, 329,107; and Territorial Militia, 2,275,031, making a total of 3,339,257 men of all classes. It was estimated, however, that when the re-organization of 1907 to 1908 had taken full effect, which it has done by this time, the Active Army and the Mobile Militia would be increased by about 33 per cent above the figures given for 1901. Hence, at the present time, the field army, including officers, should amount to a little over 1,000,000 men.

The army consists of 14 corps with 20 Alpine battalions, 38 Mobile Militia companies in the second line, and with 26 Alpine battalions in the third line. Behind these are 51 mountain batteries, 6 battalions of carabinieri, and 23 battalions of custom guards, with militia formations back of them.

There are four armies in the field, each consisting of two to four army corps and one cavalry division. An army corps consists of two regular divisions, totaling 25,000 men, with 104 guns and 18 machine guns, or two regular divisions and an extra Mobile Militia division, in which case an army consists of 37,000 men, with 134 guns and 26 machine guns.

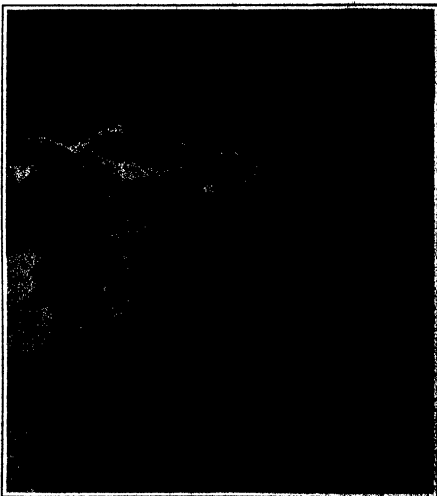
The geography of Italy, considered from the strategic standpoint, makes it necessary that the greater part of the army be stationed permanently within the reach of the northwestern and northwestern frontiers, and the principal headquarters are Alessandria, Milan, Genoa, Verona, Bologna, Ancona, Florence, Rome, Naples, and Palermo. The Alpine battalions above referred to, with the mountain batteries, are, naturally, stationed on the Alpine frontier.

The infantry is armed with the Mannlicher-Carcano magazine rifle, using a ver-



Photograph by International News Service.

Italian cavalry is famous for its horsemanship.



Photograph by Paul Thompson.

Transporting mountain artillery.

tical box containing six cartridges. The weight of the rifle without bayonet is 8 pounds 6½ ounces. Its caliber is 0.280 of an inch. The maximum effective range is 1,187 yards. It fires a round-nosed bullet weighing 103 grains with a velocity of 2,306 feet per second, and up to a maximum range of 750 yards the entire space under the trajectory is a danger space for infantry. This is a considerably larger space than that of any other European rifle, that for the English, French, and Belgian rifle being 640 yards, for the Russian rifle 630 yards, the German 610 yards, and of the Austrian 600 yards. It will be seen that the Italian rifle is characterized by small diameter and light weight of bullet, high velocity, and long danger space.

In 1900 the field and horse artillery of the Italian army was in process of rearmament with a Krupp quick-fire; but this gun has been replaced by the celebrated Deport 75-millimeter gun, with some Italian improvements incorporated which they claim have rendered this famous piece even superior to that now in use by the French on the western battle line. The siege guns are of 8-centimeter, 12-centimeter and 15-centimeter caliber, and the howitzers are of 13, 21, and 30 centimeters, the last named being a new gun which has recently undergone tests at Genoa and is said to have shown most excellent results.

The new Italian army has yet to win its spurs under the severe ordeal of modern European fighting. A considerable number of first-line troops are veterans of the recent war against Turkey, but the bulk of the army has yet to receive the baptism of fire. So far as can be judged from press reports, Italy with its four armies of invasion, operating against Trent and Trieste, has been everywhere successful; but the crucial test will come when the Austro-German armies are encountered in full force.

There is reason to believe that the average quality of the Italian army is equal to that of any of the armies engaged in the present struggle. The Alpine troops have long been reckoned among the finest of the mountainous soldiers of Europe. Recently well known for their valorous deeds during the Italian-Turkish war, they were again shown as the Italian army's most reliable troops in the Italian-Turkish war, and in the recent war against Austria. They were the first to enter the Italian-Turkish war, and in the recent war against Austria they were the first to enter the Italian-Turkish war, and in the recent war against Austria they were the first to enter the Italian-Turkish war.

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There are at this time something like 50,000 powerful motor vehicles in the armies battling for the mastery in Europe. Of these vehicles, considering the continued replacements and augmentations from the warring countries and from America, not less than 40,000 will be in a shape requiring them could be considered as such. In the United States; for in Europe, motor truck manufacturers, dealers, and users will find themselves confronted by a situation which, in its very nature, is absolutely unprecedented. The problems due to arise shortly, as a direct result of the great war, in the field of motor traction, will prove the most perplexing and difficult that any industry has been called upon to face since industries existed.

Italy has this in her favor, that from the very start she will have the advantage of all the vehicles, tanks, which have been built during the last months of the present war—tanks as to the relative value of the day machine-gun fire, which and high explosive shell attack, and the selection of permanent fortifications by heavy modern howitzers and other means. It is probable that the Italian army has never been so efficient, well trained and thoroughly equipped as at the present time. During the next few months it will be determined whether Italy is to maintain or lose or enhance



Copyright by International News Service

Italian field artillery in transit.



Copyright by International News Service

Taking cover behind a bank of snow.



Machine gun drill in the mountains.

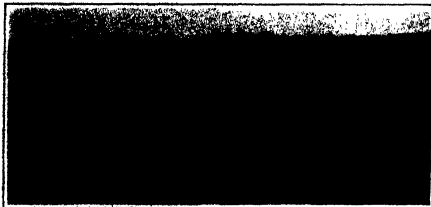
ber position as a first-class military power.

Another Motor Truck Problem

IN the issue of May 1st, the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN called attention to several tendencies in the motor truck industry, which might be considered as indicating the arrival, or at least the dawn, of a new epoch in this important industry. The speech, of course, only be considered as such. In the United States; for in Europe, motor truck manufacturers, dealers, and users will find themselves confronted by a situation which, in its very nature, is absolutely unprecedented. The problems due to arise shortly, as a direct result of the great war, in the field of motor traction, will prove the most perplexing and difficult that any industry has been called upon to face since industries existed.

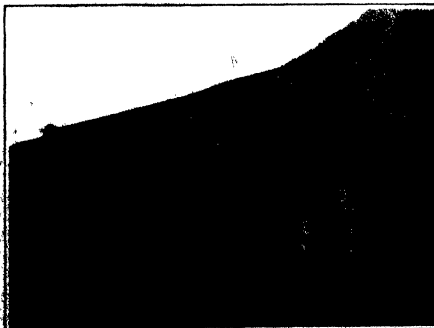
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Photograph by Machine News Service

The Italian 75-centimeter field gun.



Copyright by International News Service

Cyclist detachment of the famous Bersaglieri.

the 25,000-odd motor trucks manufactured since the war started, and used for the needs of the armies? To return the trucks to their former owners, against a reasonable compensation, would perhaps be possible in the case of those commandeered, but could not be done with trucks made especially for the army. It certainly could not be done with the 10,000 trucks purchased in the first nine months of the war from the United States. These trucks, overhauled as far as possible by military workmen, will undoubtedly be thrown onto the general truck market.

The total sale of commercial vehicles in Great Britain and France, together, in the course of a year barely reaches 10,000 trucks. If more than twice that number of capable tested motor trucks are suddenly released to be sold at the best price they will bring, one can imagine the chaos which will arise. Neither Great Britain, nor France, nor Russia—and probably not even Germany—would think of retaining all the thousands of trucks used as provision and ammunition carriers. They

must be sold! And in the disposal of these vehicles in such an enormous number, compared with the total number in active work before the war, lies a menace to the European motor truck makers, which even at this time is causing the gravest apprehensions. There is a big motor trucks exported from the United States—when the war ends!

Electromagnets for Experimental Work

MUCH time is often consumed in making electromagnets for experiments. It often happens that a large attractive power is not needed, and in this case it is an easy matter to make up an electromagnet, especially if there is a good current supply at hand so that the magnet need not have a great number of turns. Take a good sized galvanised or other soft iron wire (about one eighth or three sixteenth inch) as a core. Were it bent as a horseshoe, it would be very hard to wind, but all that is needed is to insulate each end with paper and then wrap on rather fine wire without the use of a spool. After winding bend the whole so as to make the usual U-shape. Although small, such a magnet has power enough for many usual purposes.

Metalized Cartridge Shells

BY the Schott process, as has been described quite fully in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, metal may be sprayed upon an object to form a thin plating or coating. This process is now being used in the manufacture of cartridges for rifles. Instead of using a solid metallic shell, paper cartons are employed, and these are covered with the thin layer of metal. Aside from the saving in copper or brass, the cartridge itself is lighter, so that a soldier can carry more of them than the old type.

A Novel Dissolving Picture-projecting Apparatus

By Robert G. Skerrett

UNTIL very recently the trick of showing dissolving views by means of a stereoscope was pretty much a matter of sleight-of-hand. The operator in charge of the machine had to shift the slides manually, and the success of the effect blazed entirely upon his cunning of manipulation. In this age of mechanical wonders a procedure of this sort seemed exceedingly antiquated—at least that is the way the situation impressed Mr. Alfred Vischer, Jr., an undergraduate of Stevens Institute.

Being of an inventive turn of mind, this young man set about planning an automatic apparatus for shifting the slides and operating the shutters of a stereoscope. When far enough along, he laid his design before an established manufacturer of picture-projecting machines, but the latter declared the scheme impracticable. Coming from doggedly Dutch ancestry, Mr. Vischer decided to build an experimental outfit, and from that first endeavor has evolved his autoprojector, a commercial apparatus now generously endorsed particularly by advertisers.

The inventor's first aim was to produce a machine for the lecture platform, but the immediate field of picture advertising made the stronger appeal. His outfit for the lecture platform is fundamentally like that for publicity work, except that the lecturer controls the period of exposure for each plate and, by merely pressing a button, can make the apparatus show again the picture immediately preceding the one at the time on the screen. This feature is a valuable one, and the confusion so often encountered where the slides are operated by hand is entirely eliminated.

Primarily, the machine consists of two flanking racks holding slides in pivoted aluminum frames which alternate in the order of display. Or, in other words, the odd numbers are on one side and the even numbers on the other. In turn, the slides are swung in a vertical plane across the face of the projector, each set of slides having its own lens, and as the shutter of the view already shown is closing, the diaphragm for the new picture is opening. In this fashion the dissolving effect is obtained gradually and smoothly and with perfect regularity. The slides cannot be dropped and the mechanical movement is so slow that there is not the slightest jar or vibration. The carriages containing the aluminum holders advance much after the manner of a typewriter carriage, and this progression is effected by gearing.

In the case of the lecture apparatus, the action is started by the pressing of a button and the picture remains upon the screen until the button is again pressed for the next slide or, as we have already said, for the reproduction of the previous picture; then another button in the same hand bulb is pressed. The disappearing of one view and the coming of another gives the dissolving effect. With the advertising machine, however, the period of display is uniform for all the slides, and they are shown continuously in any desired order so long as the apparatus is working. The actuating current is subject to automatic control, which can be set to stop the machine at any hour. This is particularly desirable where advertising is carried on after closing hours for the shops or other places of business where the apparatus is placed in the windows.

The autoprojector for advertising can handle any number of slides from ten to seventy-four, and the carriage feeds slides when advancing and retracting. By suitably alternating the holders to be brought into play, a circular succession, as it were, of the slides can be maintained continuously, thus insuring that the views shall follow in their logical or designed sequence. This is important, especially when the aim is to arrest the attention of the passerby and to show him the climactic points in the story to be told graphically.

Mr. Vischer calls his outfit "movies for the advertiser," and his aim is to eliminate the successive stages of the ordinary movies, which he terms lost motion, and to show those striking moments toward which the mind instinctively

leaps. The operative cost is very modest, the maximum—depending upon current cost—would be about 8 cents an hour. The machine functions quietly, weighs complete about 75 pounds, and is compact. The autoprojector, when resting upon its stand, is something like 6 feet high, and calls for a floor space of less than 2 feet square. A 25-inch picture is thrown upon the

screen and two sliding vanes, one on each side, are raised to reveal the picture. The windows with square, the lower curtains and the side compartments, one for the lens, 10 by 12 inches; another contains a two-watt lamp. The lamp house is electrically lighted. In fact, there are so many comforts of home that one can take an outing trip without any of the "roughing it" that one has to bear about in connection with such a trip.

Harvesting Grain by Motor Power

YEARS ago, when the establishment of the grain raiser of the West grew from a modest farm of a few hundred acres to the immense ranch where it took an entire day to run a single furrow around a field, it became evident that the old-fashioned hand methods of plowing, reaping and threshing were entirely inadequate, not only because of the cost, but more especially because it was impossible to find enough men to do the work. This condition was met by the reaping machine, which later became a header, and was also combined with a threshor, thus evolving a harvesting outfit of great capacity.

These combinations were heavy to haul and also required considerable power for the various mechanical operations, and with increased demands for service the simple reaper requiring two horses grew to a huge machine drawn by thirty powerful animals; and here the limit in size and efficiency practicable with this kind

of power appeared to have been reached. The steam engine appears not to have been so desirable as a substitute for horse power, and even when the internal combustion motor became practical its use was confined to the operation of the mechanism but not the propulsion of the machine. All of this has now been changed by the improvements that have been made in heavy traction devices, and the latest harvesting apparatus is the complicated machine shown in the illustration that does everything but grind the grain which it gathers.

Harvesting that is almost automatic is now possible by means of a self-propelled combined harvester which has reached the commercial stage. Since the early eighties, when a header and a threshor were combined to make the horse-drawn harvester, three other machines have been incorporated, viz., a reclaimer, a gasoline engine, and a "catapult" track, which propels the outfit forward.

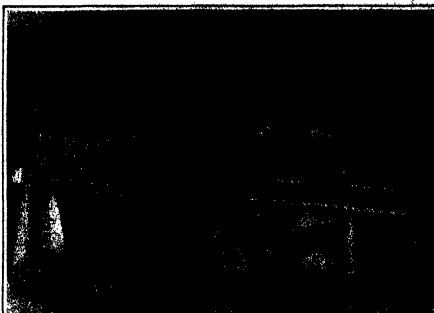
The header cuts a short section of the straw are cut by the header knife falling upon the draper, an endless canvas belt which elevates them to the feeder. Back of the feeder, a rapidly revolving threshing cylinder knocks the grain out of the heads. Involving beaters, disks, and endless straw carriers continue the separation, finally throwing the straw out at the rear of the machine, either in large bundles or a continuous windrow. The grain is elevated to the cleaner, thence delivered into sacks, which are still sewed by hand, and dumped six in a place on the ground. Unthreshed heads go back to the feeder for a second trip through the cylinder.

The separator is kept level on steep hillsides by a swinging frame which permits one wheel to be dropped and the other raised, the header meanwhile conforming to the slope of the hill, sometimes over 45 per cent. The gasoline motor was first added to horse harvesters to maintain a steady motion for threshing, regardless of the forward progress of the outfit, and to reduce the animal power required. In the self-propelled harvester it, of course, furnishes power, not only for the cutting and threshing, as before, but also for propulsion.

Four men operate the self-propelled outfit, one driving the engine, another the header, a third the separator, and a fourth mowing sacks. They put as much wheat into the sack as they wish as six hundred men working with pitchforks and bolls, with a considerable advantage in cleanliness of operation and speed.

The type of the motor was gasoline steel track for propelling aluminum from sixteen to twenty-six horses.

Combines have been common on the Pacific coast for thirty years, but the self-propelled machine is a comparatively novelty within the last two.



The inner mechanism of the autoprojector, showing the lantern slides and holders, the gateways for the carriages, and the double lenses.

screen, and the illumination is sufficient to make daytime projection vivid.

A Home on Two Wheels

A LARGE tent house that can be folded up into small compass and trailed behind an automobile on a two-wheeled trailer has been devised by a Los Angeles



A harvester in Kief, Russia.

An internal combustion engine supplies power, and the machine, propelled by a catapult tractor, cuts, threshes and sacks the grain.

inventor. Although it takes a commodious camp house with complete equipment for cooking and sleeping, yet every detail is so scientifically arranged that a very portable load is made of the parts within a few minutes after striking camp.

The trailer contains a tent, chairs, stove, ice-box, a table set complete, numerous cooking utensils, etc. The sleeping accommodations consist of one full-sized bed



Camping outfit for motorists adapted to be carried in a trailer.

Removing a Statue from the Course of a Subway

THE new subway running across New York through Fifty-ninth Street passes under the site of the Sherman monument in Central Park Plaza. The weight of this statue and base was over three hundred tons, and it was found necessary to move the statue, as the rock formation above the roof of the subway was not strong enough to support the load.

The moving of this massive piece of sculpture a distance of 205 feet was effected without the aid of steam, electric or horse power, but merely by hand labor. The preliminary operations consisted in the removal of the granite steps surrounding it and the raking out of the mortar in all joints of the pedestal to a depth of at least an inch, in order to prevent spalling, that might be caused by excessive stresses, in the stones during the moving.

Upon completion of this work the foundation was cut out below one end of the granite pedestal, enough to permit the placing of a transverse needle, consisting of a pair of 12-inch I-beams bolted together. These needles were supported on jacks at each end and were brought to a bearing under the pedestal. An adjoining section of the foundation was then removed and a second pair of I-beams inserted and jacked up, and this operation repeated until six pairs of I-beams had been set. The monument was then raised, by means of the jacks, to a height sufficient to permit the placing of skids and rollers.

The skids upon which the monument was moved consisted of two sets of three 15-inch I-beams each, bolted together, placed longitudinally under each side of the monument. Over these, two 16-inch I-beams, bolted together, were placed longitudinally along each side to support the ends of the needle beams. Twelve 5/4-inch steel rollers were then placed between the upper longitudinal beams and skids. The skids were then wedged up and brought to a bearing and the jacks removed.

Two differential pulleys anchored some distance ahead were used to move the monument on the rollers. Two men to each pulley, operated the windlasses on which chains revolved. In this manner the monument was moved to its temporary position over a concrete foundation which had previously been placed for its support.

Two pairs of 15-inch I-beams were then placed lengthwise along each side of the monument above the transverse pairs of I-beams; and the latter hung from these by means of 3-inch I-beams placed above the longitudinal and below the transverse I-beams and connected by 1-inch bolts.

The load was then transferred to jacks placed under the upper pairs of longitudinal I-beams, and the lower sets of longitudinal I-beams and the skids on which the monument was moved were removed. The monument was then lowered, by means of the jacks, to the required grade. Supporting piles of granite were then built under the monument and the load transferred to the piles by means of wedges. The jacks and needle beams were then removed and the granite steps replaced.

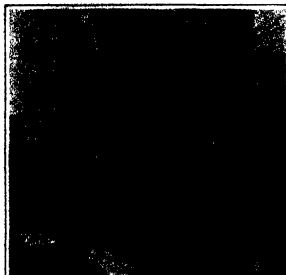
Swat the Fly Eggs

"SWAT the fly" is a good war cry; but it is like looking the stable after the horse is stolen. There is a better one—"Swat the eggs." Probably every magazine and newspaper in the United States printed last season from one to a score of arrangements of the common house fly—the disease-breeder, the typhoid fly, the infantile paralysis fly; in a word, the twentieth century pest, an enemy of mankind. "Swat the fly" has become the slogan of the day.

For every fly killed in May there will be ten thousand less in June, a million less in July, and by September the most ambitious boy, eager to earn the prize for the greatest number of flies killed, couldn't possibly lift the progeny of this single fly which escaped him in the springtime. All very true, but where will all these flies lay their eggs and rear their precious



The monument jacked up on the new site while the skids were being removed.



Moving the monument on rollers.



Laying the skids on which the monument was moved.

babies? Can we find the nests, can we destroy them by wholesale, the larvae or the eggs? We can, easily and cheaply, and every city with ordinary regulations may become a flyless town. Flies breed in filth, principally manure, and the ordinary pile of stable manure will bring forth enough flies to keep five hundred families fighting the pests from morning till night. If one

tenth of the money invested in fly screens were spent on killing fly eggs laid in manure piles and carriage cans there would be no need of the fly screens which keep out the flies and incidentally a large proportion of the cooling breezes of summer.

Our Government has carried on an extensive experiment with manure piles and the eggs which each female fly deposits therein by the thousand, and has found the remedy. It is ordinary borax, one of the commonest and cheapest of minerals, produced in abundance in the United States, and it takes very little to make the fly egg quite worthless as a future fly. Borax costs about five cents a pound, and the crude borax mineral, calcumite, considerably less, while three fifths of a pound sprinkled through 10 cubic feet—about eight bushels—of manure will kill 99 per cent of the eggs and maggots of the fly.

A long series of experiments looking to the destruction of fly eggs and fly larvae in manure piles has been carried on under the direction of Dr. L. O. Howard, the entomologist of the Department of Agriculture, the manure being treated in boxes or cages, the collection of these resembling a group of huge beehives. The manure, well infested with fly eggs, was treated with borax, kerosene, potassium cyanide, formaldehyde, copper sulphate, Paris green and ten or a dozen other chemicals, but none gave satisfactory results except the borax. Strangely enough, the Latham Canal Commission larvicide, consisting of carbolic acid, soda, caustic soda and water, which kills mosquito larvae in less than half an hour, had but slight effect upon fly larvae.

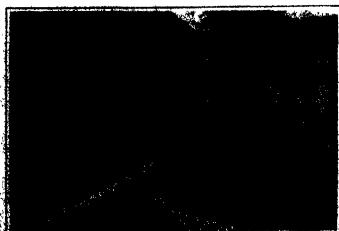
An important consideration in the borax treatment is its effect on the manure. Some of the chemicals tested rendered the manure dangerous as a fertilizer, making it more harmful than beneficial to plant growth, but borax not only makes the manure possibly more beneficial as a fertilizer, but prevents burning or fire-fanging, a natural process with ordinary manure piles which considerably reduces the fertilizing effect.

The borax treatment is simplicity itself. Dr. Howard's advice is to apply 6 to 10 pounds of borax to every eight bushels of manure immediately upon its removal from the barn, sifting the borax around the outer edges of the pile with a common flour sifter and then sprinkle a large watering pot full of water over it. The flies lay their eggs on the fresh manure and the borax when it comes in contact with the eggs prevents their hatching. The few eggs which do hatch into maggots will soon or later encounter the borax, too, and die. The treatment should be repeated with each addition of fresh manure, since the eggs hatch out in one day, but remain in the manure as maggots for several days more. When the manure is kept in closed boxes or pits less frequent applications will suffice. Refuse and garbage should be treated in the same way. The cost of manure treatment is figured at one cent per horse per day.

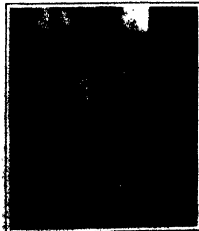
The borax treatment is so simple, so effective, and so inexpensive and so small a burden on the individual, that any community can enact and easily enforce regulations which will leave the fly without a breeding place, hence there will be no flies to swat.

Feeding the New-born Infant

IN the light of some experiments on the energy requirements of new-born infants, studied in a respiration incubator, it is claimed by H. C. Bailey and J. R. Murlin that the breast secretion should be supplemented with artificial food during the first three days of life, as until the fourth day it is inadequate to supply the energy required by the infant. The respiratory quotient of the infant whose feed is not thus supplemented shows a condition of starvation, with the combustion of fat, on the second and third days. Hence it is stated that "feeding the new-born infants for the first three days, in addition to the breast secretion, a formula of about the same composition as colostrum would appear to be a logical proceeding, not only to fulfill the energy requirement, but also to supply the water lost."



Effluvia of this breed in this small manure pile. A few pounds of borax would destroy this fly nursery.



Cage used in the chemical treatment of manure.



Manure piles used in tests of fly larva destruction. 1. Treated with dry borax. 2. Borax solution. 3. Not treated.

Inventions New and Interesting

Simple Patent Law : Patent Office News : Notes on Trademarks

A Remarkable Intermittent Mechanism for Motion Picture Projectors

By W. B. Morton

IN the production of motion pictures advantage is taken of the characteristic of the eye known as the persistence of vision. There is no actual motion of the rays of light forming the picture on the screen at all. Indeed, it may be said that to obtain perfect motion in the picture the film must be held perfectly still.

The motion picture film consists of a series of successively taken photographs of such small size that on a reel of standard length there are approximately 16,000 pictures, each differing from its predecessor by so small a difference that it is difficult to measure and quite impossible to observe by mere comparison.

By the operation of the motion picture machine the film strip is fed intermittently across the path of light of the arc lamp in such manner that each picture is brought to rest in the focal plane of the projecting lens, while the light from the lamp is cut off from the screen by the shutter of the machine and is maintained at rest for a definite period in which the shutter, usually a continuously rotating blade, uncovers the lens, makes its revolution, and again intercepts the light during the interval in which the film is advanced to bring the next picture into place.

The smoothness and exactness of operation of the intermittent gearing which drives the film feed directly determines the quality of the projection, as the "definition" of the picture depends chiefly on the exactness with which each picture is registered with the position of the preceding picture. An inequality of less than 1/10,000 of an inch in the engaging parts of the intermittent gearing can be distinguished in the appearance of the picture on the screen.

Not only must the intermittent be absolutely exact, but the experience of the first inventors in this field demonstrated the desirability of having the period of illumination as long as possible and the period of movement of the film as brief as can be obtained within the limits imposed by the fragile nature of the film and the speed of operation.

Prior to the invention by Mr. Nicholas Power of the recently patented intermittent gear forming the subject of this article, the greatest relative period of rest was three times the duration of the period of motion obtained with the well-known 4-slot Geneva gear (Fig. 1).

The next Geneva gear in ratio of rest to movement is the 5-slot Geneva gear. This gear, shown in Fig. 2, gives a period of rest four times as long as the period of motion, the total movement of the film taking place in one fifth of the time of complete revolution of the driving member. Hence, as pictures are exhibited sixteen to the second, the entire period of movement for each picture must be completed in 1/80 of a second.

Experience demonstrated that neither the film nor the machine would stand up with this movement, and as there is no Geneva between the 4-slot and 5-slot, it was believed that with the 4-slot movement the final development had been reached and for a number of years prior to the production of the Power movement it was the intermittent movement of all commercial machines.

Mr. Power's first idea in developing the new intermittent was not so much to improve the Geneva gear as a type, but to produce a gear which would have a ratio between the two Geneva gears, and thereby obtain a greater period of rest of the film than the 4-slot Geneva without the destructive action of the 5-slot gear. The final result, however, of his study and experiment far exceeded his expectations, for in his latest model he has produced a gearing which has a longer period of rest than the 5-slot Geneva, and which nevertheless actually produces less wear on the film and less vibration of the machine than the 4-slot Geneva.

This form of gearing is shown in Figs. 3 and 4, and comprises a rotating driving member having a locking ring or flange extending throughout the greater portion of its circumference with a diamond-shaped driving cam in the gap intermediate the ends of the locking ring. The driven member known to the trade as the "pin cross," comprises a arm cross, each arm being provided with a pin to be engaged by the driving cam and locking ring. Each part is formed from a single block of drop forged steel to insure durability and reduce wear to a minimum.

The operation of the gear is shown graphically in

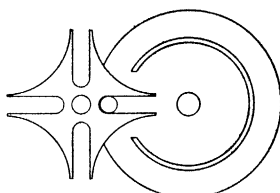


Fig. 1.—The standard four-slot Geneva movement of motion picture projectors.

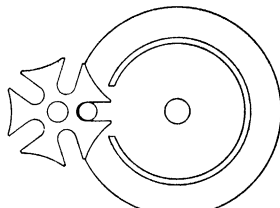
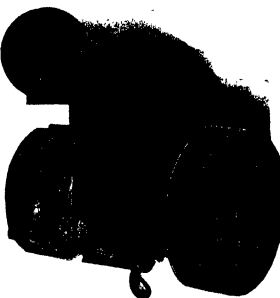


Fig. 2.—The five-slot Geneva gear, which gives a motion picture film a period of rest four times as long as the period of motion.



Figs. 3 and 4.—The new Nicholas Power intermittent movement for motion picture projectors.

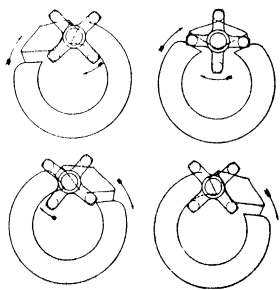


Fig. 5.—Successive positions of the parts in a complete movement of the Power intermittent motion.

Fig. 5, which shows different successive positions of the parts in a complete movement. In locking position all four pins of the cross engage the locking ring, two on each side as shown at position 1 of Fig. 5. As the diamond-shaped cam starts to pass between the pins of the cross the outer pin is engaged by the slightly curved outer face of the diamond, which produces the initial rotation of the pin-cross and causes the pins on each side of the pin to be engaged by the diamond into the slots between the driving cam and the locking ring as shown at position 2. The cam action of the inclined slots on the pins continues the movement of the pin cross through the various stages illustrated, giving the driven member of the intermittent to which is attached the film feeding sprocket an exact quarter revolution, at which point the locking ring is again engaged by all four pins, thus holding the pin cross absolutely stationary during the period of rest of the film.

The movement of the pin cross takes place during an angular movement of approximately 70 degrees of the cam, thus giving a period of rest even greater than the 5-slot Geneva, and yet it has been proven by a very interesting demonstration given at the recent Motion Picture Exhibition at Grand Central Palace that the new movement produces much less wear on the film than the 4-slot Geneva of other machines with the 90 degree period of movement.

The reason for this superiority is that the new movement has been designed to give to the driven member an absolutely uniform acceleration in speed starting from its position of rest and an absolutely uniform retardation back to locking position, so that the driving power required is the same throughout the entire period of acceleration. In other words, the new gear utilizes the entire period of operation to the maximum degree, whereas the Geneva gear, which has a slow rate of acceleration at the start of the movement and also at its period of greatest velocity, must make up for these periods of understrain, when the rate of acceleration is small, by an intermediate period of severe overstrain in order to accomplish its full movement in the allowed period of time. In designing the new gear Mr. Power has adapted to the rotative movement of the intermittent gear, the laws of movement of a freely falling body whose velocity increases uniformly in successive periods of time under the force of the weight of the body which, of course, remains constant during its entire downward movement.

In the projection of motion pictures the new Power intermittent accomplishes three notable results. Its longer period of rest allows a longer period of illumination of the screen with brighter pictures and greater definition as well as less consumption of lighting current. Its uniform action produces less vibration of the machine, increasing the steadiness of the picture to a marked degree. Finally, the important fact of its easy action on the comparatively fragile film extends its life and usefulness.

Readers of this article who wish a more detailed analysis of this remarkable mechanical movement and a curve comparison of the time relations in the standard and the new Power intermittent gears, are referred to the current issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT, No. 2059.

A Long Delayed Application

THE Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia has had under consideration an *ex parte* Patent Appeal in which probably a record case of time in the Patent Office is involved. The patent application, the subject of this appeal, was filed in the Patent Office in 1880. As one of the counsel suggested at the argument, the application was in the Patent Office a period equal to or in excess of the successful terms of two patents, the patent term being seventeen years, while the application has been in the Patent Office more than thirty-four years. Incidentally, there was raised the bearing upon the application of an expired patent, the application for which was filed subsequent to that of the application in question. It does not appear that there could be an interference, and the extent to which the patent could be held a constructive notice to the applicant is subject for argument. The present Commissioner's endeavor has been to avoid the delays in applications, and during the argument of the appeal in question counsel asserted that there had been consumed 90 per cent more time by the Patent Office in dealing with the merits than by the applicant in making up the official objections, a rather unusual circumstance in delayed applications of this character.

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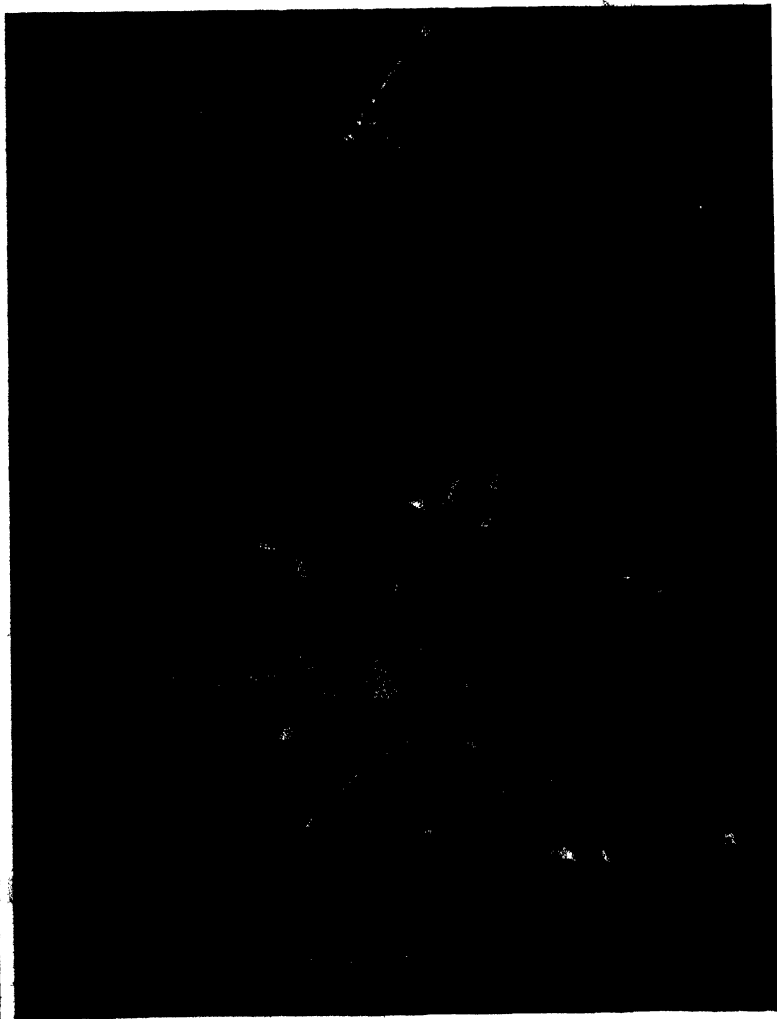


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SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



DESTRUCTION OF A ZEPPELIN BY A BRITISH MONOPLANE.—[See page 627]

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THE WEEKLY JOURNAL OF PRACTICAL INFORMATION

NEW YORK, JUNE 26, 1915

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Length on deck, 214 feet. Length on waterline, 180 feet. Beam, 35 feet 6 inches. Draft, 18 feet. Height water to truck of mainmast, 167 feet. Auxiliary motor, 400 horse-power kerosene. The "Sea Call"—largest fore-and-aft schooner yacht afloat.

The Three-masted Auxiliary Schooner Yacht "Sea Call"

THE auxiliary three-masted schooner yacht "Sea Call," recently launched at Lawley's yard, and now being completed for deep-sea cruising, is the latest and largest of the three-masted fore-and-aft schooner yachts of which several have been built in this country.

She has been built for Alexander S. Cochran, who is also the owner of "Vantula," built last year for the defense of the America's Cup. Although she has been constructed primarily as a deep-sea cruiser, the size of the yacht, her refined model and her polished sail plan, will probably render her the fastest sailing yacht afloat. If she should engage in racing during the present season, her closest competitor, provided her owner placed the boat in completion, would be the "Atlantis," the fastest winner of the transatlantic race for the cup owned by the German Emperor. "Atlantis," also a three-masted schooner, was designed by William Gardener at this city, from whose draughting board also has come the "Sea Call."

The principal dimensions of the "Sea Call" are: Length over all, 214 feet; length on load waterline, 180 feet; beam, 35 feet 6 inches; and draft, 18 feet. Built for seven cruising she is equipped with a complete sailing rig, including square sails on foremast, three head sails abaft, a short mainmast, boom and gaff for off-shoot work.

The bottom of the hull is built of steel plates which will be polished and not painted, the hull is not to be

framing are of a special steel made for this yacht. The frames are bulb angles, and the yacht has five steel bulkheads and seven deep web frames, which together will give great transverse strength to the hull. The deck beams are of channel steel and the yacht has been built under special survey by Lloyd and is classed 109-A.

On deck are two large Monel metal deckhouses for the use of the owner and guests, one between the mainmast and the mainmast and the other just aft of the mainmast. The owner's accommodations consist of a large salon, 18 feet long by 31 feet wide, four large guest rooms, with two baths, and the owner's room with bath and also a large owner's storeroom. The owner's room is aft of the accommodations, and aft of this is a large chart room with lockers for stowing sails.

Below decks the finish of the yacht is simple, being entirely in white. The steering gear consists of a diamond screw gear placed below the deck. This is operated by a shaft from a stand on deck, which is equipped with two wheels, one on the fore and one on the after side of the stand. All the bearings of the steering gear consist of balls or rollers.

The three masts are of nickel steel and the rest of the spars are of hollow wood. Some idea of the enormous rig will be gathered from the fact that the distance from the water-line to the top of the mainmast is 167 feet. Because of the long overhang forward, the jib stay will set up on the stemhead. Since the boom extends but little over the taffrail, the sail, despite

its great area, will be practically inboard in bad weather.

The motive power consists of an eight cylinder diesel or kerosene engine, developing 400 horse-power, at 250 revolutions per minute. The cylinders are 12½ inches in diameter by 20 inches stroke, and they drive a two-bladed feathering propeller of the Bels type, seven feet six inches in diameter. There will be one 20-horsepower General Electric dynamo set, one combination dynamo and bilge pump, and one electrically driven lee winch. The hoisting of the anchor and the sails will be done by a bronze, electrically driven windlass, and there will be another electrically driven windlass on the after deck. As will be seen from our engraving, the "Sea Call" possesses the characteristic beauty of line which marks the finer yachts.

New Uses for Infusorial Earth

OVER 6,500 tons of infusorial earth mined in Nevada and California is finding a ready market at \$10.50 a ton. It has long been used in polishing powders and soaps, and to absorb nitrogen in the form of dynamite and as a heat-insulating material in packing safes, steam pipes, etc., but now talking machine records are to be made from a balled mixture of the earth and shellac. In Europe it is used to absorb liquid bromine, which they then put on the market as "solidified bromine," and especially to absorb liquid manures for more convenient handling.

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The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles on subjects of general interest. If the illustrations are short, the articles short, and the facts authentic, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular space rates.

The purpose of this journal is to record accurately, simply, and interestingly, the world's progress in scientific knowledge and industrial achievement.

A Great National Movement

IF the present Administration at Washington is desirous of keeping in close touch with the trend of public opinion on matters of national importance, it will do well to take note of the tall significance of the remarkable series of public meetings which were held in New York during the past week under the auspices of the National Security League. No thoughtful observer could fail to have been impressed with the serious purpose, the earnest zeal, and the unanimity of opinion both of the distinguished speakers at the various meetings and of the large audiences which gathered to hear them. Also it takes but a glance at the list of officers and speakers and members of the League to realize that here we have represented all shades of political opinion, clear evidence of the fact that this movement is one of those whose springs lie deep in a consciousness of the fact that an issue of the gravest national importance is involved.

It is most unfortunate, and we speak here from direct personal knowledge and experience, that some of the leading members of the Government are making the same mistake of which they were guilty in regard to that other great non-political body, the Navy League. These officials have not hesitated to state in the most emphatic terms that the present movement for strengthening our national defenses is a purely political movement, aimed at weakening the influence of the present Administration.

Now, we have every reason to believe that nothing could be further from the truth. In the first place, it is only necessary to consider the list of the men who are prominent in this movement to see that it embodies distinguished names from both the great political parties, and furthermore, both in the literature put forth by these various movements for defense and in the public speeches of their accredited representatives, there is a remarkable absence of any evidence that the movement is political, and there is every evidence that its controlling motive is a patriotic desire to further the highest national interests of the country, irrespective of party or creed.

It may be laid down as a principle which cannot successfully be contradicted that there are some matters relating to the highest welfare of a nation, which are of such vital importance that they should be lifted far above the level of party strife to be safeguarded against the changes and accidents to which any one party measure is inevitably exposed. Ranking high among these, surely, is the question of the security of a people and their country against invasion by a foreign power and the imposition upon them of the most fearful will of a conqueror.

This indeed should form one of the very first, if not, indeed, the first object of government, and if the Administration fails to make every reasonable provision thus to safeguard the country against foreign attack, it is guilty of a very grave dereliction of its highest duty.

The existence and rapid development of the present popular movement to impress upon Congress the need for making considerable additions to our naval and military forces presents one of the most anomalous conditions that have ever occurred in the history of this Republic; for here we witness an attempt, on a very

large and widespread basis, of the people to provide themselves with those defenses and to organize themselves for those military contingencies which should properly be the object of the earnest and active solicitude of their Government; but which, as matters now stand, the Government refuses to take any action upon or even earnestly to consider.

But the case is even more serious than that; for not only does the Administration refuse to consider this popular movement to find out the actual truth, but it has put itself in a position of active obstruction by placing a padlock upon the lips of every officer of the naval and military service. It has condemned them to silence, giving as a reason the desire of the Government to prevent those gentlemen from saying anything which might violate the absolute neutrality of the United States during the present war—as though, forsooth, the enlightenment of the people of this country as to the condition of their defenses could, by any stretch of the imagination, be construed as an act hostile to any of the belligerents in far-distant Europe.

Learning Through Doing

WITH the beginning of the new school term in February, some of the public high schools in New York city entered upon a radical experiment in education. In the usual manner of the metropolis, this experiment was entered upon after having been tried out in other parts of the country. But it will also be tried on a more comprehensive scale than has ever been used before.

The plan in question is the so-called "Cincinnati Plan," first organized at the University of Cincinnati School of Engineering by Dean Herman Schneider, and it has several features that are of significance to the world of practical affairs.

In the first place it means that the educators have recognized certain limitations of the school room. From the assumption that "teaching" can impart all that youth needs to learn they have come to a lively realization of the fact that we can learn to do only through practice in doing. It is nearly three hundred years since Comenius laid down the maxim that children must learn to do by doing, and it is forty years since manual training was introduced into public schools in this country. But the schools, with all their devices, have not been training for the economic life of the day for the simple reason that the school can never duplicate industrial conditions. Once this fact is frankly accepted, the next step is plain.

The second point is that if young people are to learn to do things as they are being done in business, the shop and the office and the store are the right places for learning. This means that the students are to spend part of their time in industrial activities, and part of their time in school, for there is still much for the school to do. In the present plan, the high school pupils will spend alternate weeks in school and in the shops or offices.

Some inconvenience may be involved for the foreman or superintendent, but this is justified, for the plan makes the assumption that industry must share the responsibility for the training of its workers. With the decline of the apprenticeship system the training of artisans has become in many industries a haphazard drifting. In the course of time the managers of these industries have come to depend upon their competitors and the "public" to provide trained and experienced workers. The competitors shared in the waiting, and the public had not learned how to protect the workers, with the result that skill declined while the young people grew up without training.

A fourth point in the plan is the idea that certain large social problems—education of the next generation is one of the largest—cannot be solved by any one agency, but must be attacked by two or more agencies co-operating to a common end. It is certainly significant that busy men of affairs, who have in the past asked only to be let alone, and the equally busy men of the schools, who have in the past asked only for a chance to mind their own business, can come together in the interests of the community's welfare and co-operate on a basis that is entirely strange to both of them.

It is interesting to note that this plan appeals at first only to those who have been accustomed to dealing with the larger problems of business policy and administration. The chief clerks and division managers who have reached the limits of their development are quick to reject the plan, because it is so different from what they are used to, because they have not the imagination to see its possibilities, because they are too much obsessed by their own routine. And the same thing may be said of the school men, the routiniers who wedded to their routine.

The co-operative plan means setting away from routine in every way. The students will have work assigned to them according to carefully prepared syllabuses, with the purpose of allowing each one to learn the relation of the various processes to one another,

and not merely to acquire skill at some specialized process. The work is to be entirely in the shop or office, just as it is planned to have the work to be done in school. On the other hand, the progress in the school is not to proceed along the insulated path of the old-style school; the school work is to be closely correlated to the practical work, through the activities of "co-ordinators"—specialists assigned to keep in constant touch with the students in the shop and with their teachers at school. Moreover, the work is to be flexible enough to permit constant readjustment of the syllabus in the school as well as in the shop, as conditions may indicate new needs.

This plan has already demonstrated its workableness in several high schools throughout the country, and will undoubtedly lead to greater work efficiency as well as to greater economic efficiency. If it does no more than start the teachers and the employers along the path of experimentation and imbue them with the spirit of co-operation, it will justify itself in a very short time. But it will do much more both for education and for industry.

This is a radical departure from the methods of training used in the medical and legal professions, although it embodies the same fundamental principles. The success of the experiment in New York will accelerate the development of vocational education for the country.

Weather Influences on Mankind

WEATHER influences on man may be roughly divided into three classes: (1) those which are direct and obvious, and (2) those which are more or less indirect and obscure. The influences belonging to class (2) have been, during the past decade or so, the subject of immense research.

Some persons are pronounced "meteoropaths"—abnormally subject to "weather neurones." Friedrich Nietzsche was one of the persons who, as a rule are, more specifically, "cyclonopaths." The passage of cyclonic depressions, accompanied by certain characteristic types of weather, is reflected in their sensations and in the mode of operation of their bodily and mental functions. The gross change of barometric pressure pertaining to a cyclone, or "low," is not, in itself, an important factor in producing these manifestations, since it never exceeds that experienced in the ascent (without the effort of climbing) of a good-sized hill, indeed, many "lows" do not expose us to greater pressure changes in the course of twenty-four hours than we experience in a couple of minutes in riding to the top of an average office building. On the other hand, there are rapid, ripple-like fluctuations of pressure, revealed by the microbarograph and especially by the variograph, to which some people seem quite sensitive. The pathological effects of certain winds—e. g., the Swiss foehn—have been attributed to these minute fluctuations of pressure.

Again, the low pressure of a cyclone is said to favor the emission of radioactive emanations from the ground, atmospheric ionization is increased; the air becomes a better conductor of electricity; and the electrical charge of the human body is carried away at a more rapid rate than usual. This process, according to Ewen and others, has a pathological effect in nervous subjects. We state the hypothesis for what it may be worth.

Solar radiation unquestionably affects mankind in ways other than those we recognize as ordinary light and heat effects. Such observations as those of Dornic, at Davos, show quite different annual curves for the different kinds of solar radiation contained in sunshine; and these observations suggest a reason for the very different effects upon human feelings and activities of spring and autumn, essentially the same temperature.

We have only grazed the vast subject of weather influences. We pause at this point to answer the question which many readers will be asking: Where have the students of these problems recorded the results of their investigations?

Certainly not to a great extent in Anglo-American medical and physiological literature. We have, indeed, many books and memoirs in English on the general subject of medical climatology, and on many topics of a kindred nature; but the information they contain is speaking in general terms about a generation behind that available to persons who read German.

There now lies before the writer a work published at Wiesbaden last year by Dr. B. Beilner, "Der Einfluss von Klima, Wetter und Jahreszeit auf das Nervensystem und Seelenleben," which is representative of a very large recent German literature. To American students who do not read the *Zeitschrift für Naturwissenschaftliche Medizin und Naturgeschichte*, who are not familiar with W. Schmidt's variograph studies nor with C. Dornic's remarkable investigations of mountain light and air; who know nothing of the work of such men as Hellwich, Frankenhäuser, Dove, Lehmann and Pedersen (the last two names were written in German), and the leading present German experts on climate, meteorology and climatopsychology; to such persons the pursuit of Beilner's work can be recommended for meditation.

Notes on the War

German High Fleet in the North Sea.—The repeated rumors that the German battleships have been out in the North Sea, that a column of such ships has been sighted by trading vessels, and that the sound of the firing of heavy batteries has been heard, are possibly correct. Because of the submarine menace, the British blockade is not a close blockade of Wilhelmshaven and the mouth of the Elbe—it does not need to be. The German battleships at Wilhelmshaven require target practice, and it is possible for them to go out into the North Sea for this purpose. The German Zepplins would be able to tell them when the coast was sufficiently clear for such exercises.

"Goliath" Sunk by a Turkish Destroyer.—Before the war the Turkish navy had some to be considered to be a practically negligible quantity, ill-manned, inefficient, and composed mainly of obsolete ships. Hence the recent torpedoing of the battleship "Goliath" by a Turkish destroyer has come with shock of surprise. It was believed that the rapid-fire guns of a battleship would pour such a hail of explosive projectiles against an onrushing destroyer, that it could never get within accurate shooting range. But the thing has been done and a battleship of the earliest pre-dreadnought type is on the bottom as the result. What with batteries with direct and indirect fire, electric mines, submarines, and destroyers, the Allied ships in the Dardanelles are certainly having a lively time of it.

No Tents in German Armies.—It may or may not have been noticed by our readers that in the photographs of the theater of war, at least on the German side, no tents appear. That is one of the innovations which modern warfare has brought in the German army. Tents are used to form a not inconsiderable part of the impediments of armies, and this elimination lightens not a little the task of the quartermaster's department. The German plans contemplate always an offensive, presumably to be carried out in the enemy's country, and involve the billeting of the German troops in the homes of the inhabitants of the conquered country.

Building Destroyers and Submarines at Antwerp.—Our contemporary, *The Navy and Army*, is inclined to believe that the two torpedo boats recently sunk off the Dutch coast by the British Navy, were built in Antwerp and came out from that port—this belief being based on the fact that it would be impossible for them to have come from Heligoland or Wilhelmshaven or even Emden, because the intervening waters are too well patrolled. Although Antwerp is in Belgium, warships constructed there would have to pass through Dutch territory by way of the Scheldt, to reach the North Sea. That would be a breach of neutrality; but the Germans evidently would not consider this an insuperable difficulty. The Belgian coast and the French coast up to Havre are greatly coveted by Germany, because of their nearness to the British coast, and the control they would give of the English Channel.

German Submarine Losses.—Every naval officer who has had experience in submarine service is satisfied that the losses in the German submarine fleet during the war must have been very large, and this in spite of the fact that their submarine service is probably highly efficient. The British state that the Germans have lost from a dozen to eighteen submarines. The number lost by capture or foundering must by this time come pretty well up to the dozen mark. It is known that the Admiralty has used every possible device to sink or catch these craft. Netting has played an important part and has scored, if we are to believe reports, some four or five successes. The practice is to stretch a great length of steel wire netting, suspended from floats on the surface, in other words, to spread a net some miles long, for as much as for a mile. When submerged, the submarine is absolutely blind, and if it runs into one of these extremely strong and tough nets, the propeller is likely to become entangled, while the disturbance of the surface floats reveals its presence and brings the dreaded destroyers to the spot.

Italian Heavy Artillery.—Evidently the Italian government has laid to heart the lessons of the German invasion of Belgium and France, at least so far as the question of heavy artillery is concerned. The present operations in the mountain passes leading into Italy from Austria are mainly artillery engagements for the destruction of carefully prepared permanent fortifications, and the capture of the passes by the Italian troops. Italy has prepared for this very kind of warfare, and she is undoubtedly well equipped with just the kind of howitzers needed for the reduction of the fortresses. Notable among these is a very effective 12-inch howitzer, a new piece which has given great satisfaction to the Italian government. The effective work is being done is shown by the remarkable ease with which the forces occupying the mountain tops and guarding the passes have been battered into helplessness and taken by the Italian troops. The Italians have ever been skilled engineers, and notwithstanding they learned the lessons of Liège, Namur, Mauberge and other permanent fortifications reduced by the Germans early in the war,

Science

A Climatological Atlas of the British Isles in two quarto volumes, is to be published by the Royal Meteorological Society in collaboration with the British Meteorological Office. Details as to its contents are given in the last number of the *Quarterly Journal* of the above-mentioned society. The "atlas" will be based mainly on the observations of the forty-year period 1871-1910, but monthly means will be given for each year from several stations having long unbroken records, such as London, 1774-1910. It is interesting to learn that the data of barometric pressure will be given in the new units, millibars, as well as inches. Heretofore only two countries have issued climatological atlases of so elaborate a character as the one proposed for the British Isles; viz., Russia and India. The forthcoming *Agricultural Atlas of the United States* will probably contain the largest collection of climatic charts ever issued for this country.

The Rio Theodore.—An accurate map of the famous river explored by the Roosevelt-Bond expedition in Brazil, prepared from the compass traverses of Lieutenants J. S. Lyra and Pymon de Sousa, two Brazilian army officers who had charge of the survey work of the expedition, has at last been published in the *Geographical Journal*, and also appears, on a smaller scale and in one form, in the *Bulletin of the American Geographical Society* for May. The river has been many-named. Its lower course was formerly known to the rubber men as the Ariguaná. While the river as a whole was still in the speculative stage it was called the Rio da Dóvina (River of Doubt). In the course of the recent expedition Colonel London, acting on authority received from the Brazilian government before his departure, named it the Rio Roosevelt, but subsequently this was changed by the government to Rio Theodore, which is an easier name for Brazilians to pronounce. The Spanish form, Rio Teodoro, which appears on some of the maps in Mr. Roosevelt's book and in other publications, is erroneous.

European Weather Reports have been generally considered suppressed altogether during the present war. Apart from the fact that forecasters have been hampered by the suspension of telegraphic communication between mutually hostile countries, the fear of publishing meteorological information that might be useful to the enemy has led to the practice of delaying the issue of weather maps and bulletins until the value lost all value for practical purposes. Thus the French daily weather map is issued a week after the date to which it refers. Since the first of May the British Meteorological Office has ceased to issue any forecasts except those relating to spells of fine weather, which are telegraphed to agriculturists at the expense of the latter and are known as *harvest weather forecasts*. No forecasts are now issued to the newspapers. At the beginning of the war the newspaper weather charts were discontinued, and some months ago all references to the movements of barometric depressions and to winds were eliminated from the daily weather forecast. All of which is a sad contrast to the hopes which were entertained of introducing great improvements in the European weather maps and reports in the year 1911, in accordance with a plan for uniform hours of observation and other reforms, proposed a couple of years ago by the director of the Russian meteorological service.

Death Cane Poisoning.—According to a bulletin recently published by the Department of Agriculture, one of the most serious sources of loss to sheep owners in the Western States, especially Wyoming and Montana, is *Zygadenus* (of several species) or death canes, also known under various other popular names, including such poisonous specimens as "lobelia," "sold onion," and "water lily." Strange to say, a great many sheep owners do not know the plant, and ascribe the poisoning it produces to other causes. Thus lupines have been blamed for many cases of *Zygadenus* poisoning. It is said that in 1909 about 30,000 sheep were killed by this plant in a single county of Wyoming. Other animals seem less susceptible to its effects. Though horses, cattle and human beings are made ill by it, sometimes with fatal results. Coville has reported that one species is sometimes used by medicine men of the Klamath Indians, mixed with the dried root of *Yucca micrantha* and a little tobacco, to give a person a severe nausea, in order to secure a heavy fee for making him well again. The author of the bulletin above mentioned reports the results of elaborate experimental studies of this plant, extending over a period of five years. They are able to present a much more extensive account of the symptoms produced by the plant than has hitherto been available. Every plant is made known and some effective remedial treatment but without satisfactory results. Frequent doses of tannic acid or sodium bicarbonate and in recy very, but the expense of such treatment is prohibitive, except when the animals are especially valuable. The only method of reducing losses appears to be to make the plant better known to shepherds, so that they will keep the animals away from it.

Automobile

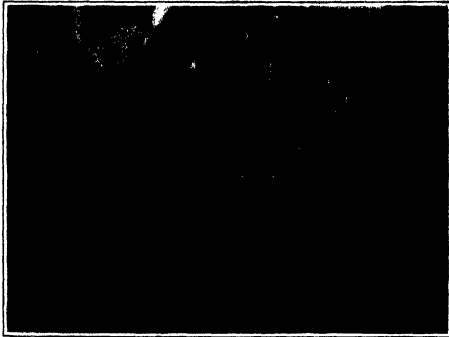
Acetylene Tanks in Big Fire.—Probably the most spectacular fire ever staged for the benefit of an awed and admiring populace, occurred in the first week of this month in one of the warehouses of a company making acetylene tanks, charged with gas under pressure. The fire started, it is said, from a defective electric installation, and soon engulfed the whole building. When the heat reached a certain degree, the fuses in the tanks melted and the acetylene gas was released under great pressure, heightened by the heat. Nearly 8,000 tons furnished sharp hissing streams of acetylene gas, which burned with such a fierce bright flame that nobody could look toward the fire without using smoked glasses. To try to extinguish such a blaze with water was of course useless, and the great quantity of stored acetylene had to burn itself out.

Artificial Leather to the Fore.—The extraordinary increase of the number of motor cars has had a peculiar influence upon the artificial leather industry. While for as long ago "artificial" leather was marketed under names suggesting "leather," and as a sort of apology for the "real thing," its extensive use on automobile tops, automobile upholstery and tool bags, has caused the manufacturers to openly boast of the fact that their product is artificial. The reason for this change of heart is found in the custom of some upholsterers, makers of "splitting" the cow-leathers into several thicknesses, each of which is used as "leather." And the good service which the new water-tight non-materials give, is gradually winning a change in the motoring public to the extent that many people do not rarely ask for "artificial leather" tops and covers.

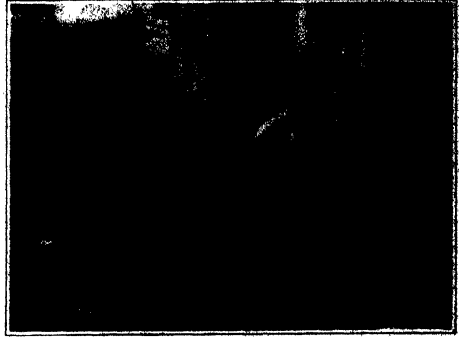
Queer Causes of Carbonization.—Practically every owner of a Ford car sooner or later will discover that the first cylinder of his car will carbonize more frequently and more quickly than the other three. For a long time this has been one of the mysteries of the Ford car, and much ingenuity was spent in trying to find the reason. A repair man recently proposed what seemed to be the best and most logical answer to the problem. The Ford car has a transverse spring, which in the course of time begins to suffer compression. The front part of the motor therefore sinks slightly below the rear end and the oil in the crankcase flows forward, where it collects below the first cylinder. An excessive amount of lubricating oil is carried into the first cylinder, and carbonization results. As a remedy for this frequent trouble the discoverer suggests a raising of the motor in front by means of a small wooden block.

\$1,180,000,000 in 1915.—On June 1st, of the present year, the number of automobiles in the United States for the first time reached 2,000,000. Figuring on an average of four persons to each car, which is very conservative, there are 8,000,000 people in this country in daily enjoyment of motoring. What it costs to follow this sport is of interest, because of the stupendous figures involved. To run 2,000,000 cars for one year requires at the very least 1,000,000,000 (one billion) gallons of gas, worth \$10,000,000, 20,000,000 gallons of lubricating oil, worth \$8,000,000, 12,000,000 tires, worth not less than \$16 a piece, or \$192,000,000, accessories and extra comforts, goggles, gloves and caps, at \$50 per car equals \$100,000,000, garage charges on short tours (exclusive of gas and oil) \$100 per car per year, \$200,000,000, repairs made necessary by wear, tear and accident (exclusive of tires) \$50 per car per year equals \$100,000,000. Total running expenses for all cars in use, \$730,000,000. Add thereto the value of the 600,000 new cars purchased during the year, at an average price of \$750 each, \$450,000,000, we get the monstrous total of \$1,180,000,000 spent in a single year (1915) on the sport of motoring.

Germany's War Car Problem.—As in many other things connected with the war, Germany's war cars and preparation is first in the field to solve the problem of the used "war car," which looks threatening in the distance. Great Britain and France realize the seriousness of the matter, but so far have not taken a single step to control it. Germany, however, has already made preparations to handle the delicate situation effectively, the moment the war stops. A company has been formed, in which the government and the motor car manufacturers are interested, which company will take over all the cars used in the war, which are capable of repair. They will be put in first-class running condition, and then offered to the public at a reasonable price. Only one third of the total will be placed on the market in the first year, one third in the second year and the remainder in the third year. In the meantime manufacturers of new cars will be able to introduce their product, knowing exactly how the cars, in terms of what price and condition, will be offered in the second-hand market during a certain time, and can plan their manufacturing and sales campaign accordingly. If, for instance, a certain type of car is especially numerous in the used-car field, manufacturers will "go light" on that type. By such means it is hoped to control the situation and prevent a flood of poor, used cars, at ridiculously low prices.



Loading an army 3-inch field gun.



A field radio set with hand-driven generators.

The Naval and Military Exhibit of the National Security League

Weapons of Defense for Safeguarding the United States Against Attack

AS part of the programme of education of the general public now being carried on by the National Security League, an exhibit was held in New York at the Astor Hotel of some of the very latest naval and military material with which our forces are equipped. We present illustrations of some of the more notable exhibits. Foremost among these was one of our latest 21-inch torpedoes, a weapon which is capable of a speed of 40 knots and has a range of over 7,000 yards. The label stated that the torpedo costs about \$7,000, and takes about one year to build, but, as a matter of fact, it is possible to build these in considerably less time if the factories are pushed to their full capacity. Along-

side of the torpedo was a 14-inch shell, of the type used in our new naval 14-inch guns. This shell weighs 1,400 pounds, and it is fired with an initial velocity of 26,000 feet a second and an initial muzzle energy of about 65,000 foot-pounds. It is capable of penetrating 16 inches of Krupp armor at a range of 10,000 yards, and its maximum range is about twelve miles.

An exhibit which attracted great attention was that of a 3-inch field gun, the type of weapon which has done such effective work during the present war. The accuracy and rapidity of fire of this gun is due to its mounting and excellent sighting device. The gun recoils in a sleeve which is attached to the gun carriage. The advantage of this is that

it is not necessary to readjust the carriage after each round has been fired, the carriage being maintained in position by a deep spade at the after end of the trail, and by the use of brakes on the wheels. The readjustment in elevation is made by an elevating screw, and an important improvement is the introduction of devices whereby the gun itself can be moved in azimuth, or in a horizontal plane, independently of the gun carriage. The bore of the gun is 3 inches, and it fires

a 15-pound projectile, which may be either a percussion shell or a shrapnel shell, according to the nature of the attack. There was on exhibition a shrapnel shell, with part of the casing cut away to show the way in which the balls are assembled. The walls of the shell are thin so as to admit of easy and complete fracture, and the shell is burst and the bullets are liberated by a small charge of black powder at the base of the shell. When the shell bursts, the bullets fly forward with the velocity of the shell at the time of bursting, and they are scattered in a wide cone of dispersion.

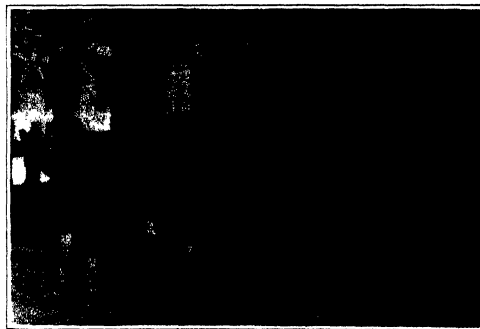
Another exhibit was the new type of air-cooled machine gun adopted by our army, which dispenses with

Signal Corps, upon whose efficiency depends the ability of the commander-in-chief and the subordinate generals to co-ordinate all the complex movements of the great armies under their command. The Signal Corps had loaned for exhibit a field radio set, one of the interesting features of which was a small generator for furnishing the necessary current, operated by hand-power through a couple of crank handles and set of intermediate speeding-up gears. The crowded condition of the room in which this exhibit was held was one among many evidences of the widespread public interest in the matter of our national defenses which is finding expression in the activities of the National Security League, in the Navy League, the American Legion and other movements to induce Congress to take up the matter of our national defenses in a national, non-political and thoroughly national spirit.

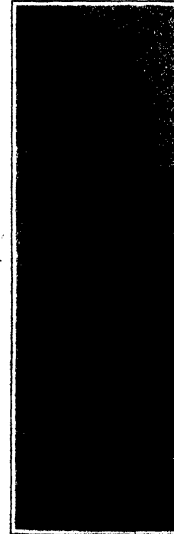
"Kewpie" as a Trade Mark.—Rose O'Neill Wilson filed an opposition to the application of William Hacht for registration of the word "Kewpie" as a trademark for children's clothes. The Commissioner of Patents granted Hacht's motion to dismiss and appeal was filed to the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, which sustained the Commissioner's decision saying, "It is unnecessary to consider in how far the name Kewpie and the thing patented and copyrighted are equivalent or in how far a 'Kewpie' may be applied to goods of the same descriptive properties as those upon which the trademark was used by applicant. 'Before' appears on the label, therefore, it must appear that the word and the figure or word 'Kewpie' as a trademark in hands of the same descriptive properties as the goods of applicant to which the mark is applied and, as a date prior to its use by applicant. In this case, the facts fall."



The new army air-cooled machine gun.



A 21-inch torpedo and a naval 14-inch shell.



Shrapnel shell in section.

the rather cumbersome water-jacket of the ordinary Maxim type. The piece is light and is capable of firing several hundred shots per minute, the ammunition being carried in a belt which is fed laterally at the breech of the gun. The ejection of the shell, introduction of the new cartridge and all the operations connected with firing are performed automatically.

Not much has been heard during the present war of one of the most important branches of the service, the

Signal Corps, upon whose efficiency depends the ability of the commander-in-chief and the subordinate generals to co-ordinate all the complex movements of the great armies under their command. The Signal Corps had loaned for exhibit a field radio set, one of the interesting features of which was a small generator for furnishing the necessary current, operated by hand-power through a couple of crank handles and set of intermediate speeding-up gears. The crowded condition of the room in which this exhibit was held was one among many evidences of the widespread public interest in the matter of our national defenses which is finding expression in the activities of the National Security League, in the Navy League, the American Legion and other movements to induce Congress to take up the matter of our national defenses in a national, non-political and thoroughly national spirit.

In This Experimental Air-War the Brilliancy of the Celtic Mind Has Scored Heavily

By C. Dienstbach



A Zeppelin pursued by a French biplane

Much must have been learned about bomb dropping in this war, but all we know so far is that it is so highly indulged in. Reports about its efficiency are so utterly conflicting and information about the method of aiming so lacking that it is hard to draw any conclusions. The most recent fashion to attack in great numbers deserves credit as the beginning of naval tactics. They have escaped the enemy's guns as bullets did the Zeppelins, though collectively offering a larger target. The value of aerial scouting, also especially for range-correcting, has of course been paramount. The

(Continued on page 226)

The Strategic Moves of the War

By Our Military Expert—June 17th, 1915

DURING the week ending June 17th, 1915, the strategical and tactical moves on the vast European battlefield that have received most attention have nearly all taken place in the eastern and Italian regions. Little or nothing has occurred to indicate that the Germans have abandoned or even materially weakened their offensive campaign against the Russians. On the contrary, the lack of powerful opposition to the Italian advance, the comparative inactivity of the Germans in the eastern theater, and the renewal of active operations in Galicia, all point to a determination on the part of the Teuton allies to follow up the advantage they have gained over the Russians as a result of the decisive operations during the month of May.

Priemysl was captured from the Russians on June 3rd, after a month of the fiercest and most continuous fighting of the war. Both sides must have been practically exhausted. Doubtless the wounded received only such treatment as could be given them in field hospitals. There probably was no opportunity to send them to base hospitals in the rear, for the railroads were taxed beyond their capacity to supply food and ammunition to those able to fight. In war, human life must ever be a consideration secondary to the winning of battles. The Russians were greatly hampered by the confusion and disorganization of retreat and the Germans were employing every available resource to gather the greatest possible harvest from their victory. Decisive victories are won not by breaking through a line of retreating flank, but by the destruction that attends the pursuit of a routed army. But there is a limit beyond which even a pursuing victorious army cannot go, and the Germans apparently reached that limit with the capture of Priemysl and more than a week of comparative quiet followed.

This period of doubt has been used by both sides in restoring their organization, bringing up reinforcements, replenishing food and ammunition and other supplies, sending the wounded to hospitals at home, and the shifting of portions of the armies to the positions they were to occupy in future battles, to the next move. Speed and precision count in these matters the same as on the battlefield, for the side first ready to start afresh has a decided advantage. In the absence of strong reinforcements for the Russians it was to be supposed that the victorious Germans would recover more quickly than the defeated Russians, and this appears to have been what happened.

Viewed from a broad strategic standpoint, the Russians endeavored to cover the retreat of their right and center, which received the full force of the German blow, by a most persistent and vigorous offensive against the German right wing to the eastward in Bukovina. They met with some success here on the Pruth and Dniester rivers, but the danger to the Germans was not so great as to lead them to weaken their driving force in Galicia through their fight in Bukovina. In the end the Russians withdrew this portion of their line to the Dniester, where they blocked the further advance of the Austrians until about June 13th. In the surprisingly short period of ten days (from June 3rd to June 13th) the Germans were able to reorganize, themselves sufficiently to enable them again to advance in force on a front of about forty miles. They defeated the forces opposed to them, captured many prisoners and made a further material advance on Lemberg, the capital of Galicia, and immediate preparations for which they are fighting.

The real objective of the German army is not Galicia or fortresses here, but the recovery of Russia, and the total overthrow of the Russian army. Stupid, done as this task may be, still its successful accomplishment may be well within the limits of the German hopes and ambition. The Russian army probably is not in the desperate condition stated in many of the reports from the seat of war, due to the shortage of arms, ammunition and trained men, but it is not, however, the shortage exists, this combined with the loss of morale incident to the disastrous defeats in Galicia, would be more than sufficient to call forth the German's supreme effort. If the Teutons are still hoping to win the war and not merely struggling for an advantageous termination of the war, the destruction of the Russian army is a certain means to this end. If not, it is only the only one. But an army of this magnitude with a vast country behind it cannot be destroyed in a day, and it is reasonable to expect

that Russia will supply her deficiencies long before any such decisive and unprecedented disaster could occur.

The continued inactivity of the Allies in the west is difficult to understand. There has been daily fighting, to be sure, in this field, particularly at the northern end of the line, but it is fairly devoid of results and has no decisive effect on the general war situation. At no other time since the early weeks of the war, when Paris was saved, has there been a situation so clearly demanding the full offensive efforts of the French, English, and Belgians. Russia is desperately in need of the assistance the western Allies might give her by a drive against the German line in the west, so powerful that Germany would have to abandon her campaign against Russia in order to hold her line in France. Instead, the Allies have continued their policy of "sitting tight," which, to the war, seems to be the French translation of "watchful waiting." The Germans also have taken a "lull" in this theater during the week and, despite the demands made upon them in Russia and elsewhere, have developed sufficient strength in the west to recapture part of the Somme trenches. We may well ask how long Russia will bear the brunt of the hard fighting without complaining, and whether a small portion of disaffection if once planted might not become in time a menace to concord and unity of action among the Allies.

Italy has continued her methodical advance into Austria along two lines as shown on the map—one force

to the eastern force. Austrian resistance to Italy's advance appears to have hardened, particularly toward Trieste. But the fortress of Trent and the Alps are still Austria's main defense in Trentino.

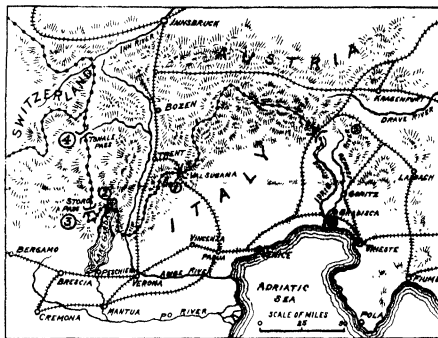
The principal immediate advantage the Allies could expect to gain as a result of Italy entering the war was a lessening of the pressure on Russia. The continued success of the German campaign in Galicia indicates that the Austrians have refused to strengthen their forces on the Italian frontier at the expense of weakening their armies operating against Russia. It is possible they will go to the extreme of allowing the Italian army to overrun the Trentino and the region of Trieste while they concentrate their entire efforts on the destruction of the Russian army, for with Russia out of the conflict the recovery of lost ground on the Italian frontier would be a comparatively easy task. Besides, if the Allies win, Italy will get the Trentino and Trieste in the final settlement. More probably Austrian opposition to Italy will be greatly strengthened in the immediate future.

The week has produced no material change in the frontiers. Both forces are strongly entrenched on short lines with their flanks securely protected by the neighboring waters. This is a severe warfare pure and simple and progress must be slow. If the Turks are eventually driven from their present position, and do not quit, they will have plenty of room in their rear for a second stand. The prospects are not good for decisive results here in the near future.

The Current Supplement

ONE of the timely articles in the current issue of the Scientific American Supplement, No. 2980, for June 23rd, 1915, is an extremely interesting description of the methods of forging shrapnel shells by means of powerful hydraulic presses, involving features that are not generally known. The article on Middle Colors, which was announced for the next issue, was unavoidably postponed, but will appear in this number, and will be found well worth reading. So many people are interested in automobiles that the important question of the proper lubricants to be used and the methods of using them will appear to a wide circle of readers, as proper lubrication is a vital matter in the successful and efficient operation of these indie portable machines. It tells how various lubricants can be tested for quality and gives much information as to their constituents. There have been a number of statements in regard to the process of plating objects by a spray of metal, and the description of a process by an American inventor in this issue adds greatly to the information on this subject. Two fine illustrations and a brief description tell the story of a large gas engine built for blowing air in iron and steel furnaces. The exhaustive article on the Chemical Industry of Germany is concluded in this issue. An article of real practical value treats of the Construction of Floor Surfaces in Fireproof Buildings; and there is the usual variety of informative matter in shorter form. This issue is also indispensable, as it contains the index covering the issues of the past six months.

Wanted—A New Solid Tire.—One of the lessons learned in the European war has been the fact that a new type of truck tire is absolutely necessary. While in ordinary street service and on country roads in peacetime the standard solid truck tire is fairly effective and reliable, it has shown many defects in the terrific driving strains of war service. It has been shown, for instance, that no matter how well made a tire is, it will separate at the point of contact between the soft rubber and the hard rubber parts. The hard rubber base, used in the majority of truck tires, has a different coefficient of heat and friction from the soft rubber used in the tread service, particularly when driving over Belgian block pavements. The two sections of the tire will come apart, and sometimes strip off suddenly under a particularly heavy strain. On a few occasions such accidents have proved exceedingly expensive, one truck carrying shells being completely wrecked while traveling at high speed over the road. Tires are now carried on in service, but the idea of evolving a truck tire in which the soft rubber merges gradually into the hard rubber base.



Map of Italian theaters of war.
The Italian army of invasion is on the lines 1, 2, 3, and 4. Another Italian army of invasion is on the lines 5 and 6.

moving into the Trentino on the front (1), (2), (3) (4) and the other moving to the east against Trieste on the front (5), (6). The consistency in reports from Italy has been very strict and little is positively known regarding the strength of the two advancing Italian armies and the opposition they have encountered. Those who hoped for something spectacular to follow Italy's entering the conflict have been disappointed, but there is no good reason why the Allies should be dissatisfied with the progress made by Italy. She took the offensive at the outset, forced Austria to play to her lead, and while she has not pushed far into Austrian territory, she has at least done her fighting on foreign soil and has met with no reverse.

A glance at the map shows the strategic disadvantages of Italy. Whether she advances into Austria by the eastern or northern route, the flank of the invading force and its lines of communications are exposed and must be protected. The left flank of the force advancing on Trieste is, and the railroads in its rear are, open to attack by an Austrian force coming from the north. Similarly, the right flank and the communications of the Italian army advancing to the north from Trent may be struck by an Austrian army coming from the east. These conditions compel Italy to operate in both directions, each of her two armies being a covering force for the other, but under the tremendous strategic disadvantage of becoming more widely separated the farther they advance. It seems highly improbable that Italy will undertake major operations in both directions. Events to date indicate an advance in great strength on Trieste, accompanied by a minor movement toward Trent, the principal purpose of which is to pro-

The Damage to the American Ship "Nebraskan"
THE torpedoing (if such it was) of the American freight ship "Nebraskan" forty miles off the southwest coast of Ireland, occurred at dusk and shortly after the ship had taken in the American flag which had been flying at her stern. The presumption is that, in view of the activity of German submarines in this locality, notably in the case of the sinking of the "Lusitania," the ship must have suffered the damage shown in the accompanying illustration as the result of deliberate submarine torpedo attack. As will be seen from the photograph, she received the blow well below the waterline and on the starboard bow. It was because she was struck so far forward, where the compartments are small and the subsequent flooding was comparatively limited, that the ship was able to be taken into port and placed in drydock. The German government professes to have received no report from any submarine commander, or any other source, of any attack on this ship; but in view of the lack of veracity of such official statements, notably in the case of the "Lusitania," this evidence carries practically no weight. It has been suggested that she may have struck a drifting mine; but if this had been the case, the blow would have been at the waterline. At the present writing, dispatches from the other side state that fragments of metal have been forwarded from our embassy which indicate that it was a torpedo which did the damage. The ship was subjected to a thorough expert examination by one of the naval constructors of the United States Navy, and it will be necessary to await his report on the subject before forming a final and positive conclusion as to whether the damage to the American ship was accidental or deliberate.

A Serious Interruption

THE Commissioner of Patents has under date of June 10th, 1915, published a notice to the effect that, on account of the unusually large number of patents issued during the current fiscal year, the regular appropriation of \$440,000 for printing patent specifications and the *Official Gazette* of the Patent Office, and the supplemental appropriation of \$125,000, have been nearly exhausted, and that it will therefore be impossible to issue the *Gazette* for June 15th, 22nd and 29th, on those dates. The notice goes on to state that the issues referred to will be sent out as early in July as the publication can be effected, and that owing to the resulting congestion there probably will be some delay in the issue of the *Gazette* for July, until conditions in the office of the Public Printer again become normal. It is to be greatly regretted that such a situation can obtain, notwithstanding that, as Commissioner Ewing says, there will be no delay in the issue of patents, designs, or trade marks. It would seem that so important a branch of our Government as the Patent Office, particularly in view of the fact that it is more than self-supporting, should not be hampered, in even the slightest degree, by too strict a spirit of economy on the part of Congress, or for lack of foresight in providing the necessary appropriation for carrying on the details of its work. The *Official Gazette* is an exceedingly important publication and is of interest and real need to a large number of our citizens. Certainly every effort should be made to avoid hereafter any such interruption in the publication of that organ. The regular issuance of the *Gazette* is especially important in connection with trade-mark, as all applications for trade-mark registration which have been passed by the Patent Office are published in the *Gazette* for a period of thirty days, during which period such applications may be opposed by interested parties, and for this, if for no other reason, any delay in the publication of the *Gazette* should be avoided.

Shooting Spectacles

THE sight of soldiers and sailors is often injured, temporarily or permanently, by direct or reflected sunlight. The injury is caused chiefly by the invisible ultra-violet rays, which are absorbed by the tissues of the eye.

In the outer parts of the eye these rays cause disagreeable sensations, which are commonly included in the term fatigue. The eyelids become heavy and red, tears flow, and there is a sensation of pressure, itching and burning. Long continued or repeated exposure to the sun's rays may produce catarrh of the conjunctiva. In extreme cases, occurring in mountain climbing, polar exploration and balloon flights, the acute inflammation happens as snow blindness is observed. This ocular in-

* Adapted from Dr. Schaefer's article in *Die Umschau*.

flammation is closely connected with the "glacier-burn," which is also produced by the ultra-violet rays. On several occasions the movement of armies over snow-clad mountain passes has been impeded chiefly by these effects of sunlight.

When ultra-violet rays penetrate more deeply into the eye, they evoke fluorescence in the lens and the retina. The glow-worm light thus produced in the eye itself spreads a haze or fog over external objects in the field of vision. The small proportion of ultra-violet rays that reaches the retina diminishes the ability to see in dim light.

Hence the exclusion of these injurious rays from the eye is very desirable, especially for riflemen and gunners. The newly invented greenish-yellow "euphos" glass absorbs the ultra-violet rays, together with part of the blue and violet rays, which contribute to the injurious effects above described, but freely transmits the rays that are useful for vision. The partial exclusion of the blue and violet rays presents another advantage in twilight, as it makes the blue evening clouds darker and gives prominence to objects of red and yellow tints.

I have often used these euphos glass spectacles in target practice on sunny days, to the great improvement of my marksmanship. I have also repeatedly employed them at sea, as a protection from the glare of the sun on the water. In particular, I have observed vessels immersed in this glare at the horizon and have made out many details which I could not distinguish with the unprotected eye. I have observed in this way for hours without experiencing any unpleasant sensation.

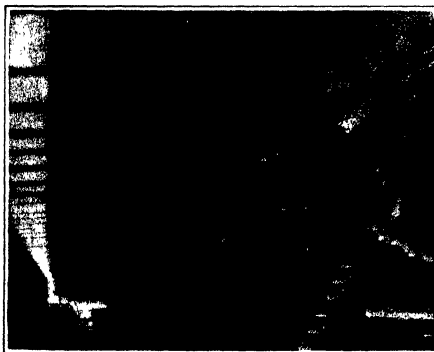


Fig. 1. The "Nebraskan," showing damage wrought, supposedly by a submarine torpedo.

Major Meyer, who has had similar experience, says that the euphos spectacles diminish the width of the dazzling bright strips of water, sharpen the outlines of vessels and other objects at the horizon in the illuminated area, and are very useful in observing and aiming in the presence of sea lights.

Major Meyer, viewing the revolving coast from the stern of an outgoing vessel, with the sun directly astern, observed with the naked eye a dazzling gap in the coast line, which closed up when the euphos glasses were used. Dr. Flemming wore light euphos glasses in a balloon flight attaining an altitude of more than 20,000 feet and experienced no inconvenience, while his companion, who wore dark ray glasses, suffered severely. Amundsen took with him on his Antarctic expedition a large assortment of protective glasses, including two pairs of light euphos glasses. Amundsen and Hansen, who wore the euphos glasses, were the only members of the party that escaped snow blindness.

The theoretical expectations formed by the euphos glass have, therefore, been realized in practice. There is no better protection against snow blindness than spectacles of euphos glass, and their employment also produces a notable improvement in marksmanship.

Who Invented the Circular Saw?

SOME discussion of this subject has appeared in several British technical publications, and the claim is made that the circular saw was invented and used by a wood turner named Murray at Mansfield, England, about the year 1820. The first saw is described as having been about six inches in diameter and was undoubtedly used on a wood turning lathe operated by water power. James Murray, the inventor, is said to have been the son of "Old Joe Murray," the favorite servant of Lord Byron.

Correspondence

[The editors are not responsible for statements made in the correspondence columns. Anonymous communications cannot be considered, but the names of correspondents will be withheld where so desired.]

Waterproofing Concrete

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

Two or three recipes have been published in your paper, at various times, for waterproofing concrete. There seems to be a good deal of popular misconception on this subject, and it has occurred to me that a few notes I have gathered on the subject during a number of years' experience with waterproofing concrete work, might be of interest to your readers.

No concrete can be made entirely waterproof. The best concrete, if subjected to water under high heads, will leak considerably. And even under very low pressures there is leakage, though it is so slow that the water leaking away evaporates as fast as it leaks and leaves an apparently dry surface. But, for practical purposes, a 1 2 4 mix, if made of a medium consistency and thoroughly tamped in place, will be waterproof under small pressures, say up to 15 pounds to the square inch. The more thorough the ramming, the more nearly waterproof the concrete. I have seen one case in which the pneumatic tamper was used, where the concrete was mostly waterproof under 40 pounds per square inch pressure, without any further treatment.

Various compounds of alum and lime or soap are often mixed with concrete, to increase its waterproofing. One

of the best known of these was published by a recent number of the *Scientific American*. Add three fourths pound of dry powdered alum to each cubic foot of sand and dissolve three fourths pound of soap in each gallon of water. Use one part of cement to two parts of sand and four parts of gravel. But I question whether the gain made by this method is worth the extra trouble. The same result can be reached by washing the surface of the concrete on the water side with a wash of one part concentrated lime and two parts alum, dissolved in sixteen parts water. Two or three coats of this solution should be applied, allowing time for each coat to dry, before putting on the next. This method is much less troublesome than the previous method and gives results as good.

Another method in common use is to add from 5 to 10 per cent of hydrated lime to the cement before mixing the proper proportions of mix being one part of the cement, one mixture two parts sand, and four parts gravel. This gives very good results, though it weakens the concrete slightly. On small jobs where the cost is not of very great importance, a mixture of one part cement, one part sand and two or three parts gravel without any further treatment, is waterproof against moderately high pressures. The writer has seen one case that of a pressure pipe line, where a 10-inch wall of this mixture was sensibly water tight against a pressure of about 65 pounds per square inch. But in most cases the cost of so rich a mixture is prohibitive.

Where concrete must be waterproofed against very high pressures, none of the above methods seem to be effective, and other means must generally be resorted to. The usual practice under these conditions is to coat the surface on the water side with asphalt bit or alternate layers of oil and cement, or to use a waterproofing material applied with a brush, has also been used very successfully, but this is rather costly where there is a large surface to be covered.

Seattle, Wash. LEO G. HALL, Civil Engineer

The Engineering Foundation Organized

SOME months ago announcement was made of a gift of \$250,000 by Andrew Carnegie of Cleveland, which was to be the nucleus of a fund to be devoted to research work in engineering lines and to the promotion of the interests of the engineering professions. So far their contributions to the fund have been made, but the Engineering Foundation has been organized at a recent meeting at the Engineering Societies Building, 29 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York, with the following officers: Gano Dunn, chairman, Edward D. Adams, vice-chairman, F. R. Hutton, secretary and Joseph Struhsch, treasurer. A large number of applications from those who desired the use of the fund for research work were already on file, but these will be held pending the filing of further specifications in accordance with the forms to be drawn up by a committee appointed for the purpose.



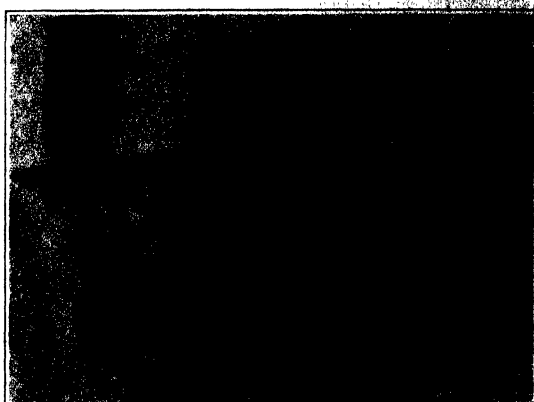
Apparatus for phono-cardiography.

C, microphone; B, R, R, spiral supporting springs; G, stethoscope; D, relay



Human power plant.

Position of the heart and distribution of currents



Complete apparatus for electro-cardiography.

A, camera; B, galvanometer; C, lamp; D, switchboard; E, keys, etc.; F, battery; G, chronograph; H, salt water baths used as electrodes; M, vessel of water for absorbing heat of rays.

The Instrumental Study of the Heart

Methods by Which Its Action and Condition Are Observed and Recorded

It has long been known that every muscular contraction is accompanied by a difference of electric potential between the active, or contracting, part of the muscle and the passive part, so that, if the two parts are connected by a wire, a galvanometer interposed in the circuit will indicate the presence of an electric current.

The heart is a muscular organ and its rhythmic contractions, or beats, produce short-lived current which normally flows through the tissues of the body, but can be diverted to an external circuit. Currents were detected in the frog's heart by Koelliker and Mueller in 1856, but it was not until 1887 that Waller succeeded in recording human heart-beats on a photographic plate with the aid of Lippman's capillary electrometer, and the first satisfactory electrocardiograms were obtained by Bayliss and Starling in 1892.

The development of electrocardiography as a practical method of diagnosis began with the researches of Prof. Einthoven of Leyden, early in the present century, and his invention of an exceedingly sensitive instrument for measuring small currents, the *Einthoven string galvanometer*. In this instrument the current traverses a very fine and tightly stretched wire (for a silver-plated filament of glass), which passes vertically between the closely approximated poles of a powerful electromagnet. The part of the filament that crosses this strong magnetic field is displaced more or less to the right or left according to the direction and strength of the current. The filament is illuminated by an arc lamp and condensing lens, and its shadow is thrown across a horizontal slit by a projecting microscope. A cylindrical lens forms on the photographic plate an image of the slit, in the form of a narrow bright band, on which the magnified shadow of the filament appears as a black dot. It is evident that if the plate is moved vertically with uniform speed the movements of the filament will be recorded in the form of a sinuous line.

In order to measure the movements, the cylindrical lens is engraved with equally-spaced vertical lines, which appear as fine horizontal lines in the cardiogram. The vertical lines of the record mark intervals of time, and are produced by momentarily interrupting the beam of light by the teeth of a uniformly rotating wheel.

It is impossible to place wires directly in contact with a man's heart and it is not necessary to do so, for the heart-currents permeate the whole body and may be taken off by connecting almost any two parts of its surface. In practice three circuits are used. Circuit I, from the right arm to the left arm; circuit II, from the right arm to the left leg; circuit III, from the left arm to the left leg.

The two selected limbs are connected through the galvanometer by immersing them in vessels of brine into which dip porous cups, filled with zinc sulphate solution, and containing the fine terminals of the galvanometer wires. The glands of the skin produce a nearly constant current, which is called a "rest current" in contradistinction to the "action current" caused by muscular contraction. This rest current must be com-

pensated by an accumulator or otherwise. It is necessary, also, to standardize the apparatus by means of a rheostat, so that a given electromotive force shall always produce the same deviation of the galvanometer filament and, consequently, the same elevation or depression in the sinuous line of the record.

The record may be made on a glass plate, which is attached to a hollow leaky piston plunging into a cylinder filled with oil, so that it descends with uniform speed by its own weight. It is better, however, to

use a band of photographic paper or film moved uniformly by clockwork, or an electric motor.

Various forms of apparatus are used. The foregoing description applies chiefly to the apparatus which is now furnished by the Cambridge Scientific Instrument Company.

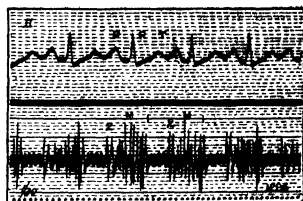
Hitherto, almost all electrocardiograms have been made with the Einthoven string galvanometer, but the difficulty of managing the optical apparatus and regulating the tension of the filament has led Siemens and Halske to construct for this purpose a special form of the mirror galvanometer, which is used in physical laboratories. In this instrument the current to be measured traverses a coil of very fine wire delicately suspended between the poles of an electromagnet. The coil carries a little mirror which reflects a spot of light to the photographic film.

The contractions of the heart do not occur simultaneously in every part. They begin in the auricles, at the base of the heart, and thence spread through the ventricles, which occupy the greater part of the organ. Each complete cycle of the heart is represented in the electrocardiogram by three elevations, separated by nearly level portions. The first elevation corresponds to the contraction of the auricles. The second and third elevations are produced by the progressive contraction of the ventricles, and the level line between them indicates, not a cessation of contraction, but the balancing of opposing electromotive forces in different parts. The second elevation is as high as the other two combined, and is usually preceded and followed by a slight depression.

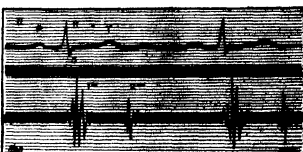
The electrocardiograms obtained from the three circuits (I, II and III) exhibit differences which are particularly important in the examination of a diseased heart. The same circuit is not the most useful for diagnosis in all cases.

The string galvanometer is also used, in connection with a telephone, to record the sounds of the heart. A phono-cardiogram and an electrocardiogram can be made simultaneously by employing two galvanometers. The sounds of the heart were registered, imperfectly, by Huxley, by conveying them through a stethoscope to a microphone connected with the primary coil of a transformer. The vibrations induced in the secondary coil were employed to produce contractions in a frog's leg, and these contractions were recorded by a myograph. Sherrinford and others have employed a microphone connected with a telephone receiver; the vibrating membrane of which was attached by a rod to a slightly convex glass plate, in contact with a glass lens. The contraction and expansion of the Sherrinford's disk thus produced were photographed on a band of paper.

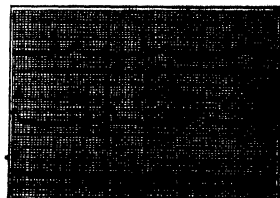
The stethograph and the superior string-galvanometer method employs a microphone mounted in a heavy iron ring, which is suspended horizontally by three equal springs. The sounds of the heart are conveyed to the microphone by a stethoscope and a light glass lens. The microphone is connected with the secondary coil of a transformer, whose secondary coil is connected with



Electro-cardiogram (above) and phono-cardiogram (below) of a heart affected with mitral disease.



Electro-cardiogram (above) and phono-cardiogram (below) of normal heart.



Normal electro-cardiograms for the three circuits.

June 26, 1909

The string galvanometer. The movements of the galvanometer filament are recorded in the manner already described.

The phonocardiogram line obtained shows oscillations arranged in groups, which are nearly synchronous with the second and third elevations of the electrocardiogram. These oscillations are especially intense and instructive in cases of valvular disease.

These new electrical methods of recording the contractions and the sounds of the heart possess the great advantage of applicability to patients at a distance. Illustrative to this laboratory, made electrocardiograms at patients in a hospital more than a mile away, and several great hospitals are now provided with electrical cordless isolation beds in the wards can be connected with electrocardiographic apparatus situated in a special laboratory. In this way the patient is spared fatigue and the excitement caused by the sight of the apparatus, both of which are especially injurious and disturbing in heart disease. Before long, possibly, the public hospital system will be improved into this service, and the eminent specialists, seated in his office, can witness the hearts of patients who remain in their distant homes.

Dr. Fowler, a collaborator of Dr. Carroll, recently described a bold and original attempt to treat valvular diseases of the heart by surgical methods. While we admire the skill and daring manifested in this and similar surgical exploits, it is well to remember that they have been made possible by the researches of the infamous vivisectionists who are held up to the public execration by certain supersensitive souls. These researches have enabled us, not only to modify the natural conditions of the heart's action, but even to revive a heart that is apparently dead. This resurrection of the heart is shown in the following striking experiment.

A frog's heart is excised and, after it has ceased to beat, an artificial circulation is established in it, either with deoxygenated blood, or with a wholly artificial serum. In a few seconds the heart begins to beat again. If the beats of this "isolated" heart are recorded on a rotating cylinder by appropriate mechanism the record shows that they exactly resemble the beats of a living frog's heart in rhythm, frequency and amplitude.

A highly refined and perfected apparatus of this kind devised by Fuchow, shown in one of the accompanying illustrations, permits of the study of the effect of various solutions on the heart of a warm blooded animal. The heart is electrically stimulated and performs its functions as though in the body. The solutions are passed through the heart as is the blood when the heart is performing its offices in the living animal.

In this apparatus the arrangement of the two pressure tanks is particularly ingenious. The pulleys permit them to be raised and lowered as necessity demands and the connection of an air pipe from one tank to the other as well as the pipe through which the solution flows insures a practically uniform pressure.

An even temperature is maintained by heating the bath in the tank by means of gas burners which are directly beneath the bath chamber. The use of three jars in the bath chamber allows experimentation with as many solutions.

The manometer indicates the blood pressure. The apparatus to the extreme left records the heart beats with an ink pen on plain paper which surrounds the roll.

The electric battery with bell is connected with the electric thermostat and rings a bell if the temperature rises above or falls below a certain point. As an insurance against temperature changes the bath tank is built with two walls having an air space between them.

While there have been a number of clever mechanisms constructed during the past generation to promote the study of the vascular mechanism this one has been thought out with greater attention to detail than any hitherto known, and the result in control of pressure and temperature leaves little to be desired.

By gradually improving their methods physiologists have obtained the same result with isolated hearts of rabbits, dogs and other mammals, maintaining their functional activity for many hours.

This method has produced important practical results. It permits us to study the properties of the active cardiac muscle, which are very different from those of other muscles.

For example, the contraction of a skeletal muscle is proportional to the stimulus which evokes it, but the

cardiac muscle contracts to its maximum extent or not at all. The method also facilitates the study of the factors that influence the heart's contractions (temperature, physical and chemical agents, etc.). By varying the composition of the irrigating serum different curves are obtained which indicate differences in the force, frequency and form of the contractions. This method is very valuable for the study of the effects of medicines upon the heart because, in the isolated heart, these effects are not masked by other physiological reactions, as they often are in the living subject. For example, the addition of a trace of chloroform to the irrigating serum stops the beating of the isolated heart instantly and often permanently. This proves that chloroform is a heart poison and explains the fatalities that occur in anesthesia produced by chloroform. Small doses of caffeine, on the contrary, augment the frequency and amplitude of the beats of the isolated heart, and digitalin increases the energy of its contractions.

These experiments are most successful when they are practiced upon the isolated heart soon after its removal from the body, but they can be performed hours or even days after its excision. A dog's heart has been revived after four days, a rabbit's heart after five days, a tortoise's heart after eight days of isolation.

Can the same miracle be wrought upon the human heart? The heart of a beheaded criminal has been observed to beat spontaneously twenty-five minutes after decapitation, and it has been found possible to restore the heart's beating by massage, forty minutes after it had stopped.

Improvements in the artificial circulation may enable us to revive the heart of a man as well as that of a dog. The heart is not the only tissue that survives removal from the body. The muscles of the frog and the tortoise are able to contract ten days after excision, fragments of intestine have been kept alive a week, segments of arteries retain their contractility twenty days, and spontaneous movements of the eyes and face of a beheaded criminal have been observed ten minutes after decapitation. When we add these facts, and make the very probable assumption that the survival of organs and tissues will be prolonged when we shall have learned more of the physical and chemical conditions

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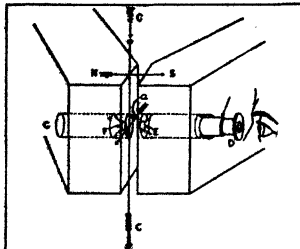
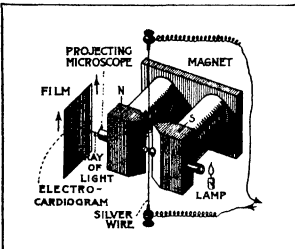


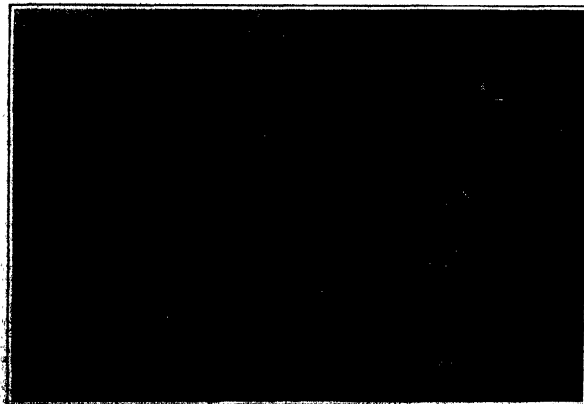
Diagram of the Matheson string galvanometer.



Recording the contraction of a frog's heart.

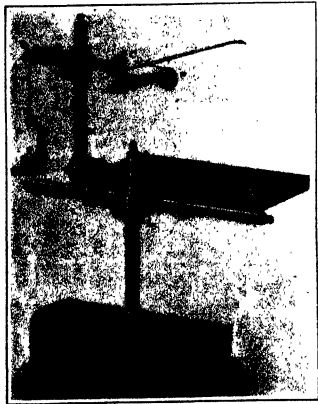


Einthoven galvanometer recording heart currents.



Fuchow's apparatus for irrigating the isolated heart with artificial serum.

A, electric thermostat; B, bath chamber; C, three-way connection; D, isolated heart; E, bath to keep solutions at a constant temperature; F, manometer; G, heater, controlled by thermostat; H, bell on change of temperature; I, J, pressure tanks; K, apparatus for recording heart action.



The traction cardiograph.

L, adjustable support for the operating table; K, support for recording device. Connection with a frog's heart made by rest over the pulley P and attached at Q to a siphon recorder.

Are Plants Cruel?

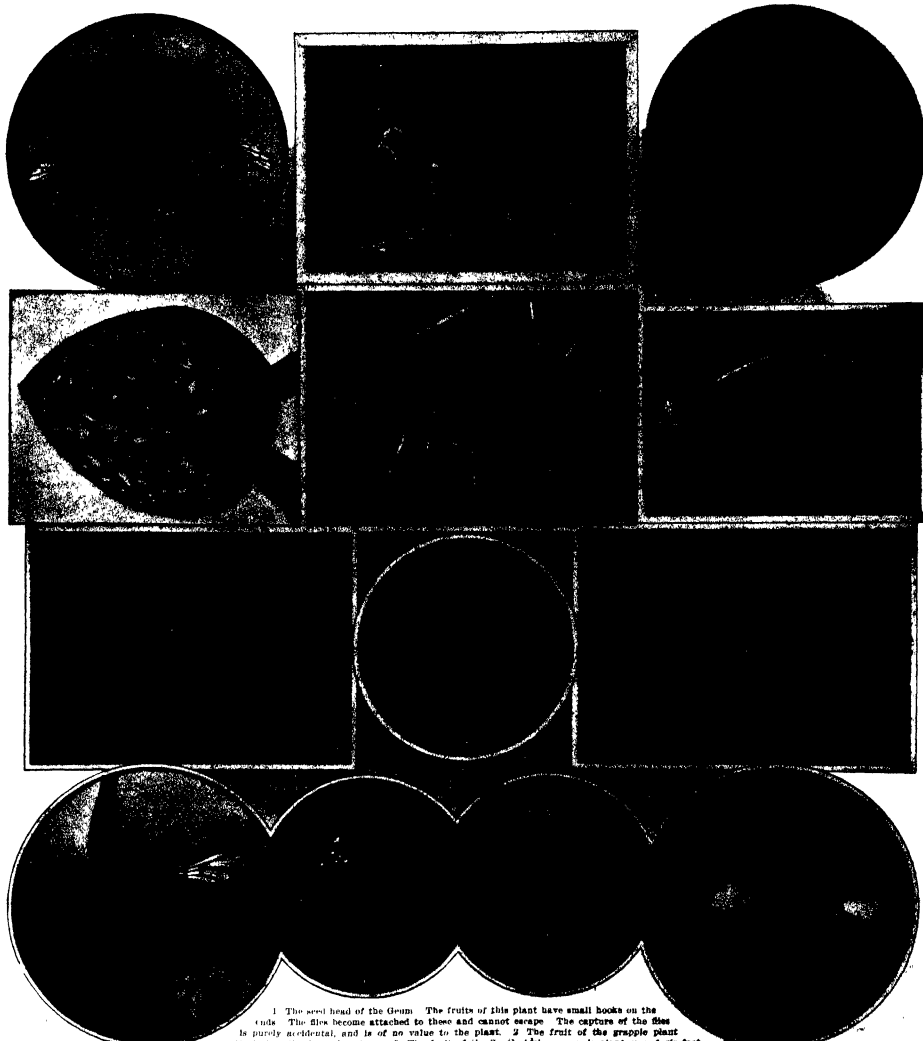
Brutal Injuries Inflicted on Insects and Animals

By S. Leonard Bastin

ONE cannot help thinking that many plants are unnecessarily brutal in some of the methods which have been adopted. It is, of course, well known that a certain number of species find it useful to capture

insects in order that they may supplement their supply of nitrogenous food. In most of the schemes the unhappy victim is doomed to undergo the torture of a lingering death. Very rarely is the insect killed at

once. First of all let us consider the case of the *Duringtonia*, a plant which usually catches winged insects. The flies are lured by honey secretions to enter the hooded process at the top of the pitcher-like leaf. This



1 The seed head of the Groun. The fruits of this plant have small hooks on the ends. The fly becomes attached to these and cannot escape. The capture of the fly is purely accidental, and is of no value to the plant. 2 The fruit of the grapple plant attached to the foot of a sheep. 3 The fruit of the South African grapple plant on a dog's foot. It is exceedingly difficult to remove. 4 The *Duringtonia* hood. This is covered with transparent patches. 5 The terrible spines of a West Indian cactus. The smaller ones catch hold of the flesh and are very difficult to pull out. 6 The fruit of the South American *Martynia* has enormous hooks which are many inches in length. These plunge into the flesh of animals. 7 The leaflet at the mouth of the pitcher of the *adn-schile* plant all point downward. Thus the unhappy insect, trying to escape from the pitcher, is thrust into the gawling pit below. 8 Why the nettle stings. The hairs (enlarged) show the little bulb of poison at the base. The effect of some tropical nettle stings will last for days. 9 A cactus with minute hairs on its spines. The spines are loosely attached, and after penetrating the flesh, come away and are likely to cause blistering wounds. 10 The Venus fly-trap will not infrequently capture flies which are too large for its purpose. These wear themselves to death in vain endeavors to escape. 11 *Duringtonia*, California. This plant tempts flies to enter its curious hood. The insects cannot escape and are used by the plant as food. 12 The mouth of the pitcher of the *Rarracenia* is covered with hairs which make escape impossible for the unfortunate insect. The hairs all point downward. 13 The "wait-a-bit" cactus. The hook catches hold of the tongue of the animal and inflicts terrible injuries. 14 The cruelty of plants.

they fly away, and in opening on the underside. The whole of the upper portion of the hood is covered with transparent patches like so many windows. Now when the fly wishes to leave he naturally flies upward toward the light which streams down through these windows. The real opening is hidden in the shade of the under part, and passes unnoticed. Thus the flies simply beat themselves to death, in a vain endeavor to escape through the transparent places. This proceeding may extend over hours, but it always has one ending. The fly falls exhausted into the fluid at the bottom of the pitcher, and is drowned.

Very much the same thing happens in the case of the *Slide Beetle* (*Baranenia*). Here the insect is lured into the interior of the pitcher, but the exit at the mouth is barred by numerous sharp bristles which all point downward. It is almost impossible to crawl up against these processes and, after many futile attempts, the small beetle falls back into the horrible pit beneath.

Many flies meet with peculiarly brutal deaths in connection with the Venus fly trap. In an accompanying photograph is shown a capsule by this plant. Here the victim was a large blue bottle fly, too big a specimen for the leaf to inclose. The insect was captured by its legs and held fast; meanwhile it beat its life away in vain endeavor to escape. An even more singular case was that to be observed in the fruiting head of the *Oxeye*. Here the fruits have small hooks, and the legs of flies are entangled in the process. They cannot escape, and so must die miserably. The happening is, of course, a pure accident, and the flies are of no value to the plant.

The manner in which the disposal of seeds is secured often involves happenings of a peculiarly brutal nature. In the first place let us take the case of the fruit of the *Martynia*, a South American plant. Here the capsule is armed with terrific hooks, sometimes as much as 5 or 6 inches in length. These are curved in such a way that when the hold of passing animals, and pull it deeply into the flesh. It is said that bullocks are often driven half frantic with the pain produced by the cruel hooks. Frequently the most dreadful wounds are the outcome of the pressure of the *Martynia* fruits, and the unhappy creature may not be able to get rid of the burden for several weeks. Of course the final result is that the seeds of the plant receive a very wide distribution, but a large amount of needless suffering seems to be involved.

Even more astonishing is the case of the *Grapple* fruit of South Africa (*Harpagophyton*). This species is of a low growing habit, and bears huge fruits, which are freely adorned with the most formidable barbed appendages. The fruit secures its dispersion in the following manner. In its position on the ground it is liable to be trodden on by sheep, deer, etc. As a consequence, the hooks catch hold and these penetrate into the tender places of the foot, between the horny portions. The unhappy animals limp about, and it may well be weeks before the dreadful burden can be thrown aside. During this time the most dreadful wounds are produced, and in most cases the very likely to fall a victim to some beast of prey. In this connection a very singular happening sometimes occurs which is well substantiated. A lion captures an antelope with a grapple fruit on its foot. When making his meal, the lion gets the hooked capsule in his jaws, and the horns suddenly become entangled in the mouth parts. The more the lion chews, the less likely he is to get rid of the encumbrance, but owing to the pain and annoyance the beast cannot leave his mouth alone. So the miserable business goes forward. Days pass and the lion is quite unable to eat and as a consequence becomes weak and helpless. So the king of beasts dies, killed by the fruit of the *Grapple* plant.

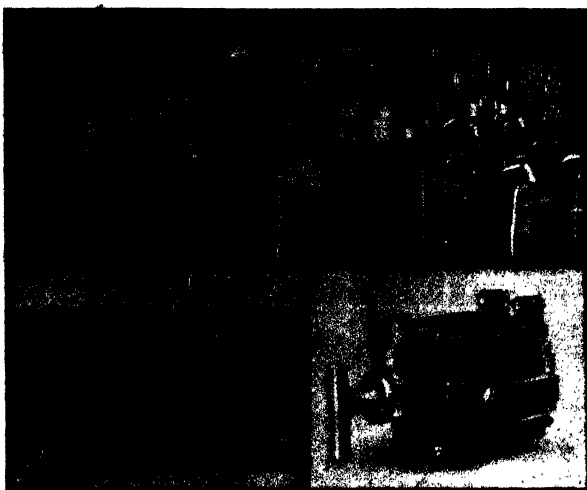
It is of course assumed that plants must take certain means to protect themselves against the attacks of animals. Some of the measures which have been adopted are positively vindictive. Take the case of the com-

mon Stinging Nettle. Here the plant is covered with minute hairs which penetrate the skin, and at the same time inject an irritant poison, the effect of which lasts for hours. Some of the tropical nettles are much more terrible. The following is an account taken from the Himalayan Journals of Sir Joseph Hooker, in which an Indian nettle is described. "This plant, called 'neelum-ma', attains fifteen feet in height. It has broad glossy leaves, and though apparently without stings, is held in so great dread that I had difficulty in getting men to help cut it down." No wonder the plant is avoided, for if a person is stung by the nettle, the results are appalling. The pain is at first comparatively slight, but after a few hours the affected part feels as if it were being rubbed with a hot iron. Later the most distressing symptoms arise in other parts of the body, which not uncommonly involve the contraction of the muscles of the jaw, and other indications which are similar to those to be observed in a case of lockjaw. In one instance it was nine days before the unhappy individual was free from pain and discomfort. In such a case as this it would seem that a huge amount of unnecessary suffering is involved. It is possible to protect a plant from attack as can be seen in many cases, without adopting such brutal methods.

Self defense has been carried to a fine art among desert plants, especially in the case of the *Cacti*. A formidable array of sharp spines is of course an admir-

A set of transmitters in operation

Receivers installed beside the marksmen



The shooting range at Spaulden.

Electric remote gages for shooting ranges.

The mechanism of the transmitter

able means of preventing an attack from animals, but many species have carried the matter a good deal further than this. Here the idea seems to be not so much to repel the attack, as to do as much damage to the enemy as possible. In this way an enormous amount of suffering is caused. Some kinds of *Prickly Pear* (*Opuntia*) have minute barbs on their spines, and if any animal should attempt to attack the plant, or even brush up against it, the spines hold on firmly when driven into the flesh. They are very loosely attached to the plant, so that the unhappy creature takes away a large number of minute when he withdraws. These remain to produce festering wounds, and in this way bring about a large amount of pain. Another kind of *Cactus* has singular hooked spines as well as those of a more ordinary nature. On this account the species is called the "Wait-a-Bit" plant. Whether it should be the clothes of some passer-by or the tongue of an unfortunate animal the hook holds on, meanwhile the sharp straight spines do deadly work. The tearing away process, if the hook should be buried in flesh, is, as can be imagined, a most painful proceeding.

The instances given above are only a few out of a very large number, which might be brought forward to show that in many ways plants are guilty of great cruelty. One cannot get away from the idea that most of the suffering involved appears to be quite unnecessary, for there are plenty of instances to show that the same ends can be achieved in less painful ways

Electric Remote Gages for Shooting Ranges

By Our Berlin Correspondent

ATTEMPTS have occasionally been made to employ electrical apparatus in shooting ranges for signaling the number of the ring hit at each shot, but the arrangements so far devised are of a rather rudimentary description, and could only be used in conjunction with the usual mechanical gages.

The Marksmen's Society at Spaulden, near Berlin, has taken a decisive step in this direction, by having all its shooting ranges fitted with electric remote gages of a new system which offers a number of novel features.

The society owns extensive shooting grounds, comprising three 300-meter, twelve 175-meter, two 100-meter ranges, and one 35-meter range. Each range is fitted with a transmitter and receiver serving to signal the number of the ring hit each time. Each of these apparatus, connected together by electric cables, comprises a scale, the twenty-three divisions of which bear the inscriptions 0, 1, 2, 3, . . . 20, "Telephone," and "Stop." The transmitter is installed to the left of the target, between the guide bar of two outstanding targets, there being no need for providing any special room for it, as in connection with previous installations. The receiver is arranged, in the shooting range, to the left of the marksmen, and is readily read and checked by the latter, as well as by the secretary seated immediately behind him. Each transmitter and receiver comprises an index fitted with a handle, which is readily adjusted by hand, the index and handle of the transmitter being connected in the interior of the casing, with an adjusting arrangement resembling a small electric motor, which insures perfect agreement in the readings of the two apparatus. The index of the receiver is shifted by a similar system, and being protected by a glass plate, cannot be interfered with by the marksmen.

With each new reading, marksmen are advised by a short acoustic signal given by an electric buzzer, at the transmitter and receiver, which is readily distinguished from the bell signal employed for other uses. At the marksmen's post and on the desk of the secretary seated behind him, there are push buttons which, when simultaneously depressed, the buzzer of the transmitter and receiver, which are distinguished by their different tones.

The installation further comprises a telephone plant. Waterproof telephones, arranged in the passageway of each range, are connected up to an indicator switchboard installed in a special cabin, whence each telephone is readily called. In order to get a connection with his marksmen, the man entrusted with the operation of the transmitter has only to adjust the index of the bell signal to the division "Telephone," thus causing the receiver index to take up immediately the same position and advising the marksmen that he is wanted on the telephone. The telephone plant has been designed on the central battery system, the battery being installed so as to be sheltered from atmospheric influences, the telephone apparatus are joined together by means of armored cables.

The installation above described works as follows: After taking up his post in the shooting range and firing his shot, the marksmen presses down the push button on his left thus actuating the buzzer of his receiver and transmitter and attracting the attention of the operator. The latter looks for the mark left on the target by the shot just fired, pointing out with a small rod, the section in which the mark is found (top, bottom, right, or left). Having then taken down the target, he adjusts the transmitter index to the number of the ring hit by the marksmen. While he is shifting this index, the electric buzzer of the transmitter and receiver are sounded simultaneously, and the receiver index takes up the same position as that of the transmitter. The operator finally pastes some paper on the

(Continued on page 639.)

The Heavens in July

A Hundred and Twenty Thousand Years Hence the Tides Will Have Lengthened Our Day by One Second

By Henry Norris Russell, Ph.D.

IN last month's article we considered the singular "secular acceleration" of the moon's motion—that very slow, but steady, shortening of the month whose effects appear unmistakably upon comparison of the recorded observations of classical antiquity with the results of modern investigation. We may now spend a few moments in considering the causes of this phenomenon.

For more than a century after its discovery by Halley it remained entirely mysterious. The first light thrown upon it came from the keen mathematical insight of that great student of the celestial motions, Laplace.

Ever since Newton had discovered the law of gravitation, the difficult question of the manner in which the combined attraction of the Sun and Earth would cause the Moon to move had served to sharpen the wits of the keenest mathematicians. Newton himself had shown how the Sun, by attracting the Earth and Moon in different directions, and with different intensity (according to their varying distances and directions from him) sometimes produced a tendency for the two bodies to separate, and sometimes drew them together. These disturbing forces, though at first most amounting to little more than one per cent of the Earth's attraction for the Moon, cause great changes in its orbit. A simple calculation shows that, though the Sun's influence often acts to reinforce the Earth's attraction on the Moon for three or four days at a time, it sooner or later acts powerfully in the opposite direction, so that, on the average, through months and years the earth's attraction is diminished. The smaller this attraction, the longer will be the time which a satellite at a given distance will require to complete a revolution, so that the month is actually longer by some 33 minutes than it would otherwise be, the case.

Now the Sun's disturbing action upon the Moon depends on its average distance from the Earth. If the Earth's orbit around the Sun were always of the same size and shape, this average distance would be favorable, and so would be the length of the month. But the attraction of the planets causes slow changes in the Earth's orbit, and Laplace showed that, though these changes are at present of such a nature that the average distance of the Earth from the Sun is very slowly increasing—not the average of the greatest and least distances reached during the year (this remains constant) but the average of all the distances on the individual days of the year.

Hence the Sun's action in increasing the length of the month is slowly diminishing, and the month is getting a little shorter, century by century, so that the Moon slowly follows out her position calculated without consideration of this fact.

The computation of the exact amount of this change is extremely intricate, but the results of Newcomb and Brown show conclusively that it would set the Moon ahead by 61 seconds of arc at the end of a century, or, in other words, would shorten the month by one second of time in the next century.

It is worth remarking that this change will not go on forever. The decrease of the eccentricity of the Earth's orbit, in which it finds its origin, will come to an end about 25,000 years hence, and be followed by an increase, so that the month will shorten for these 25,000 years and then grow longer again.

But we are not yet at the bottom of the matter, for the observed rate of change in the month is one second in 3,400 years—about 70 per cent greater than that calculated above. There can be no doubt that the calculations and observations are both substantially correct, and it therefore appears that there must be at least two different causes simultaneously acting to account for the observed change.

Fortunately, another cause is known to exist, namely, the friction of the tides raised by the Moon in the oceans and even in the solid mass of the Earth. Any one who has seen an old-fashioned tide mill has had visible evidence that the rise and fall of the tides dissipate energy—providing power which, if properly directed, can be used to perform useful work but otherwise is "wasted" in stirring up and heating the tidal currents.

Now this energy must come from somewhere. It is easy to see that the only possible reservoir of energy which the Earth can tap is that of the Earth's rotation; for if the Earth kept always the same face toward the Moon, and everything else in nature was the same as now, it would always be high tide (so far as the tides raised by the Moon were concerned) in the same place, there would be no rise and fall of the water on the coast, and no loss of energy by friction.

Hence we see that the tides must act on the rotating Earth very much as a brake acts on a rotating wheel, diminishing its rate of rotation very slowly to be sure, but steadily, and converting the energy of rotation into heat at the points where the brake is applied (L. E., in this case, where the tidal currents run).

In the course of ages, therefore, as the earth rotates more slowly, each day must get a little longer. If the Sun, Moon and planets keep on moving in reality at their original rates, they will go slightly farther in each of the new days than they would have done in the old ones, and so must gradually get ahead of our

discovered, indicates a more rapid change, amounting to a lengthening of the day by one second in about 25,000 years. The reconciliation of these two values remains as a problem for the investigator of this difficult subject—some idea of whose complexity was perhaps gained from the foregoing account, which deals with only its very simplest phases.

The Heavens.

The brilliant region of Scorpion and Sagittarius is now full south and visible at its best. Above this, on the right, is the extensive area of Ophiuchus extending to the left of which is Aquila. Below this again is Capricornus, with the pretty naked-eye pair which bears the Greek letter Alpha. Beta Capricorni, just below, is also double, having a companion visible in a field glass.

The great square of Pegasus has just risen, and stands upon its corner in the east. Andromeda is also low, on the northeastern horizon. Cassiopeia and Cepheus are above her, and Cygnus and Lyra are high in the east—the latter almost overhead.

Draco and Ursa Minor are in the north, and Ursa Major in the northwest. The brightest star in the western sky is Arcturus. Spica is in the east, and the stars of Corona and Hercules are above, on the line toward Lyra.

The Planets.

Mercury is a morning star this month, being at his greatest elongation on the 18th. At this time he rises about 8:30 A. M. and is easily visible before dawn. He is in the western part of Gemini, and Saturn is close by, the two planets being in conjunction and only 1 degree apart, on the 22nd.

Venus, too, is a morning star, about 5 degrees lower in the sky than the other two, and rises about 30 minutes later. She is very much brighter than Mercury, which slightly exceeds Saturn in brilliancy.

Mars is a morning star, too, but is in Taurus, much farther west, and rises at about 1:30 A. M. in the middle of the month. Jupiter is in Pisces, close to the vernal equinox—the departure point from which celestial longitudes and right ascensions are measured—and rises at about 10:30 P. M. in the middle of the month. Saturn is a morning star, practically invisible in the early part of the month, but easily to be seen at its close.

Uranus is in Capricornus, about 2 degrees northeast of the fourth magnitude star Theta Capricorni, and comes to the meridian about 2:30 A. M. at the beginning of the month, and 12:30 A. M. at its close.

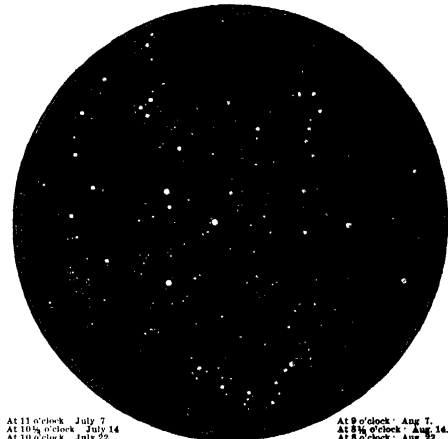
Neptune is in conjunction with the Sun on the 23rd, and is invisible this month.

The Moon is in her last quarter at 1 A. M. on the 4th, new at 5 A. M. on the 12th, in her first quarter at 4 P. M. on the 19th, and full at 7 A. M. on the 26th. She is nearest us on the 24th, and farthest away on the 8th. In her circuit of the heavens she comes into conjunction with Jupiter on the 3rd, Mars on the 8th, Venus and Mercury on the 10th, Saturn on the 11th, Neptune on the 15th, Uranus on the 27th, and Jupiter again on the 30th.

On July 8th the Earth reaches its greatest distance from the Sun, 94,400,000 miles; but, since the hemisphere on which we live is tipped toward the Sun, we get about the hottest days of the year.

The comet whose discovery by DeLauray was announced last month, came out to be a new object of Tempel's periodic comet, whose period has been about two months. This comet, first discovered in 1878, has not been seen since 1904, so at its return in 1910 it was unfavorably placed. It will remain visible in the morning sky for some little time, but will decrease in brightness and soon become inconspicuous telescopically. Princeton University Observatory.

A Patent for Special Hand or Used Mailed in This—Over 50,000 of these, of which the first was patented No. 1,123,911 for a printer's type which he gave between the sheets of a book and the three tubes a removable metal casing which he called as "consisting of the combined series of metal portions of a metal casing and" and described as being from stretching because of its previous use.



NIGHT SKY: JULY AND AUGUST

reckoning, because the Earth, whose rotation we use to set our clocks by, is itself like a clock which is gradually running slower and slower.

In the case of the Moon, the situation is somewhat complicated by the fact that (so to speak) she holds the other end of the brake—the connections being the invisible, but very real, bonds of mutual gravitation. Obviously, in the case of a flywheel, when the brake was clamped on its axle, it would be necessary to tie down the end of the brake lever to prevent its flying around with the axle and wheel. A corresponding force will act on the Moon, urging it forward in the direction of its motion. Calculation shows that the principal effect of this force will be to make the Moon's orbit grow larger, so that she will slowly recede from the Earth. In this larger orbit she will take longer to complete a revolution than in her original orbit, so that the tidal action tends in this way to increase the length of the month measured by a perfect timepiece. Computation shows that, under the existing conditions, this effect is more than compensated by the slowing of the Earth's rotation, so that, measured by our terrestrially adjusted clocks, the Moon will seem to run fast by almost the same amount by which she really goes slow.

Account for the outstanding secular acceleration of the Moon, remaining after allowance has been made for the gravitational action explained above, it is, therefore, only necessary to assume that tidal friction is slowing the Earth's rotation to such an extent that the day becomes one second longer at the end of some 120,000 years.

The similar secular acceleration of the Sun, recently



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ment of its coming. Death advances to stalk and of all living beings man is least able to resist it. Many lower organisms survive very extensive mutilation. Frogs leap after the removal of their heart and lungs. A tortoise moved its legs eleven days after decapitation, another lived six months without a brain. Humboldt saw a condor which had been strangled and hung, walk as usual as it was released and stand erect after being shot four times in the neck, breast and midsection. A beetle half devoured by ants continued crawling normally and according to Trevaux a grasshopper moved its legs and antennae five months after it had been disemboweled and placed in a barrel.

Successibility, to death therefore, appears to be associated with complexity and perfection of organic development.

Electric Remote Shooting Gages

(Continued from page 633)

mark made by the bullet, after which the target is ready for another shot.

The first cost of this electrical outfit is, in most cases, more than made up by the saving in ground and accommodations. Operating expenses are exceedingly low. At Spaulding, three-phase current at 220 volts, 55 cycles is available for feeding the apparatus, thus allowing a very simple type of alternating current gage to be used. The 15 shooting ranges are arranged in six groups of three and as each group has an armored underground cable of its own, any breakdown in operation will be limited to the three ranges of a given cable. Each group communicates with the electric main through a transformer, stepping down the tension from 220 to 55 volts. The consumption of energy of each transmuter solvent set is about 25 watts.

Wire Ro

ALTHOUGH wire rope has been used as a mechanical agent for almost 5,000 years, it is commonly regarded as a modern invention. During the many years which have elapsed since the first records of its use, wire rope has passed from a crude to a highly developed product and the purposes for which it is employed have increased a thousandfold. In no other branch of the American steel industry is there so great a demand for material of proven integrity, for it might be safely suggested that wire rope is born to be abused. It is used to transmit the heaviest strains, it is used with constant beatings, abrasion, corrosion, and the peculiar internal stresses produced by vibration.

Wire rope as it is made today, is the product of the metallurgist and the mechanic. Every process from the smelting of the ores to the cold drawing of the wire and the heat treatments they receive down to the stranding, or laying up of the cable, is conducted with mathematical precision.

The chemist sees that only steel of the proper analysis is used. The electric power insures uniformity of heat treatment and various testing machines clearly develop the worth of the product before it is allowed to leave the mill. Wire rope is used in mine shafts more than a mile in depth, and may be found on aeroplanes which sail a mile or more above the ground.

A Boston firm has just been furnished with 3-inch diameter dredge-rope which has a strength of more than 645,000 pounds. The same mill that turned out this product makes the 1/16-inch cable which is embedded in automobile tires for re-enforcing purposes.

Wire rope is made for guying the poles of circus tents and then the tight-rope walkers and the ballet performers are provided with the means to display their arts in wire of the finest strand, but of surest strength.

Civilization is to a very great extent indebted to the wire-rope makers—for without them stores of minerals, such as coal and copper would be virtually inaccessible; the construction of high buildings impossible; and the development of the country's every resource a hopelessly tedious task.



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GOODYEAR CORD TIRES

An 11-Year Attainment

The Goodyear Cord Tire has suddenly attained a multiplied popularity. The demand has lately increased tenfold. Many owners of fine cars are now adopting these Cord Tires. Some high-priced cars will soon come equipped with them. So Goodyear Cord Tires rather dominate now in new interest.

Not a New Type

The Cord Tire itself is not new. We have built Cord Tires since 1904. The English French type, built abroad, is older still, but it never attained great vogue. Its virtues were dimmed by too many shortcomings, including high cost per mile. But, starting with that, we have for 11 years been building and bettering Cord Tires.

Cord Tires, in cost per tire, may exceed other types somewhat. The construction is rather expensive. Our aim has been to make extra mileage offset that higher cost. And the present popularity of Goodyear Cord Tires is due to our success.

Multiplying Mileage

Goodyear Cord Tires, in this end, are built greatly oversize. That adds to tire life.

Then Goodyear Cord Tires have from 6 to 10 cord layers. Our 4-inch Cord Tire is an 8-ply tire. Our larger sizes are 10-ply. That means extreme reinforcement. Goodyear Cord Tires have our No-Rim-Cut feature, which combats a major waste.

These three great improvements—each exclusive to Goodyear—have multiplied Cord Tire mileage. Yet they sacrifice no iota of resiliency or comfort. And they add no extra price. Goodyear Cord Tires cost about the same as others of this type. Then, to make them utterly secure, we vulcanize 126 braided piano wires into each tire base. Goodyear Cord Tires need no hooks on the base—those hooks which "freeze" into the rim flange. For front wheels they come with a heavy grooved tread which aids steering. For rear wheels they come with our All-Weather tread, tough and double thick, with restless sharp-edged grips. Those are some Goodyear supermacies.

Cord Tire Virtues

Goodyear Cord Tires are tires of super-comfort. They are wonderful shock-absorbers. Never was a Cord Tire more resilient. Never was one better adapted to minimize trouble, give unusual mileage, increase speed and save power.

On electric cars, Cord Tires have long been the only advised pneumatics. Ease and comfort were most appealing there, and power-saving was of prime importance. Goodyear Cord Tires on electric cars add from 25 to 30 per cent to the mileage per charge. Now, with Goodyear improvements, many gasoline car owners are adopting these comfort tires.

When you come to Cord Tires must on the Goodyear perfection. In them will be this type's permanent popularity. Most electric car makers supply Goodyear Cord Tires on request. Most gasoline car makers who do not equip with them will supply them.

Any Goodyear dealer can get them for you. Any Goodyear branch—in 67 cities—will direct you to a stock.

THE GOODYEAR TIRE & RUBBER COMPANY
AKRON, OHIO



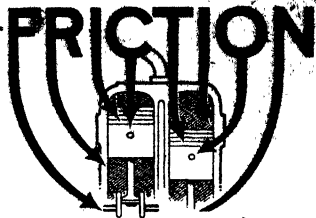
GOODYEAR
SUPREMACIES
Great Over-
6 to 10 Cord Layers
No-Rim-Cut
Feature

GOODYEAR
SUPREMACIES
126 piano-wire
base
All-Weather
Treads

All-Weather Tread

Robbed Tread

GOOD YEAR
CORD TIRES



The Destroyer of Steel

Like the weight of an extra passenger, friction always rides with you.

It drags at your bearings. It robs you of power. It wears down metal. There are several thousand piston-strokes in a cylinder for each mile the car runs.

As friction can never be entirely overcome, it is imperative that you use the best possible friction reducing oil for your motor.

Unless the body of your oil is adapted to your motor and feed system, it will not properly distribute between the moving parts.

And, unless its quality or lubricating efficiency is of the highest, it too quickly wears out under the constant rubbing between the moving metal pieces.

At this point we print a scientific Chart of Automobile Recommendations. This Chart for a number of years has been the motorist's standard guide to correct lubrication.

The way of an oil specified for your car in this Chart enables it to feed in correct quantities to every friction point.

After it reaches these friction points, its quality assures a constant and proper oil cushion.

That oil cushion is your only insurance against premature motor wear.

It is your only safeguard against the noisy complaints of worn-down metal parts.

If you want to make certain of this protection, note down the grade of Gargyle Mobiloils specified for your car. Then ask for that grade and see that you get it.

If your car is not listed in the partial chart at the right, send for the complete Chart which embraces 385 makes of car.

**GARGYLE
E.L.I.
Mobiloils**
A grade for each type of motor

The four grades of Gargyle Mobiloils, for gasoline motor lubrication, purified to remove free carbon, are:

- Gargyle Mobiloil "A"
- Gargyle Mobiloil "B"
- Gargyle Mobiloil "E"
- Gargyle Mobiloil "Arctic"

For Electric Vehicles use Gargyle Mobiloil "A" for motor and excitation chains. For open chains and differentials use Gargyle Mobiloil "C".

In buying Gargyle Mobiloils from your dealer, be alert to recognize its original packaging. Look for the red Gargyle on the container. For lubricating, kindly address any inquiry to our nearest office.



Correct Lubrication

Remember: In the Chart below the letter opposite the car indicates the grade of Gargyle Mobiloil that should be used. For example, "A" means Gargyle Mobiloil "A". "Arctic" means Gargyle Mobiloil "Arctic". etc. The recommendations cover all models of both pleasure and commercial vehicles unless otherwise noted.

Make of Car	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915
Alfa Romeo (8 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (6 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (4 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (2 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/8 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/16 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/32 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/64 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/128 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/256 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/512 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1024 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2048 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4096 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/8192 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/16384 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/32768 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/65536 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/131072 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/262144 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/524288 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1048576 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2097152 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4194304 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/8388608 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/16777216 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/33554432 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/67108864 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/134217728 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/268435456 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/536870912 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1073741824 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2147483648 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4294967296 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/8589934592 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/17179869184 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/34359738368 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/68719476736 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/137438953472 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/274877906944 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/549755813888 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1099511627776 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2199023255552 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4398046511104 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/8796093022208 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/17592186044416 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/35184372088832 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/70368744177664 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/140737488355328 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/281474976710656 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/562949953421312 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1125899906842624 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2251799813685248 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4503599627370496 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/9007199254740992 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/18014398509481984 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/36028797018963968 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/72057594037927936 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/144115188075855872 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/288230376151711744 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/576460752303423488 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1152921504606846976 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2305843009213693952 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4611686018427387904 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/9223372036854775808 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/18446744073709551616 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/36893488147419103232 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/73786976294838206464 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/147573952589676412928 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/295147905179352825856 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/590295810358705651712 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1180591620717411303424 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2361183241434822606848 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4722366482869645213696 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/9444732965739290427392 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/18889465931478580854784 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/37778931862957161709568 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/75557863725914323419136 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/151115727451828646838272 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/302231454903657293676544 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/604462909807314587353088 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1208925819614629174706176 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2417851639229258349412352 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4835703278458516698824704 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/9671406556917033397649408 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/19342813113834066795298816 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/38685626227668133590597632 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/77371252455336267181195264 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/154742504910672534362390528 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/316912650057057350374175801344 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/633825300114114700748351602688 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1267650600228229401496703205376 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2535301200456458802993406410752 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/5070602400912917605986812821504 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/10141204801825835211973625643008 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/20282409603651670423947251286016 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/40564819207303340847894502572032 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/81129638414606681695789005144064 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/162259276829213363391578010288128 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/324518553658426726783156020576256 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/649037107316853453566312041152512 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1298074214633706907132624082305024 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2596148429267413814265248164610048 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/5192296858534827628530496329220096 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/10384593717069655257060992658440192 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/20769187434139310514121985316880384 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/41538374868278621028243970633760768 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/83076749736557242056487941267521536 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/166153499473114484112975882535043072 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/332306998946228968225951765070086144 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/664613997892457936451903530140172288 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1329227995784915872903807060280344576 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2658455991569831745807614120560689152 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/5316911983139663491615228241121378304 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/10633823966279326983230456482242756608 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/21267647932558653966460912964485513216 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/42535295865117307932921825928971026432 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/85070591730234615865843651857942052864 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/170141183460469231731687303715884105728 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/340282366920938463463374607431768211456 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/680564733841876926926749214863536422912 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1361129467683753853853498429727072845824 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2722258935367507707706996859454145691648 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/5444517870735015415413993718908291383296 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/10889035741470030830827987437816582766592 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/21778071482940061661655974875633165533184 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/43556142965880123323311949751266331066368 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/87112285931760246646623899502532662132736 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/174224571863520493293247799005065244264512 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/348449143727040986586495598010130488529024 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/696898287454081973172991196020260977058048 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1393796574908163946345982392040521954116096 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/278759314981632789269196478408104390223168 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/557518629963265578538392956816208780446336 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1115037259926531157076785913632417560892672 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2230074519853062314153571827264835121785344 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4460149039706124628307143654529670243570688 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/8920298079412249256614287309059340487141376 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/17840596158824498513228574618118680974282752 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/35681192317648997026457149236237361948565504 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/71362384635297994052914298472474723897131008 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/142724769270595988105828596944949447794262016 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/285449538541191976211657193889898895588524032 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/570899077082383952423314387779797791177048064 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1141798154164767904846628775559595582354096128 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2283596308329535809693257551119191164708192256 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4567192616659071619386515102238382329416384512 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/9134385233318143238773030204476764658832768024 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/18268770466636286477546060408953529317665536048 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/36537540933272572955092120817907058635331072096 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/73075081866545145910184241635814117270662144192 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/146150163733090291820368483271628234541324288384 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/292300327466180583640736966543256469082648576768 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/584600654932361167281473933086512938165297153536 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1169201309864722334562947866173025876330594307072 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2338402619729444669125895732346051752661188614144 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4676805239458889338251791464692103505322377228288 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/9353610478917778676503582929384207010644754456576 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/18707220957835557353007165858768414021289508913152 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/37414441915671114706014331717536828042579017826304 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/74828883831342229412028663435073656085158035652608 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/149657767662684458824057326870147312170316071305216 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/299315535325368917648114653740294624340632142610432 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/598631070650737835296229307480589248681264285220864 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1197262141301475670592458614961178497362528570441728 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2394524282602951341184917229922356994725057140883456 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4789048565205902682369834459844713989450114281766912 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/9578097130411805364739668919689427978900228563533824 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/19156194260823610729479337839378855957800457127067648 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/38312388521647221458958675678757711915600914254135296 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/76624777043294442917917351357515423831201828508270592 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/153249554086588885835834702715030847662403657016541184 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/306499108173177771671669405430061695324807314033082304 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/612998216346355543343338810860123390649614628066164608 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/1225996432692711086686677621720246781299229256132329216 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/2451992865385422173373355243440493562598458512264658432 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa Romeo (1/4903985730770844346746710486880987125196917024529316864 cyl)	A	A	A	A	A
Alfa					

